

The Importance of Trust in Flexible Working Arrangements

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Abstract

In recent decades, industries of most industrialised economies changed towards an increasing flexibility. To stay competitive, organizations had changed their structures, processes and working conditions as well. Therefore, the number of flexible working arrangements, which were enabled and supported by the development of novel technologies, did increase remarkable. With that development, established command and control approaches to motivation do not work anymore. Thus, trust is becoming increasingly important within organizations.

But so far, trust within flexible working arrangements is still not widely understood. Thus, the aim of this work to understand this relationship and to answer the research question: Which effect does trust within organizations have on the performance of employees in flexible working arrangements? Therefore, an empirical study was carried out in the German-speaking area that did examine the relationship between flexible working arrangements, use of technologies, perceived trust and individual work performance.

The results suggest that the perceived trust, more precisely trust in superior, does have a positive effect on the individual work performance. In contrast, the effect of the flexibility of working arrangements on the individual work performance is less clear. Thus, the level of flexibility was considered as a moderator of the relationship between trust and the individual work performance. The outcome of this analysis indicates that possibilities of spatial flexibility do have a positive moderation effect, whereas requirements on spatial and time flexibility do have a negative moderation effect.

Kurzfassung

In den letzten Jahrzehnten fand ein Wandel hin zu höherer Flexibilität in den industrialisierten Wirtschaftsregionen statt. Um wettbewerbsfähig zu bleiben, mussten Unternehmen ihre Strukturen, Prozesse und Arbeitsbedingungen anpassen. Deshalb wurden auch flexible Arbeitsverhältnisse, die durch neuartige Technologien ermöglicht und unterstützt werden, immer häufiger eingesetzt. Folglich waren etablierte Befehls- und Kontrollmechanismen nicht mehr ausreichend. Darum nahm die Bedeutung von Vertrauen im Unternehmen zu.

Bis jetzt wurde Vertrauen im Zusammenhang mit der Flexibilisierung von Arbeit noch nicht ausreichend erforscht. Deshalb ist es das Ziel dieser Arbeit eine Antwort auf die folgende Forschungsfrage zu finden: Welche Auswirkungen hat Vertrauen in Unternehmen auf die Arbeitsleistung von Angestellten in flexiblen Arbeitsverhältnissen? Dafür wurde eine empirische Studie im deutschsprachigen Raum durchgeführt, welche den Zusammenhang von Flexibilität des Arbeitsverhältnisses, Nutzung von Technologien, individuell wahrgenommenes Vertrauen und individuelle Arbeitsleistung untersucht.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass das individuell wahrgenommene Vertrauen, genauer gesagt Vertrauen in den Vorgesetzten bzw. die Vorgesetzte, einen positiven Effekt auf die individuelle Arbeitsleistung hat. Im Gegensatz dazu ist der Einfluss der Flexibilität des Arbeitsverhältnisses auf die individuelle Arbeitsleistung weniger klar. Deshalb wurde die Flexibilität des Arbeitsverhältnisses als Moderator der Beziehung zwischen Vertrauen und Arbeitsleistung untersucht. Es zeigte sich, dass die Möglichkeit der räumlichen Flexibilität einen positiven Moderatoreffekt hat, wohingegen Anforderungen an räumliche und zeitliche Flexibilität einen negativen Moderatoreffekt aufweisen.

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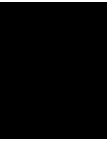
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Introduction

In the last two decades an increasing globalisation could clearly be seen and with that economies of most industrialized countries changed towards increased flexibility. This development had, of course, an impact on organizational structures, practices and working conditions (Höge, 2011). Among other things, a rising flexibility of working arrangements became necessary to stay competitive within the market. For example in Austria the number of atypical employment continued to increase in 2011 to 1.097 million (+24,000 compared to 2010) (Statistik Austria, 2011). This was enabled to some extent by new technologies, e.g. in 2013 almost 99 percent of enterprises in Austria, with at least 10 employees, used computers and about 98 percent had internet access (Statistik Austria, 2013b). But with that also some new problems arose, for example an increased risk when people have to work together without being colocated (Warne & Holland, 1999). Furthermore, in combination with flatter hierarchies, established command and control approaches to motivation are increasingly difficult to implement. Although, new technologies may be able to be used for monitoring, it is not practicable yet (Tyler, 2003).

Thus, to successfully implement flexible working arrangements within an organization the framework conditions regarding organizational design must be suitable. One of several determining dimensions is the culture of an organization. Its concept is quite abstract and therefore not that easy to grasp as for example the structure of an organization. That is why there were various approaches in the past to define culture, but they have some aspects in common. Organizational culture is collective thinking, feeling und behaviour of people within an organization. It is holistic, socially constructed, historically determined and difficult to share (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Organizational culture influences the relationship between all humans within the organization, but also between people working within the firm and external stakeholders like suppliers. One aspect of the culture that influences the shaping of relationships is trust. In the past, a lot of research was done to understand trust in the organizational context. This has shown that trust has a number of important benefits, direct as well as indirect as a mediator or moderator. Trust influences organizational behaviour like commitment or job satisfaction and in this way it has a

significant influence on an organization's performance and economic success (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

Over the course of recent years some research was done to understand trust in organizations with flexible working arrangements. But this topic is still not widely understood, especially when taking the technologies for supporting flexible working into account. Furthermore, there are barely results in Austria respectively the German-speaking area, whereby the national and regional culture has a strong impact (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Therefore, the aim of this work is to understand the importance of trust in flexible working arrangements. In order to meet this objective, this work is divided into two main parts, a literature research and an empirical study. First, there is a comprehensive summary of the state-of-the-art literature that generates extensive knowledge of current research results. That includes the definition of the concepts, their forms and their effect on other aspects. Second, on the basis of this knowledge an empirical study is done to gain new knowledge in this area of research. More detailed, the empirical study examines working arrangements according to their level of flexibility and the employee's perceived level of trust in his or her direct superior and colleagues. Additionally, the use of technologies by the employees is investigated and considered as an influential factor. The performance of the employee is investigated as the dependent variable. Finally, the results of this work are critically examined, summed up and consequential aspects relevant for future research are described.

CHAPTER 2

State-of-the-Art

Our world is undergoing permanent change, particularly in the working world this trend can be seen clearly. As a result, continuous scientific research is necessary to understand the new situation, but also the changing process. Especially, as each new research finding can raise several new questions. Therefore, this chapter summarizes the state-of-the-art in research, which is used as the base for the empirical part of this work.

Thus, the first section focuses on flexible working arrangement, including the description of different forms of flexibility, factors that support and prevent flexible working arrangements and the impact of this flexibility on various outcome variables. With it, the relationship between flexible working arrangements and technologies is discussed. Next, the second section collects the findings of research on trust in the organizational context. In doing so, the focus is put on trust within the organization, describing different forms of trust, its sources and its effect. In a third section the current status of research on the individual work performance is summed up. More detailed, its dimensions and important aspects, that should be considered when measuring it, are explained.

2.1 Flexible Working Arrangements

In the past, most of the jobs were characterized by continuous employment, single employer, full-time, 9-to-5 working hours and precise job descriptions. Furthermore, strictly hierarchical and strongly bureaucratic approaches were used in combination with formal rules and standardised processes. But in the last two decades this has changed in favour of a higher flexibility, in particular in industrialized countries. A variety of flexible work arrangements became more common e.g. part-time work, temporary work, fixed-term contract work, telework, flexible work hours, compressed workweek or satellite work locations. The reason for that is that flexibility facilitates the management of uncertainty. More detailed, it is a mechanism for adapting to changes in the business environment because it enables a closer match for the supply and demand of labour. Therefore, flexible working arrangements can be seen as a tool for enhancing competitiveness in an economy with rising demands on speed, quality, performance and productivity (Kelliher, Gore, & Riley, 2002; Zeytinoğlu, 2002; Peper, van Doorne-Huiskes, & den Dulk, 2005).

But to start with, an answer to the question of what does flexible working arrangement mean is needed. Several general definitions of flexibility are examined and analysed. According to the Pons dictionary “Something or someone that is flexible is able to change and adapt easily to new conditions and circumstances.” (*Pons Cobuild English learner’s dictionary*, 1996, p. 424). Another definition states that flexibility is “the quality or state of being flexible” (Gove, 2002, p. 869) and being flexible is “characterized by ready capability for modification or change, by plasticity, pliancy, variability, and often by consequent adaptability to new” (Gove, 2002, p. 869). Furthermore, working is defined as “you spend time and effort doing a task that needs to be done or trying to achieve something” (*Pons Cobuild English learner’s dictionary*, 1996, p. 1272) and an arrangement is “an agreement that you make with someone to do something” (Gove, 2002, p. 869). Thus, a working arrangement defines the employer-employee relationship with all rights and duties. In organizational research, flexible working arrangements include all arrangements that vary in any form from standard employment. More detailed, any alternative to full-time, usual working time, fixed location or permanent work. But this variation must not be on a week-by-week basis (Thomson, 2008). To sum it up, it can be derived that flexible working arrangements are nonstandard agreements between an employee and his or her employer that enables the adaption to changes easily from both sides.

When discussing flexibility in the context of working arrangements, there are two dimensions of flexibility that were identified. More detailed, a distinction between flexibility in the employee’s interest and in the employer’s interest can be made (Kattenbach, Demerouti, & Nachreiner, 2010). The first dimension of flexibility refers to autonomy of the employee, which is the ability to vary according to changes (Kattenbach et al., 2010). It offers the employees a degree of choice over when, where and how much they work (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009). In contrast, the second dimension is about flexibility as restrictions for the employee. It is a employer-oriented respective organization-oriented adjustment to external changes (Kattenbach et al., 2010). For example, by employing workers with temporary contracts the manpower of the organization can be adapted to the demand (Guest, 2004). So, in both ways organizations are trying to maximise their output by the optimal use of human capital, whereas organizations

benefit from the first dimension more indirect than from the second one. However, the employer's interests tend to be distinct from the employee's interests, so, those two dimensions do not necessarily support each other, but may even counteract (Kattenbach et al., 2010).

Furthermore, some demographics about people in flexible working arrangements would be interesting. In Austria, the number of people in flexible working arrangements is increasing. For example, 26.6 percent of the working population was part-time employed in 2013. When excluding self-employment, 31.8 percent of all employed people had an atypical employment, including e.g. temporary employment (Statistik Austria, 2014a). But although there are some statistics, research failed to present clearly who is flexible working. Previous research findings on spatial flexibility suggest for example that there is a predominantly male professional segment and largely female clerical part. Beyond that, when trying to answer the question why do employees opt to work spatial flexible, still more research is needed as well. For example, the ability to balance work and family duties was considered as an important influential factor. But until yet, research results undermine this hypothesis, e.g. by the fact that interest in telework was found to be stronger among couples without children (Bailey & Kurland, 2002).

In general, having a look at these flexible working arrangements a distinction between various forms is possible, as shown below. Moreover, factors were discovered that support respectively prevent flexibilization. Furthermore, research has shown that flexible working arrangements have, as well as previous ones, advantages as well as disadvantages for the individual employees, organizations and society.

Types of Flexible Working Arrangements

At the moment, there are numerous kinds and variations of flexible working arrangements put into practice in the working world. Consequently, there is no single generally valid and accepted typology in research. But in literature several varying approaches can be found, in particular because researchers have their focus on different aspects. Thus, this section gives a comprehensive summary about different types of flexible working arrangements.

According to Thomson (2008, p. 18), flexible working is "any variation from full-time, Monday to Friday, "9 to 5", fixed location or permanent work". Thus, three general types of flexibility according to working arrangements can be derived: contract, time and space (Gibson, 2003). Of course, combinations of these forms are possible as well.

Contract Flexibility

Contract flexibility is the first type of flexibility that is discussed because in recent past a modest growth of flexible employment contracts could be observed in most countries. Reason for that development may be the benefits for the organizations, and also for the employees. But the great majority of workers still adhere to permanent contracts (Guest, 2004).

In literature, there exist various definitions of what flexible employment contracts are. In this work, the one is taken over that it includes all forms of employment contracts that are different from standard, permanent employment contracts. Thus, it includes fixed-term or temporary worker, short-term worker, contingent worker, self-employment and employment through agen-

cies. Part-time employment is not considered as a form of contract flexibility because it may be permanent and stable (Guest, 2004; Svensson, 2012).

Moreover, a distinction can be made between two types of people with flexible employment contracts. On the one hand, there are exploited insecure temporary workers and on the other hand, there is the worker, who prefers flexible employment contracts, particularly knowledge worker (Guest, 2004). These people tend to follow the path of a boundaryless career, which goes beyond the boundaries of single employment setting, instead of a traditional one. In doing so, the individuals' job security has switched and is rooted in their own skills and ability to be successful with these skills in the labour market (Marler, Barringer, & Milkovich, 2002). In this context, the concept of *entreployee* is to be mentioned, which can be seen as a new type of employee. They are characterized by increased demands according to self-control, self-organization, self-commercialization and self-rationalization (Höge, 2011). Thus, it is advised to treat temporary workers not as homogenous (Guest, 2004).

Time Flexibility

Second, in recent decades the number of workforces with standard work schedules was clearly decreasing, while flexible working time models were increasingly widespread. Time flexibility has become more popular because with it employees can work more efficiently (Kattenbach et al., 2010).

According to Kattenbach et al. (2010), flexible working time is characterized by the possibility to change the amount (chronometry) and temporal distribution (chronology) of the working time. In other words, there is a variation in the number of hours worked and in the arrangement of hours over when the hours will be worked (Maxwell, Rankine, Bell, & MacVicar, 2007; Almer & Kaplan, 2002).

In practice, there are various forms of time flexibility implemented in working arrangements and a variety of them is explained in detail. Compressed hours are a popular flexible working pattern, where the employee is working longer hours per day, and for this he or she can take an extra day off regularly (Thomson, 2008). In comparison to that, flextime schedules give the employee the ability to select work hours by him- or herself. Whereas, this option may be restricted by the employer (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). Furthermore, the concept of part-time is to be mentioned. It is defined as voluntary and regularly work, whereby the employer and employee agree to shorter working hours than normal hours of work (Drew, 1990/1991, p. 2). So the number of hours worked is reduced compared to the amount that is normally worked.

Spatial Flexibility

The last type of flexibility that must be mentioned is spatial flexibility because the place of work got more flexible as well. That was made possible by novel, mobile technologies that enabled people to work wherever they are (Thomson, 2008).

Spatial flexibility, or locational flexibility, means that employees are not tied to a single, place of work. Instead, they should seek to work in the most appropriate location for the current

task. That includes places inside their core office location, but also in remote locations (Gibson, 2003, p. 19).

An often used term in the context of spatial flexible working arrangements is remote working, which means that employees are working in a physically separate location from their managers. Whereas the employees location can be any place, e.g. in a car or at a customer's location (Staples, 2001). If this spatial distributed work is predominantly based on electronic information and communication tools, it is called virtual work (Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005). There exist different kinds of virtual work, whereas telework is one of the most popular forms (Thomson, 2008). It is defined as "working outside the conventional workplace and communicating with it by way of telecommunications or computer-based technology" (Bailey & Kurland, 2002, p. 384). In this context, a study did discover that the interest in telework is positively related to the familiarity with new technologies, but large-scale surveys for empirical evidence are still missing (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Another form of virtual work are virtual teams, which are defined as two or more persons, who interact to achieve common goals, while at least one member of the team works at a different location or organization so that communication and coordination is predominantly based on information and communication technologies (Hertel et al., 2005).

Factors Supporting and Preventing Flexible Working Arrangements

In literature, there were several factors identified that facilitate or hinder flexible working arrangements. So, when introducing flexible working within an organization, it should be seen as a strategic approach for the optimal use of human assets. Thus, its implementation is a change within the organization that must be managed for an optimal outcome (Thomson, 2008). That means that flexible practices must be formally implemented, communicated and managed within the organization to be effective (Johnson, 2004). In doing so, the managers within the organization are a critical factor. The managers' willingness to enable flexible working is decisive, which is shaped by the management's trust in employees. If trust is missing, managers may fear a loss of control and therefore are against flexible working (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Although surveillance systems and other forms of electronic monitoring may seem as a solution to overcome trust-related problems, research has showed that they make it more difficult for employees to demonstrate their trustworthiness. And it also might make it harder for managers to learn about trust within their organizations (Kramer, 1999). Besides, managers do have significant influence in creating an organizational culture that supports or even enables flexible working. For example, a work culture is needed where managers and employees can openly discuss (Maxwell et al., 2007). In addition, managers need to adapt their own management style to suit the needs of the new situation. Thus, they do need training to learn how to lead flexible workers so that goals and objectives are met (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009; Thomson, 2008).

Besides the management, acceptance must be created among employees as well. So, within the organization it must be clear that flexible working is available to everyone, regardless of their domestic circumstances. Furthermore, employees must be aware of the success stories of flexible working because a possible fear of flexible workers is that they are disadvantaged in promotion decisions. So, it must be made sure that they are not and that factors needed for successful promotion are transparent to all (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009).

Moreover, employees that are newly adopting flexible working patterns need to work in a different way. Therefore, it can be beneficial to guide these individuals and to help them make the transition with minimal disruption and stress (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009). For example, some of these flexible working arrangements are enabled by novel technologies, and some are supported by them (Creagh & Brewster, 1998). More detailed, these technologies can support communication, encourage exchange of information, ease coordination of activities within a team and facilitate cooperation (Hertel et al., 2005). But today, technology is changing faster than ever before, so, employees are needed that are able to adapt to the demands of new technologies. In this way, organizations are able to get the maximum advantage from these developments (Creagh & Brewster, 1998).

Especially when focusing on spatial flexible working arrangements, several issues were pointed out in literature that are relevant for this form of flexibility. For example, the importance of being able to contact spatial flexible workers within a reasonable time because of the direct impact on productivity and in addition, the lack of contactability may undermine the trust relationship. But in contrast flexible works perceived being contactable all the time as disadvantage. Thus, a system needs to be designed that is suitable for both, the flexible employee and the employer (Warne & Holland, 1999). Furthermore, research has shown that the most important factors that influences if someone is teleworking are work factors. Researchers have produced lists of task and job characteristics like little need for face-to-face interactions. But besides these general job traits, idiosyncratic details of individual jobs are more likely to determine whether someone is spatial flexible. So the perception of job suitability based on knowledge of specific jobs may predict who can work spatial flexible. Besides that, there are several personal household attributes that may predict if someone is working flexible with respect to the space: discipline, family orientation, household distractions, preference to work with a team and workaholism (Bailey & Kurland, 2002).

Impact of Flexible Working Arrangements

In literature, a lot of research has been carried out in order to understand the impact of flexible working arrangements. Yet, it is clear that organizations that have established flexible working do benefit e.g. from increased productivity and lower absenteeism (Thomson, 2008). Below, these impacts are discussed in detail, whereas flexible working arrangements can contribute directly as well as indirectly to improvements (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). In doing so, a distinction can be made between benefits and problems for the employee and the employer respective the organization. But besides that, flexible working arrangements do have some general implications for the society as well. For example, in literature, telework has been promoted as a way to reduce air pollution and traffic congestion (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Furthermore, flexible working arrangements that are supported by technologies can help to develop regions with low infrastructure and employment rate or integrate people with low mobility due to handicaps or family care duties. But in contrast, it may increase the isolation between people (Hertel et al., 2005).

A great amount of the studies on the impact of flexible working arrangements did put the focus on the relationship with the **individual work performance**, especially productivity. Until now, the results differ and research has failed to demonstrate empirical evidence for a general

direct link between flexible working arrangements and the individual performance. But literature review show consensus concerning a positive association. In particular, research supported an indirect link between flexible working arrangements and individual performance, e.g. via autonomy or job control (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011).

Focusing now on the impact of spatial flexibility on the employees' individual work performance, in literature there is a large amount of studies that show increased productivity among teleworkers. But, the majority collected data using self-reports and there is the tendency that teleworkers increase the absolute amount of work performed. Some even report that they work too much (Bailey & Kurland, 2002).

When analysing the relationship between the individual work performance and time flexibility, theoretical considerations suggest a positive effect of time autonomy. It can be argued that each individual has a few hours per day to perform at an optimal level, which vary according to their individual rhythm (Kattenbach et al., 2010). So by offering time flexibility to employees they are enabled to have a better usage of their peak time. In contrast, flexible working may cause inconvenience between employees, e.g. weakened communication and co-operation (Ramendran, Raman, Mohamed, Beleya, & Nodeson, 2013). As a result empirical evidence for the relationship between time flexibility and the individual work performance is mixed. That may be explained as well by a positive effect of time flexibility that decreases if flexibility becomes too flexible (Kattenbach et al., 2010).

The relationship between contract flexibility and the individual performance is not properly understood yet and in literature there are mixed findings. But an interesting aspect is that contingent workers may not get access to training programs because of their indeterminate status. And that can affect an employee's performance negatively (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Furthermore, it is suggested to distinguish between traditional temporary worker and boundaryless temporary workers, who prefer this kind of working, because the former may have a higher performance than the latter (Marler et al., 2002).

In addition, in literature there are series of studies that analysed the relationship between flexible working arrangements and **organizational performance**. In this context, the organization may profit because flexible workers tend to put in more effort, e.g. by working longer hours or checking mails in their own time (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009). But in literature, the link between flexible working arrangements and the organizational performance is not that clear yet, whereas research indicated a positive association between productivity and other financial measures, and remote work and schedule flexibility (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011).

Several studies did identify a positive effect of flexible working arrangements on **organizational commitment** of the employees. For example, Anderson and Kelliher (2009) showed that flexible workers had higher levels of organizational commitment, that was demonstrated by the pride of the employees in being part of the organization, than nonflexible workers. But nonetheless there are mixed findings and in literature there is also strong support for no association, whereby these findings may be influenced by the national context (Thailand, China and Kenya) (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011).

Moreover, it is supported that flexible workers tend to a higher **job satisfaction** than nonflexible workers. That was explained by empowering because they felt greater degree of trust in them when they were able to make own choices, and enhanced feelings of autonomy and

independence (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009; Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Almer & Kaplan, 2002).

When analysing the relationship between flexible working, and **stress and well-being**, research showed that flexible working arrangements may reduce stress, but might be a source of stress as well. For example, Almer and Kaplan (2002) did show that flexible working arrangements can reduce depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, which is the first step towards burnout. But in contrast, restrictions according to the working time may increase exhaustion (Kattenbach et al., 2010). Furthermore, the use of technologies reduces the richness of information exchange compared to face-to-face communication. So, well-being may be reduced by feelings of isolation and decreased interpersonal contact. Increased chances of misunderstandings and conflict escalation might increase stress as well. As a result, trust may be more difficult to build (Hertel et al., 2005).

In that context, **role conflicts** must be considered as an important source of stress (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). On the one side, it is suggested that professionals under a flexible working arrangement do perceive significant lower role conflicts. That might be explained through the fact that they usually negotiate the nature and content of the arrangement with their superior. But such an increased communication may reduce role conflicts in nonflexible working arrangements as well (Almer & Kaplan, 2002). On the other side, spatial flexible worker may suffer greater role conflict from simultaneous demands from work and home (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Thus, spatial flexibility can increase time for other activities by reduced time for commuting to work, but that extra time may be used for other work. In addition, employees working at home may experience overlap between home and work life, so that this may lead to the blurring of work and non-working lives. That can reduce the restorative effect of home (Grant, Wallace, & Spurgeon, 2013).

Employees with flexible contracts may seem disadvantaged because of the loss of opportunity for development or for organizational identification and higher **job insecurity**, which is associated with negative outcomes concerning satisfaction at work or psychological well-being. Research indicated this relationship as well, but yet no consistent evidence was shown. But the contract of choice may have a significant influence, e.g. workers that did chose flexible contracts may be less concerned about job security (Guest, 2004).

To conclude, it must be noted that some researchers found that even employees who only perceived that their organization offered flexible working arrangements did benefit, regardless of whether they worked flexible or not (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). In addition, the dimension of flexibility may have a significant influence on the impact of flexible working arrangements. For example, possibilities of time flexibility are negatively related to burnout and time restrictions are positively related to exhaustion (Kattenbach et al., 2010; Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Furthermore, when looking at these results, it is important to notice that employees may do not work flexible every day, or even regularly. For example, most teleworkers do not full-time telework. Thus, the frequency of teleworking may have a significant impact on the outcome, e.g. there is less risk of isolation if the employee is only one day a week away from the office (Bailey & Kurland, 2002).

Second, the **employers or organizations** do profit as well from flexible working arrangements. That happens indirect, through the employees that are benefiting from flexible working, but also direct from strategic advantages.

Many employers did introduce flexibility, as a possibility for the employee, in order to improve their attractiveness on the labour market. In that way, high quality staff may be recruited and retained (Anderson & Kelliher, 2009). Furthermore, staff can be recruited because of their expertise instead of their local availability (Hertel et al., 2005). Other benefits, in particular when working remote, are a potential reduction in absenteeism (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). But for the management it is more difficult to supervise activities of employees at different places and to prevent unproductive developments in time. Furthermore, if this spatial flexibility is supported by communication and information technologies, there may be additional costs for these technologies, issues of data security and training programs (Hertel et al., 2005).

Through time flexibility employers may benefit because of a more effective coordination of labour demand and labour supply. So, layoff costs due to business cycle variations can be reduced as well as training costs of new employees. But in contrast, work planning may be more time consuming (Ramendran et al., 2013).

Similar, one major benefit of contract flexibility is the ability to adjust the workforce size rapidly to the demands (Guest, 2004). So, people with temporary contract can be laid off easily by not renewing the expiring fixed-term contract e.g. without the risk of strikes or having to be paid premiums. In that way, organizations can handle uncertainty, e.g. by hiring temporary employees during expansion until it is clear that it is permanent. Hence, organizations using flexible contracts may have a competitive advantage (de Gilder, 2003). In addition the employer may have to invest less in training and development of contract staff. Moreover, by using non-standard contracts the risk is shifted from the employing organization to the individual worker (Guest, 2004).

2.2 Trust within Organizations

Due to spatial flexible working arrangements the physical distance between people increases. This lack of presence and visibility may lead to feelings of distrust and vulnerability. Some, but not all, of these problems of physical separation can be overcome by the use of telecommunication products and services, whereas people must feel ease at using them (Warne & Holland, 1999). Besides, the trend is shifting away from simple and repetitive tasks and going towards work that is more centred on intellectual labour. Moreover, multilevel hierarchies are increasingly flattened. Therefore, former used command and control styles of management become increasingly difficult to implement effectively (Tyler, 2003). As a result, higher levels of trust are needed within the organizations to ensure nevertheless that people are working well. The reason for that is that the level of trust can be seen as an indication of the amount of risk that one is willing to take. Whereby, control systems and trust are not mutually exclusive, but the former can lower the perceived risk to a level that the latter can bridge (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 2007). However, trust within the organization is not the only research strand in literature. The other two are trust between organizations and trust between organizations and their customers (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). As the empirical study of this work deals only with trust within organizations, this section focuses solely on intra-organizational trust. That includes trust within horizontal working relationships, e.g. colleagues, as well as trust within vertical working relationships, e.g. between superiors and subordinates.

Researchers have noticed the importance of trust in the organizational context, which is why trust has become more central to the study of organizations (Tyler, 2003). But only a few researchers did put the focus on trust in flexible working arrangements. For example, Warne and Holland (1999) did study trust when implementing spatial flexible working. They have emphasized the importance of trust as a factor in the effective development of relationships in spatial flexible working. Furthermore, Svensson (2012) did analyse the levels of generalized trust of employees in flexible working arrangements compared to employees in traditional employment. In doing so, he refers to short-term work and temporary agency work as flexible working arrangements and argues that in western cultures people define themselves through their work. Thus, people with flexible contracts do have lower self-reliance because they are stigmatized, which may lead to poor self-image. As a result, employees with flexible working arrangements have different levels of generalized trust than workers in traditional employment. And in fact, his presented study did support his hypothesis as individuals with flexible working conditions did show significant lower levels of generalized trust towards other people. In addition, de Gilder (2003) did hypothesize that contingent workers have lower levels of trust towards the employer compared to core employees. He explained that they usually do not have such extensive knowledge base. In addition, there is always the risk of being dismissed because contingent workers are usually the first ones to be replaced or released. But, empirical evidence did not support this hypothesis.

Although trust has become increasingly central in organizational research, there is no unified conceptualized framework yet (Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004). When taking a look on general definitions first, according to the Cambridge Dictionary trust means “to believe that someone is good and honest and will not harm you, or that something is safe and reliable” (Cambridge University

Press, n.d.). According to the Pons dictionary, “if you trust someone, you believe that they are honest and sincere and will not deliberately do anything to harm you ” (*Pons Cobuild English learner’s dictionary*, 1996, p. 1182). Focusing now on organizational research, there exist also various definitions. Mayer et al. (1995, p. 712) defined trust as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party”. Furthermore, trust can be seen as “the process of party “A” (the trustor) trusting party “B” (the trustee).” (Dietz & Hartog, 2006, p. 558). Whereas the cross-disciplinary definition by Dirks and Ferrin (2001, p. 451) states that trust is “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another”. According to McAllister (1995, p. 25) trust is “The extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions and decisions, of another”. All these definitions show that it is a multidimensional concept that involves the following principal concepts. The first aspect to mention is vulnerability, which means that there is uncertainty and therefore the risk of being harmed and the possibility of experiencing potentially negative outcomes. But in order to trust, one must not take any risk, not until one is actually engaging in trusting behaviour. Furthermore, the interaction history between the parties plays an important role and the positive expectations of the outcome is relevant. Whereby it must be mentioned that trust also affects how past (and present) actions and underlying motives, as well as future behaviour, are interpreted (Tyler, 2003; Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Mayer et al., 1995).

The conceptualization of trust in this work is unidirectional, which means that the reciprocity in trusting relationships is not considered. According to Mayer et al. (2007) trust is not necessarily mutual or reciprocal. Thus, in a relationship A trusts B, but B may do not trust A (Mayer et al., 2007). In addition, the trust process requires the sophisticated processing of a great deal of often-contradictory information. That implies that the approach of A trusts B does not adequately represent their relationship. Instead, it can be seen as “A trusts B to do X (or not to do Y), when Z pertains...” (Dietz & Hartog, 2006, p. 564).

Furthermore, the concept of trust is to be differentiated from other constructs. First, the concept of trustworthiness should be mentioned, which is a quality that the trustee has (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). It is a multifaceted construct, which captures the competence and character of the trustee (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Second, a distinction can be drawn between trust and the propensity to trust, which is defined as a factor that affects the likelihood that a person will trust. In other words, it can be thought of propensity as the general willingness to trust others. It is viewed as a factor that is stable across situations (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995). Third, there is a distinction of trust from cooperation. Although trust may lead to cooperative behaviour, it is not a condition. Reason for that is, that cooperation does not necessarily put a party at a risk (Mayer et al., 1995). Fourth, the term confidence has been mixed up with trust too. But the difference is that when trusting someone risk must be recognized and assumed, and when being confident no alternatives are considered (Mayer et al., 1995).

Below, different forms and qualitative degrees of trust are discussed. Furthermore, relevant sources are described in detail, including characteristics of the trustor, the trustee and the relationship. Finally, the impact of trust within organizations is analysed.

Forms of Trust

Due to the complexity of the concept trust, it is not recommended to ask the respondent to make an overall assessment of the trustee. The reason for that is that a too general question probably provokes the answer it depends. Therefore, it is also recommended to avoid the term “trust” within a question when measuring trust because for the respondents it might be an emotive challenge to answer if they trust someone. As a result, the measurement may be distorted (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). However, researchers started already in the 1960s attempts to develop a scale for measuring trust. In doing so, theory-based approaches were used as well as practical ones that are based on field studies. But, there is no consensus yet about which scale should be used to measure trust in the organizational context. That may be the reason why there is also no generally accepted conceptualized framework of trust (Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004). One possible approach by Dietz and Hartog (2006) captures the multi-dimensional concept of trust, which is depicted in the trust process, see figure 2.1. Similar, Clark and Payne (1997) view trust as well as process model.

In the beginning, there are several input variables, which are the antecedents of trust. These sources of trust are discussed in detail in the following section. Based on these sources trust develops, whereas three forms that trust can take can be distinguished: trust as a belief, trust as a decision and trust as an action (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). This conceptualization is supported by McEvily et al. (2003, p. 93), who had a similar approach and identified trust as an expectation, a willingness to be vulnerable and a risk-taking act.

In a first step, trust as belief emerges in the form of positive expectation and a confident set of beliefs of the trustor about the trustee and their relationship. So, all antecedents do influence the trustor’s belief and this belief leads the trustor to the assumption that the trustee will act in a way to generate positive consequences for the trustor. This belief can also be represented by an assessment of the other party’s trustworthiness, although trust and trustworthiness are two distinct concepts. But the evaluation of the trustee’s trustworthiness is a strong predictor of the trustors belief (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). In that way, trust as a belief is based on subjective probabilities of the trustee’s actions (Nooteboom, Berger, & Noorderhaven, 1997). So, it is more than just naive faith or gullibility (McEvily et al., 2003).

Second, from trust as a belief follows trust as a decision, which is the willingness to behave according to one’s believe. In other words, it is the (partially) manifestation of trust as a belief in trust itself (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). So both, an expectation of the trustee’s trustworthiness and the behavioural intention to act on that expectation must be present (Huff & Kelley, 2003, p. 82). In doing so, considerations about consequences that go beyond the relationship do have an influence as well (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

The third step is about following the decision to trust by the execution of trust-informed risk-taking behaviours, including for example voluntary extra-role behaviour. Therefore, trust as an action can be seen as the output of the trust process. (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). In other words, at this stage trust in the form of a psychological state manifests itself in behaviour towards others (Costa & Bijlsma-Frankema, 2007). It is a likely consequence of the decision to trust, but it is not guaranteed (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

Finally, the output serves as feedback and in that way the experience is also as source of trust. As a result, the input variables may change. Thus, trust must be viewed as something

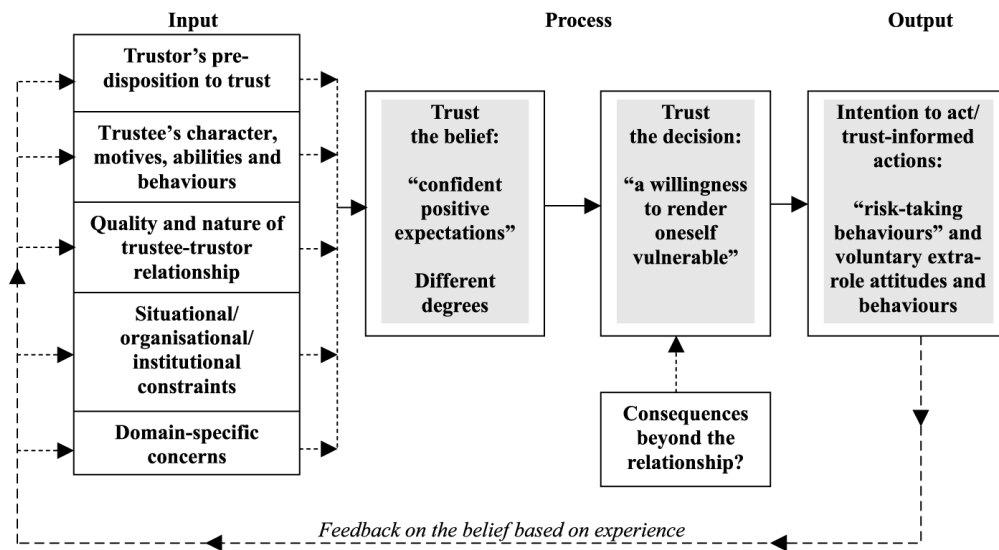


Figure 2.1: A depiction of the trust process (Dietz & Hartog, 2006)

that is not static and does evolve over time (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). As a result, for a complete measurement of trust, all aspects must be considered.

Sources of Trust

As figure 2.1 shows, there is no single antecedent of trust, but there are several input variables. Therefore, this section focuses on the extensively discussed question: what inhibits or inspires trust. In research literature there are several approaches, but there is a clear overlap of the dimensions. A distinction can be made between characteristics of the trustor, characteristics of the trustee and characteristics of their relationship with each other. In addition, situational parameters do influence the level of trust (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

Characteristics of the Trustor

The characteristics of the trustor that influence him or her in trusting others are called generalised trust or the trustor's propensity to trust. It covers all aspects that influence the general willingness to trust others and is stable across situations. Thus, it is especially relevant in contact with strangers and during the early phase of interaction with someone, but also in dealing with institutions. But propensity is insufficient by itself because the level of trust of the trustor is not stable for various trustees and situations (Mayer et al., 1995; Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

There are several aspects that do influence the level of generalised trust, for example political persuasion, and cultural values and norms. So these aspects do affect the perception of the characteristics of the trustee and the importance given to each variable. For example, more competitive and performance oriented cultures put more emphasis on the abilities of the trustee

whilst more collaborative cultures focus on benevolence (Dietz & Hartog, 2006; Mayer et al., 2007).

Furthermore, research has shown that trust also involves emotion, because emotions and moods influence people on how they are experiencing trust. Emotional states do have an effect on the trustors level of trust, even if they are unrelated to the trustee or the situation. Thus, emotional attachment can cause a trustor to take a risk that is not warranted by the available evidence (Mayer et al., 2007).

Characteristics of the Trustee

The characteristics of the trustee that must be investigated are personal traits and previous behaviour. These competences and the character of the trustee can be captured by the multifaceted construct of trustworthiness. Depending on the trustworthiness of another party, the trustor will have greater or less amount of trust for the trustee. It is important to note, that each characteristic of the trustee must be considered separate as each may vary independently of the others. Thus, some characteristics can support the trustor to trust the trustee whilst others may prevent. But that does not imply that they are unrelated to one another (Dietz & Hartog, 2006; Mayer et al., 1995). Here again, there are different approaches in the literature about the relevant characteristics of the trustee. Characteristics of the trustee that are mentioned in the literature are for example fairness, loyalty, openness, promises, receptivity, altruism, reputation, motives, honesty, expertise and dynamism (Mayer et al., 1995). But there are four attributes that appear most often in literature and therefore can be considered as the most significant: ability, benevolence, integrity and predictability (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

The first dimension to consider is the ability, or competence, of the trustee. It is about the skills and knowledge of the trustee that are necessary to carry out his or her obligations in a sufficient and adequate way. As the competence of the trustee can vary depending on the area, trust that is based on the abilities is quite situation specific. For example, an employee may be trusted to do complex analytic tasks, but not to initiate contact with an important client because he or she has little training and experience in interpersonal communication (Dietz & Hartog, 2006; Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004; Mayer et al., 1995).

Benevolence, or demonstration of concern, is the second dimension. It refers to confident positive expectations about the altruism of the trustee and a personal degree of kindness of the trustee towards the trustor. In other words, it is the extent to which the other party is believed to do something good for the trustor. Moreover, it includes an authentic concern of the trustor's welfare, even though this may be against the trustee's interests. An example could be that a mentor wants to help his protégé without getting any extrinsic reward (Dietz & Hartog, 2006; Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004; Mayer et al., 1995).

Integrity relates to a set of principles of the trustee that is acceptable for the trustor, encompassing honesty and fair treatment (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). It also includes activities as creating joint goals or establishing collective identity. So, it is an important antecedent for the development of identification-based trust (Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004). For example, when the trustee is solely committed to the principle of profit seeking at all cost, he or she would be judged high in integrity if this principle is acceptable for the trustor (Mayer et al., 1995).

The last dimension, predictability, is accompanied by reliability. It relates to consistent, systematic and regular behaviour, and if commitments and promises are fulfilled and kept by the trustee (Dietz & Hartog, 2006; Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004). For instance, a superior is highly predictable if his employees get the bonus for the achievement of an objective as promised.

In addition, time plays an important role in the meaningfulness of these dimensions. Judgements of ability and integrity usually form relatively quickly in the course of the relationship, whereas judgements of benevolence may need more time. Thus, the former have a higher impact on trust in the beginning of the relationship whilst the effect of the latter would increase over time as the relationship develops (Mayer et al., 2007).

Characteristics of the Relationship

Beyond that, the relationship between the trustor and trustee, including all experiences between both, influences the level of trust between them. It can be reasonably assumed that the quality of trust will vary according to the stage of progress in the relationship and whether the trustor feels his or her position in the relationship is stable or precarious. Moreover, the stronger and more personal the relationship is the deeper and more affective forms of trust will occur. So, according to the concept of optimal trust, the level of trust between two parties can take different degrees, so that it is appropriate for the demands and quality of the relationship (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

Situational Factors

Furthermore, situational parameters may undermine or strengthen the level of trust, but do not completely determine it. Such factors are binding contractual agreements, organizational systems and practices as well as legislative or regulatory requirements. More detailed examples are an organization's performance management target or a person's reputation from within relevant social networks (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

The hierarchy within the organization plays also an important role. If two individuals are on different hierarchical levels, power differences and asymmetry of information can influence their relationship. For example, the individual with more power may perceive less risk and therefore will engage in more risk-taking, and trusting, behaviour (Mayer et al., 2007).

Different Qualitative Degrees of Trust

Due to the nature of trust, it cannot simply be categorised, e.g. weak or strong, but the degree of trust varies along a continuum of intensity, whereas this continuum reaches from distrust to complete trust (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). However, it must be noted that in literature there is discussion about the concept of distrust and the relationship between trust and distrust. According to the more traditional view, trust and distrust are seen as the opposite ends of the same continuum. It was argued that distrust can be defined as the absence of trust and therefore the complete lack of trust and distrust are the same thing. The contrasting point of view sees distrust and trust not as poles of a continuum, but as two separate dimensions. So, low trust does not imply automatically distrust or low distrust does not signify high trust (Mayer et al., 2007). Therefore,

with Dietz and Hartog's, social trust is an equivalent of relational-based and identification-based trust (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

In comparison with that, McAllister (1995) argued for two principal forms of interpersonal trust: cognition-based and affect-based trust. Cognition-based trust is grounded in individual beliefs about trustees' characteristics that include reliability and dependability. Available knowledge serves as base for trust decision, whereas the amount of knowledge lies somewhere between total knowledge and total ignorance. In contrast, affect-based trust is grounded in emotional bonds between individuals. More detailed, affective foundations for trust are reciprocated interpersonal care and concern for the welfare of others. Furthermore, he argues that for affective forms of trust a minimum level of cognition-based trust is necessary (McAllister, 1995). When comparing McAlister's concept with the approach of Dietz and Hartog, a possible interpretation is that cognition-based trust covers calculus-based and knowledge-based trust while affect-based trust corresponds to relational-based and identification-based trust (Dietz & Hartog, 2006).

Impact of Trust

In literature a great number of researchers confirm that trust has a significant influence on the performance, effectiveness and efficiency of an organization. There are studies that analyse and acknowledge the link between trust and factors like organizational citizenship behaviour, employee performance, problem solving or organizational commitment (Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004). But although trust has several benefits, it is no panacea to all problems in organizational relations. Instead it can be harmful, for example it can lead to betrayal (Costa & Bijlsma-Frankema, 2007).

When analysing the effect of trust on various outcome variables within an organization, a general distinction can be made according to the model that is used. On the one hand, trust has direct effects, on the other hand trust can be seen as a moderator (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). It should be noted that both models suggested being valid, whereby in a particular context one will fit better than the other. Dirks and Ferrin (2001) suggest that moderator effects occur in strong situations that provide guidance to behave in a specific way. In contrast, main effects can be observed in situations that are weak for the outcome in question. These situations do not provide guidance to behave in a particular way or do not lead individuals to interpret events similarly. The reason for this is that the less other determinates are relevant in a situation, the more important the role of trust. Thus, in very strong situations trust may have no effect.

The model that has dominated the literature assumes that trust has direct (main) effects on attitudes, perception, behaviour and performance. So the positive effects of trust are transmitted in a relative straightforward manner, e.g. higher levels of trust result in higher levels of co-operation. In doing so, most researchers assume that the individual's beliefs about the trustee affects the trustor's acts in interaction with the trustee. So, higher levels of trust increase the likelihood of risk-taking behaviours that in turn lead to positive outcomes like a better individual performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

So using this basic idea, researchers have examined the main effects of trust on a variety of workplace behaviours or performance outcome variables, e.g. communication and information sharing, negotiation behaviours, organizational citizenship behaviour, individual performance and unit (group) performance. In total, findings were inconsistent as some studies show significant main effects and others do not. The strongest empirical support is found for trust having

main effects on the individual performance and organizational citizenship behaviours (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). Reychav and Sharkie (2010) analysed, for example, trust as an antecedent to employee extra-role behaviour and found a strong relationship between them. Two other studies by Rich (1997) and Robinson (1996) did show for example a positive effect of trust on the individual performance. In addition, researchers analysed the main effects of trust on workplace attitudes and cognitive perceptual constructs as well. In detail, in literature there are studies that examine the effects on satisfaction, organizational commitment and preference for integrative bargaining. Furthermore, outcome variables as perceived accuracy of information given by another entity, acceptance of decisions from a superior, procedural justice judgements, and perceptions of organizational climate and risk. In total, the evidence is highly supportive of main effects on these issues (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). So among several other studies, Smith and Barclay (1997) found for example a positive impact of trust on satisfaction.

Trust can also be seen as a moderator that facilitates or hinders the effects of other determinants on the outcome variables. Thus, trust may provide the conditions under which desired results occur, e.g. trust may have positive effects on employees' motivation. In comparison to the main effect model, the idea of trust having moderator effects got little attention in literature (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

For example, trust does not have a significant effect on group processes and performance, but do moderate the relationship between group members' motivation and group processes and outcomes. So, in groups with high levels of trust motivation has positive effects on group performance, whereas it has no impact in low-trust condition (Dirks, 1999). Another study by Read (1962 in Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) showed that with increasing motivation of an individual to be promoted, it is less likely that negative information about the work are shared with the superior. That relationship is moderated by trust because with low levels of trust the effect is reinforced. To sum it up, trust influences task related behaviour and performance via moderation, specifically when motivational constructs are included. Moreover, trust may moderate the relationship between another party's action and a psychology response (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). A study by Robinson (1996) showed for example that initial trust in an employer moderates the relationship between a psychological contract violation and subsequent trust. Thus, with high initial trust this level of trust is preserved, because violation is perceived consistent with that level of trust (e.g. as a misunderstanding). In a similar way, the relationship between task conflict and relationship conflict is moderated by trust within groups. Low levels of trust lead to a negative interpretation of task conflict and therefore also to relationship conflict within groups (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

Furthermore, it is important to mention that high levels of trust may have negative consequences too. Trust may increase the occurrence of opportunistic behaviour because high-trust participants may fail to lose trust in the trustee and continue to allow the other to systematically take advantage of them (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

2.3 Individual Work Performance

In the occupational setting the individual work performance is a relevant and frequently used outcome measure (Koopmans et al., 2013). Several studies did analyse the impact of flexible working arrangements and trust on the individual work performance, whereas performance is defined as “the act or process of carrying out something” (Gove, 2002, p. 1678). Thus, the individual work performance can be specified as the behaviour of individuals that is relevant to the goals of the organization, but not constrained by the environment (Koopmans et al., 2013).

Dimensions of the Individual Work Performance

The individual work performance is a multidimensional construct and cannot be reduced to a single dimension. But when measuring more than one dimension, the problem of antithetical items may arise. Therefore, attention must be paid that the items of different dimensions are not overlapping in content (Koopmans et al., 2013).

In literature, a common approach is to define the dimensions based on the concept of role. In the organizational context, a role is specified “as the set of expected activities associated with the occupancy of a given position or job” (Katz und Kahn, 1978 in Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995, p. 218). That is why it is the base for job descriptions, expectations, stereotypes and assessments of the job performance. Whereas, the existence of multiple and potentially conflicting roles is possible within an organization. When measuring the individual work performance a conceptual distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviour can be made, whereas the former is necessary for the definition of the latter (Dyne et al., 1995). Another possible approach is to distinguish between task, contextual and adaptive performance. Furthermore, counterproductive work behaviour is identified as an important dimension of the individual work performance. Thus, these approaches are described below in detail.

The **in-role behaviour** is the first dimension to measure the individual work performance. It is defined as “behaviour which is required or expected as part of performing the duties and responsibilities of the assigned role” (Dyne et al., 1995, p. 222). So it refers to the behaviour that is part of the formal job description. To measure it, it can be questioned for example if the employee is always completing duties that are specified in his or her job description (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008).

Similar, **task performance** is specified as “the proficiency with which individuals perform the core substantive or technical tasks central to his or her job” (Campbell, 1990 in Koopmans et al., 2013, p. 7). Therefore, behaviours that were used to capture it are job knowledge and job skills. Furthermore, scales measuring this dimension include indicators for fulfilling prescribed responsibilities, performing tasks that are expected of the employee and adequately completing assigned duties. Moreover, result-oriented working, prioritizing, designing work plans and organizing work are used for the measurement. In addition, in literature work quality and quantity are most often used as a measure, but they tend to do not fit the other indicators well. Reason for that may be that they reflect the effectiveness of individual behaviours and not the behaviour itself (Koopmans et al., 2013).

In comparison to that, **extra-role behaviour** has been recognized as a relevant dimension of the individual work performance as well. Research has shown the importance of this pos-

itive behaviour that goes beyond role expectations. According to Dyne et al. (1995, p. 218) “extra-role behavior (ERB) is defined as behaviour which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations”. According to that definition, the following four aspects must be considered. First, the peoples’ actions must be voluntary and not part of the role. Thus, successful activities are not formally rewarded, nor are failures penalized. Second and third, this behaviour must be intentional and positive. Fourth, the beneficiaries should primarily be someone or something else (Dyne et al., 1995). For measuring extra-role behaviour, scales should include behaviours as sharing knowledge, taking initiative, coming up with creative solutions to novel problems or keeping job knowledge and skills up-to-date. Moreover, behaviours that reflect characteristics as sportsmanship, altruism or conscientiousness should be considered (Dyne et al., 1995; Wallace, de Chernatony, & Buil, 2011; Reychav & Sharkie, 2010). In literature, there is a great variety of extra-role constructs that confirms the multidimensionality of this concept. For example, organizational citizenship behaviour, whistle-blowing behaviour or principled organization dissent (Dyne et al., 1995).

A similar concept is **contextual performance**, which includes “behaviours that support the organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function” (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993 in Koopmans et al., 2013, p. 7). Thus, such behaviours are cooperating, communicating or demonstrating effort. For measuring this dimension, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue and job dedication are used (Koopmans et al., 2013).

Furthermore, **adaptive performance** is to be mentioned in this context. It is a relatively new and upcoming dimension in the concept of individual work performance, which is about “the extent to which an individual adapts to changes in a work system or in work roles” (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007, p. 329). So it puts the focus on growing interdependency and uncertainty of work systems and corresponding changes. Researchers that developed scales for measuring the adaptive performance include behaviours like whether employees are able to solve problems creatively. Furthermore, it is captured how they deal with uncertainty and unpredictable work situations or learn new procedures, tasks and technologies (Koopmans et al., 2013).

Several studies have argued that adaptive performance (behaviour and abilities of the individual to adapt to changes in the work role or environment) and contextual performance (behaviour that supports the organizational, social and psychological environment) are two separate dimensions of the individual work performance. Although contextual behaviours are proactive and adaptive behaviours are reactive, they are both extra-role behaviours and might be considered as one dimension. The increasing attention for adaptive behaviours may be explained by the change in the nature of work (Koopmans et al., 2013). Another interesting aspect, which should be mentioned in the course of this work, is that trust may be a significant antecedent for extra-role behaviour. According to the literature, trust moderates workplace performance and has important effects on behavioural and attitudinal outcomes e.g. more positive attitudes to work. Furthermore, contextual factors affect the willingness of the employees to engage in extra-role behaviour. These factors include among other things organizational culture, non-judgement climate, and encouragement for, and acknowledgement of, idea sharing (Reychav & Sharkie, 2010).

Furthermore, it should be mentioned that the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviours may become blurred. One reason for that is that role expectations can change over time. Thus, behaviours that were previously seen as extra-role behaviour are then central to the job and vice versa. Moreover, different observers may have different expectations on the employee (Dyne et al., 1995).

Finally, **counterproductive work behaviour** should be considered as a dimension of the individual work performance. It can be defined as “voluntary actions and behavior that harms the well-being of the organization or its members” (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69) and includes behaviour as excessive negativity, absenteeism, theft, off-task behaviour and substance abuse. Furthermore, sabotage, withdrawal, and production deviance are relevant for measuring this dimension (Koopmans et al., 2013).

A distinction can be made between serious counterproductive work behaviour (purposely making mistakes, doing things that harm others within the organization) and minor counterproductive work behaviour (show excessive negativity, doing things that harm the organization). Previous research has shown that items measuring serious counterproductive work behaviour show extreme ceiling effects. Reason for that could be that there is hardly any behaviour like this or people do not honestly admit it. Thus, these items ought to not be included when measuring the individual work performance (Koopmans et al., 2013).

Measuring the Individual Work Performance

In general, there are three ways to capture the individual work performance of an employee: self-ratings, peer or managerial ratings and objective measures. Self-ratings have the advantage that an employee can observe his or her own behaviour in detail. That counts especially for counterproductive behaviour, as this is usually intended to be private. In addition, self-ratings have practical advantages like ease of collection, issues of confidentiality and less missing data. But in contrast, people are reluctant to answer honestly and present themselves in a favourable way. As a result, they rate their own performance higher than it is rated by peers or managers and ceiling effects occur in the scales. Managerial ratings have in general higher correlation with objective measures than self-reporting, but the halo effect can occur. That means that an employee's performance is usually measured on the base of the general impression of the employee by the manager or peer. Thus, scores on the different dimensions are more similar. Furthermore, the peer or manager usually has not the opportunity to observe an employee's behaviour in detail. That is why this kind of measurement often simply captures the manager's or peer's view about what the employee's performance might be or ought to be. Although objective measures, e.g. key performance indicator, may be the most accurate way of measuring the actual performance, they are not easily obtainable in many occupations. This is, in particular, the case for knowledge work and high-complexity jobs where direct measures of countable behaviours are almost impossible (Koopmans et al., 2013; Wallace et al., 2011).

In literature, there exist several scales to measure the individual work performance. Most of these scales fail to include the complete range of individual behaviours or operationalize scales differently. Thus, each researcher has to combine different scales to get a complete picture. But this problem was detected and for example Koopmans et al. (2013) developed a short and generic questionnaire to measure the work performance at the individual level. It showed a good

model fit, but in some cases job-specific or domain specific scales may be preferred over generic scales. Therefore, each researcher still must find the scale most appropriate for his or her work and there is no universally valid approach (Koopmans et al., 2013).

Empirical Study

The aim of this empirical study is to understand the importance of trust in flexible working arrangements in the IT sector. More precisely, the following research question should be answered:

Which effect does trust within organizations have on the performance of employees in flexible working arrangements?

Therefore, an empirical study is carried out that examines working arrangements according to their level of flexibility (time, spatial and contract) and the employees' perceived level of trust in their colleagues, direct superior and the company. Furthermore, the use of information and communications technologies by the employees is investigated and considered as an influential factor. The last variable of this survey is the performance (in-role and extra-role behaviour) of the employee. Moreover, this empirical study considers employees of different economic sectors and the questionnaire is in German only to address people living in the German-speaking area to avoid irregularities due to cultural differences.

In this section this empirical study is described in detail. Initially, the hypotheses are derived and formulated, followed by an exact description of the procedure, sample and material of the survey. Finally, the collected data is analysed in-depth.

3.1 Hypotheses

From this research question and the literature research, several hypotheses can be derived. They help to focus and structure the empirical study, including the design of the questionnaire and the analysis of its results. These hypotheses can be tested using the outcome of the survey and with these findings an answer to the research question is found. It must be taken into account that the results may vary according to the type of flexibility of the working arrangement. That is the reason why these hypotheses also differentiate between spatial, time and contract flexibility.

First, along with the rapid development of new communication and information technologies, there was an increasing flexibility of working arrangements in the last decades (Statistik Austria, 2011, 2013b). These new technologies support flexible working, and for some kinds of flexible working arrangements they are even necessary, e.g. telework, which is defined as working outside the conventional workplace using computer-based technology (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). Therefore, it can be assumed that:

(H1) The level of (a) spatial, (b) time and (c) contract flexibility of working arrangements is positively related to the usage intensity of communication and information technologies.

Second, in recent years the rapidly growing literature, see section 2.2, has shown that trust within organizations has several benefits. It is clear that trust can have a direct positive effect, such as superior levels of performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001):

(H2) Trust within organizations and the employees' individual performance are positively correlated.

Third, although research failed up to now to deliver clear empirical evidence for a generalizable relationship between flexible working arrangements and organizational performance, literature reviews show consensus concerning a positive association (Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). So it can be assumed that:

(H3) The level of (a) spatial, (b) time and (c) contract flexibility of working arrangements and the employees' individual performance are positively correlated.

Fourth, the previous two hypotheses assume that the flexibility of working arrangements and the level of trust have, independently from one another, a positive effect on the individual's performance. However, the more flexible the working arrangements the more difficult it is to implement command and control mechanisms to increase the performance (Tyler, 2003). That is why it is assumed that the positive effect of trust on the performance might become stronger with an increased flexibility of the working arrangements:

(H4) The higher the level of (a) spatial, (b) time and (c) contract flexibility of working arrangements, the stronger is the positive correlation between trust within organizations and individual performance.

3.2 Method

In order to meet scientific criteria, this empirical work follows Diekmann's (2007) model of the phases of an empirical study. Thus, the planning and implementation of the survey is done in the next step and described below.

Study Design

For this empirical study a quantitative method was used. Reason for that was, that there is the general tendency that quantitative methods are more suitable for testing hypotheses than qualitative ones (Paier, 2010). Due to the high number of statistically analysable data the researcher is enabled to generalize the results from the sample across the population. In comparison to that, a qualitative approach would use less standardized procedure with a small sample to gather broader knowledge about the study object (Altobelli, 2007).

Next, it was decided to use a survey for data collection. A questioning of the participants may capture the individual's subjective perceived reality at work better than an observation or experiment. Thus, it is better applicable to measure for example the level of trust within the organization that is perceived by the respondent. Moreover, this survey was implemented by a written questionnaire via the internet. The major benefits of this method are low costs and relative little expenditure of time. Furthermore, this method provides a variety of possibilities for the design of the questionnaire, e.g. the integration of multimedia content or filter question. In addition, it is seen as quite objective because the interviewer has no direct contact with the participant and in that way the interviewer cannot influence the respondent. The biggest disadvantage is that the situation of data collection is not controllable. So, it cannot be verified if the target person has filled in the questionnaire by her- or himself and autonomous (Diekmann, 2007; Altobelli, 2007). In total, this method had the best cost-benefit ratio for this study compared to other methods.

Following this, concrete questions for all relevant topics were developed. Partially, questions of other studies were used, whereby questions in English were translated to German and several were modified. But there were also a couple of questions that were developed from the scratch. Detailed information are written down in section 3.3. The complete questionnaire is to be found in appendix A, including the short welcoming text.

For the realization of the survey as an online questionnaire, the software package SoSci Survey was used, see www.soscisurvey.de. The decision was based on the fact that it has numerous and diverse advantages compared to other options. It offers a high flexibility in questionnaire design without any limitations concerning the questionnaire length or the number of respondents. The server of SoSci Survey can be used for data collection and subsequent the data can be easily exported to various statistics software. Moreover, for scientific purposes without commercial background it can be used for free.

To be precise, for the implementation of the questionnaire all questions and response options must be included in SoSci Survey. Then, the order of the questions was fixed to ensure a low dropout rate. On the initial page the short welcoming text was included, while the questionnaire itself started on the second page with a simple question in order to avoid a deterrent effect. Then the order ranged from general questions in the beginning to more specific and personal ones in

the end. Finally, socio-demographics, e.g. age, gender or highest completed level of education, were asked.

After the implementation of the complete questionnaire with SoSci Survey, detailed pretests were carried out with eight different people. These pretests were supported by the pretest mode of SoSci Survey, so that anyone with the correct password could get access to the questionnaire before the survey starts. Strictly speaking, two different types of pretests were applied. On the one hand there was the online-pretest and on the other hand there was the face-to-face pretest, each was carried out with four people. For executing the online-pretest, the testee was enabled to fill out the questionnaire and give written feedback in a text box at the end of each page. For the face-to-face pretest SoSci Survey offers the possibility to show the questionnaire in the original mode. So while the test participant completed the questionnaire, he or she spoke aloud all of his or her thoughts so that they could be noted down. Afterwards, the whole questionnaire and the notes taken were discussed. Based on the feedback of all pretests the questionnaire was optimized. To conclude, a final revise and a technical test were done.

Data Collection

Then data collection was carried out in a time frame of six weeks in May and June 2014. Thus the link to the questionnaire <https://www.soscisurvey.de/flexiblesArbeiten/> was communicated. In doing so, several different channels were utilized to not exclude possible respondents due to the choice of the channel. Some people were asked directly using E-Mails and instant messaging services like WhatsApp. In addition, the social web was used to address a wide range of people. That includes social networks like Facebook as well as internet forums and blogs.

When sending, respectively posting, the link it was transmitted together with a short text. This message varied according to the channel and receiver or reader, but the key message was always the same: first the content of the questionnaire was briefly explained, then framework conditions of the work were described and finally they were asked to distribute the link of the questionnaire to their colleagues, friends and family. In this way a snowball effect was created for data collection. Thus, everyone with the link could participate in the survey and any possibilities for restrictions offered by SoSci Survey, e.g. by using personal codes, were not used. As a result, the number of respondents increased exponentially and it emerged a convenience sample since only a small proportion of the respondents was selected by the researcher.

Participants

For significant and unbiased results, the population for the survey and the sample must be defined. Therefore, the target population and sample of this empirical study was defined first, whilst the second part of this section focuses the actual participants of the survey.

To participate in this empirical study the respondents must meet the following criteria. At first, every person questioned must be able to read and understand German because the questionnaire was only available in German. The reason for that is to avoid irregularities due to cultural differences. Furthermore, the results cannot be biased by incorrect translations or translations that can be interpreted differently. Second, people of the target group must have a job, whereas

it does not matter which kind of work, e.g. unlimited employed or self-employed. That criterion is obviously necessary as questions about one's own work must be answered.

Although the results should apply to the entire population, it is not possible to question all people of the defined population in the course of this work. Therefore, only a small subset of the population, a convenience sample, is used, which is generated through the selected data collection method. In doing so, it must be considered that there is the risk of a bad sample. The reason for that is that the survey is done via the internet and not everybody has internet access. As a result, the sample is might not representative. But this risk is significantly reduced by the quite high internet use in the meantime (Statistik Austria, 2013a, 2013b).

In total, the questionnaire was opened 531 times, including all clicks even by mistakes when the browser was immediately closed. Nearly 60 percent (316 respondents) started to fill out the questionnaire, whereby 216 participants finished it. That implies a dropout rate of 31.6 percent, whereas 95 percent of it stopped within the first half and 71 percent cancelled within the first third of the questionnaire. On the basis of feedback it can be assumed that the majority dropped out because they perceived the questionnaire as too long. However, the number of valid cases for the presented analysis was further reduced to 202 cases (n=202) because of a relative large number of missing values and too fast completion (see section 3.4)

3.3 Material

As mentioned in the description of the survey design in section 3.2, a questionnaire was developed for this empirical study. In total, the survey instrument consisted of six main sections. The first four sections were concerned with scales of dimensions under study and the fifth referred to socio-demographic data. The sixth section consisted of items that were added for other research projects at the same research institute, but they are not relevant for this work. The complete questionnaire can be found in appendix A.

For the questionnaire, tested scales and items of other empirical studies were used when possible. As these scales were partially in English, they were translated to German using a forward-backward-translation approach to guarantee a high quality of translation. Thus, in a first step the English items were translated to German and in a second step they were translated back to English with some assistance. But some of the items were purposefully modified to fit the context of this work better. All other questions needed were developed from the scratch. Below, this section discusses all scales that are relevant for this work.

But before going into detail it should be mentioned that this questionnaire contains different types of questions. The majority of the questions, which are measuring the personal view of the respondents, uses Likert scales. Although, there has been much debate about the optimal number of responses, it can be assumed that the higher the number of response options the more sensitive is the scale. But in contrast, the more options the scale has the more difficult for the respondent to make a choice. So, it may take longer for the respondent to make a choice (Pearse, 2011). Thus, according to Symonds (1924 in (Pearse, 2011)) using seven scale points would achieve an optimal level of reliability. Furthermore, the odd number of response options avoids forced choice. As a result, to create uniform response alternatives, it was decided to use seven-point Likert scales, independently of the number of response options used for the original scales. For design reasons, only the extremes were labelled with “*strongly disagree*” (“*trifft überhaupt nicht zu*”) and “*strongly agree*” (“*trifft völlig zu*”). To gather some socio-demographic data, including information about the working arrangement of the respondent, a few questions required a text or number input, e.g. “*For how many years are you working in this organization?*” (“*Wie viele Jahre sind Sie schon in diesem Unternehmen tätig?*”). In addition, seven-level scaling responses were used. For example, for the question “*How do you rate the quality of your own work in the past three months?*” (“*Wie bewerten Sie die Qualität ihrer Arbeit in den letzten 3 Monaten?*”) the answer options ranged from “*insufficient*” (“*ungenügend*”) to “*very good*” (“*sehr gut*”). The number of response options was chosen to remain uniform within the entire questionnaire. Finally, there are some single-choice questions e.g. “*What is the gender of your superior?*” (“*Welches Geschlecht hat Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r?*”) with the answer options “*male*” (“*männlich*”) and “*female*” (“*weiblich*”). Moreover, two single-choice questions were used as filter questions that request if the respondent has colleagues respectively a superior. If the respondent answers no, then all questions concerning colleagues and/or the superior are hidden.

Flexibility of the Working Arrangement

The first section of the survey was focusing on the flexibility of the working arrangement of the respondent. The items that were used for the measurement can be found below (see table 3.1). A distinction was made according to the type of flexibility: contract, time and space.

For measuring **contract flexibility** a new item was developed. The respondents had to select their type of employment contract (1 = “self-employed” (“selbstständig”), 2 = “permanent contract” (“unbefristete/r ArbeitnehmerIn”), 3 = “fixed-term contract” (“befristete/r ArbeitnehmerIn”), 4 = “freelance contract” (“freier Dienstnehmer”), 5 = “contract for work and labour” (“Werkvertrag”), 6 = “contract with employment agency” (“angestellt über eine Personalleasingfirma”). This variable was recoded for the analysis (0 = inflexibel, 1 = flexibel), whereby “permanent contract” was recoded to inflexible and all other types of contract were determined as flexible because all contracts that are different from standard permanent contracts are defined as flexible.

The measurement of **time flexibility** refers to any variation from usual working time and was split in two parts according to the dimensions of flexibility. In that way, a distinction was made between time flexibility in the interest of the employee and the employer. So, the former refers to time flexibility as possibilities and the latter as requirements for the employees.

Three items were used from Dorn’s (2014) scale to question the **possibilities** of the participant concerning time flexibility. For the response options a seven-point scale from “never” (“nie”) to “always” (“immer”) was used. Time flexibility had a relatively high reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .740$.

In addition, the **requirements** or restrictions for the respondents from the organization in regard to time flexibility were questioned. Therefore, three items were taken from Höge (2011), translated to German and slightly modified. Again, a seven-point response scale from “never” (“nie”) to “always” (“immer”) was used. This scale had a relatively high reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .790$.

The third dimension of flexibility, namely **spatial flexibility** was measured as well with two scales. More detailed, the distinction was made again between the two dimensions of flexibility. Thus, the scales questioned possibilities and requirements for the employees.

So, three items, used from the scale developed by Dorn (2014), measured the **possibilities** of the respondent regarding the spatial flexibility on a seven-point scale from “never” (“nie”) to “always” (“immer”). Possibilities of spatial flexibility had a high reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .803$.

Furthermore, three items measured the **requirements** of the organization for the participant concerning the spatial flexibility. For this, items from the questionnaire of Dorn (2014) were taken, using again a seven-point response scale from “never” (“nie”) to “always” (“immer”). As this scale had an insufficient reliability, (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .566$), the item “... für gewisse Arbeiten ins Büro zu fahren.” was deleted. That increased the reliability to an acceptable level, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .765$.

Question	Frequency	Percent	
Contract Flexibility			
<i>Type of employment contract</i>			self-created
Self-employed	1	0.5	
Permanent contract	163	80.7	
Fixed-term contract	23	11.4	
Freelance contract (freier Dienstvertrag)	8	4.0	
Contract for work and labour (Werkvertrag)	4	2.0	
Contract with employment agency	2	1.0	
Missing	1	0.5	
Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Possibilities of Time Flexibility never - always			
<i>I have the opportunity...</i>			(Dorn, 2014)
...to arrange my weekly working hours by myself.	4.58	2.02	
...to choose my daily working hours freely.	4.62	2.05	
...to take some hours off.	5.42	1.63	
Requirements on Time Flexibility never - always			
<i>My job requires me...</i>			(Höge, 2011)
...to be flexible in terms of working hours.	4.53	1.89	
...to work overtime.	4.61	1.85	
...to work also beyond usual working hours e.g. in the evening, at night or at weekends.	3.64	2.11	

Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Possibilities of Spatial Flexibility never - always			
<i>I have the opportunity. . .</i>			(Dorn, 2014)
...to decide by myself where I perform a task.	3.52	2.31	
...to work from home instead of working at my usual working place.	2.89	2.18	
...to be not physically present during meetings (telephone conference, video telephony, etc.).	2.46	2.01	
Requirements on Spatial Flexibility never - always			
<i>My job requires me. . .</i>			(Dorn, 2014)
...to work at different places.	3.01	2.08	
...to go to the office for certain tasks.*	4.63	2.26	
...to work mobile at the clients' office.	2.36	1.92	

Table 3.1: Items for measuring the level of flexibility of the working arrangements

*Item excluded to improve reliability of the scale.

Use of Technologies

As these flexible working arrangements are partially supported, or even enabled, by novel technologies, the usage intensity of technologies was measured on the scale from “*never*” (“*nie*”) to “*several times daily*” (“*mehrmals täglich*”). In doing so, in total eleven items (see table 3.3) were utilized. The majority of the items was used, partially slightly adapted, from the scale of Dorn (2014), and some items were newly developed. In detail, five items focused on hardware devices, e.g. laptop/notebook, tablet etc., and six items on means of communication, e.g. SMS, email etc.

To understand the structure of this set of variables, a factor analysis was carried out. It resulted in a two-factor solution and both components in combination explained 45.87 percent of the variance. Table 3.2 below shows the factor loadings, whereas factor loadings with values above 0.4 were printed in bold type. The items that cluster on the same components suggest that component 1 represents novel technologies and component 2 pictures classic technologies. Therefore, it was decided to use these two components for the analysis and separate the item that measured the usage intensity of telephony.

The scale of classic technologies included items questioning the usage intensity of personal computer/workstation, landline telephone and email. But this scale had a very low reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .500$. So, the usage intensity of **personal computer/workstation** and of **land-line telephone** were used for the analysis as single-item measures instead.

The use of **new types of technologies** is measured with seven items: laptop/notebook, tablet, mobile phone/smartphone, SMS/MMS, chat/message service, social networks and forums/blogs/wiki. This scale has a relatively high reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .778$.

	Component	
	1	2
Personal computer/workstation	-0.40	0.56
Laptop/notebook	0.65	-0.16
Tablet	0.57	0.07
Mobile phone/Smartphone	0.74	0.04
Landline phone	-0.34	0.72
Telephony (via landline phone, mobile phone, computer, etc.)	0.30	0.49
SMS/MMS	0.70	0.07
Email	0.29	0.68
Chat/message services (Skype, Lync, WhatsApp, etc.)	0.71	0.04
Social networks (Facebook, Xing, etc.)	0.67	0.03
Forums, blogs and wikis	0.53	0.11
Eigenvalues	3.46	1.59
% of variance	31.45	14.42

Table 3.2: Component matrix of use of technologies

Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Technologies never - several times daily			
<i>How often do you use the following technologies for work?</i>			(Dorn, 2014)
Personal computer/workstation	5.51	2.48	self-created
Laptop/notebook	4.57	2.59	(Dorn, 2014)
Tablet	1.59	1.44	(Dorn, 2014)
Mobile phone/Smartphone	4.20	2.57	(Dorn, 2014)
Landline phone	4.85	2.37	self-created
Telephony (via landline phone, mobile phone, computer, etc.)*	4.57	2.46	self-created
SMS/MMS	2.53	1.89	self-created
Email**	6.61	1.21	self-created
Chat/message services (Skype, Lync, WhatsApp, etc.)	2.72	2.31	(Dorn, 2014)
Social networks (Facebook, Xing, etc.)	1.79	1.47	(Dorn, 2014)
Forums, blogs and wikis	2.57	1.99	self-created

Table 3.3: Items for measuring the usage intensity of technologies

* Item excluded because of the factor analysis.

** Item excluded because of the low reliability of the scale.

Level of Trust

Next, trust inside the organization was measured (see table 3.4). More detailed, the perceived level of trust by the respondent in others within the organization was requested, whereas a conceptual distinction between trust in colleagues, trust in superior, anticipated trust of the superior in the respondent and system trust was made. So it must be noted that only a part of all aspects of trust, which were identified in the literature review, was measured because a complete measurement would result in a far too long questionnaire.

The items of this section are mainly based on the work of Dietz and Hartog (2006), who did an analysis on how to measure trust inside of organizations. As their article, and all approaches they have analysed, were written in English, all items used were translated to German. But most of these items were slightly modified to create uniform formulated questions. Furthermore, for all scales seven-point Likert scales were used as answer options. Moreover, a distinction was made between trust as a belief, trust as a decision and trust as an action. Trust as a belief and trust as a decision were questioned in equal parts, whereas trust as an action was not measured explicitly. Reason for that is that trust as an action can be seen as the output of the trust process in terms of trusting behaviour. Thus, it was measured in the next section in the form of the individual performance, which is the dependent variable.

To figure out the underlying structure of all items, and to check if the conceptual distinction described above is confirmed, an explorative factor analysis was conducted. It yielded in a five-factor solution (Eigenvalues of 15.67, 4.48, 2.34, 1.77 and 1.14) that explained in total 72.58 percent of the variance (percent of the variance 44.78, 12.81, 6.68, 5.05 and 3.26). All items focusing on trust in superior and anticipated trust of the superior in the respondent did load on the first factor. All items measuring trust in colleagues did load on the second factor. Thus, those two scales were used for the analysis. The three newly developed items that refer to system trust did not clearly load to one factor. That is the reason why it was decided to include this scale not in the analysis, although it had a relative high reliability.

Trust in colleagues was measured with twelve items, one half of it questioning trust as belief in colleagues and the other half focusing on trust as decision. The former one is a mixture on the basis of four different scales that were analysed by Dietz and Hartog (2006). These items cover equally all relevant characteristics of the trustee (benevolence, competence, predictability, integrity). The latter is based on a ten item scale by Gillespie (2003) in the analysis of Dietz and Hartog (2006). This scale had a very high reliability, Cronbach's $\alpha = .940$.

For measuring **trust in superior** twenty items were used in total, whereas it consisted of the following two parts. First, twelve items focused on the perceived trust of the respondent in his or her superior. For measuring trust as a belief, again, items of four different scales, that were analysed by Dietz and Hartog (2006), were used. Moreover, attention was paid here again to include all four characteristics of the trustee evenly. But it must be mentioned that three items were taken, slightly adapted, from the scale of trust in colleagues. Trust as a decision was measured with the same items as for trust in colleagues, but they were slightly modified. Second, the anticipated trust of the superior in the respondent was measured with eight items, four items focusing on trust as a belief and the same amount for trust as a decision. The development of these items was based on the scale of trust in superior. Trust in superior had a very high reliability, Cronbach's $\alpha = .956$.

Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Trust in Colleagues 7-point Likert scale			
<i>Please think about your colleagues when answering the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.</i>			
I can count on my colleagues to help me if I have difficulties with my job.	6.11	1.20	(Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004)
If I share my problems with my colleagues, I know that they would respond constructively and caringly.	6.03	1.06	(McAllister, 1995)
My colleagues approach their jobs with professionalism and dedication.	5.71	1.19	(McAllister, 1995)
My colleagues have the knowledge and skills to do their work.	5.81	1.09	(Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004)
My colleagues will keep the promises they make and take actions that are consistent with their words.	5.67	1.29	(Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004)
My colleagues are open and upfront with me, even if the truth is unpleasant.	5.45	1.31	(Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis, & Winograd, 2000 in Dietz & Hartog, 2006)
<i>I am willing to...</i>			(Gillespie, 2003 in Dietz & Hartog, 2006)
...rely on my colleagues' work-related judgements.	5.61	1.18	
...rely on my colleagues' task-related skills and abilities.	5.76	1.19	
...rely on my colleagues to represent your work accurately to others.	5.60	1.33	
...depend on my colleagues to back you up in difficult situations.	5.87	1.26	
...confide in my colleagues about personal issues that are affecting my work.	4.91	1.69	
...discuss work-related problems or difficulties with my colleagues that could potentially be used to disadvantage me.	5.31	1.48	

Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Trust in Superior 7-point Likert scale			
<i>Please think about your superior when answering the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.</i>			
In general, I believe my superior's motives and intentions are good.	6.06	1.17	(Robinson, 1996)
My superior is concerned about my personal well-being.	5.31	1.62	(Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000 in Dietz & Hartog, 2006)
My superior shows good judgement when making decisions about the job.	5.24	1.47	(Clark & Payne, 1997)
My superior has the knowledge and skills to do his/her work.	5.75	1.46	(Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004)
My superior will keep the promises he/she makes and takes actions that are consistent with his/her words.	5.58	1.64	(Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004)
My superior is open and upfront with me, even if the truth is unpleasant.	5.57	1.58	(Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000 in Dietz & Hartog, 2006)
<i>I am willing to...</i>			(Gillespie, 2003 in Dietz & Hartog, 2006)
...rely on my superior's work-related judgements.	5.59	1.53	
...rely on my superior's task-related skills and abilities.	5.79	1.44	
...rely on my superior to represent your work accurately to others.	5.78	1.52	
...depend on your superior to back you up in difficult situations.	5.65	1.57	
...confide in my superior about personal issues that are affecting my work.	4.88	1.84	
...discuss work-related problems or difficulties with my superior that could potentially be used to disadvantage me.	5.26	1.66	

Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Anticipated Trust of the Superior in the Respondent 7-point Likert scale			
<i>Please think about your superior and your relationship with him/her. This is only about your personal view. My superior believes that. . .</i>			self-created
...my motives and intentions are, in general, good.	6.24	0.94	
...I show good judgement when making decisions about the job.	6.08	1.01	
...I have the knowledge and skills to do my work.	6.19	0.99	
...I will keep the promises that I make and take actions that are consistent with my words.	6.31	0.93	
<i>I believe that my superior is willing to...</i>			self-created
...rely on my work-related judgements.	5.84	1.19	
...depend on me to back him/her up in difficult situations.	6.08	1.13	
...confide in me about personal issues that are affecting his/her work.	4.64	2.00	
...discuss work-related problems or difficulties with me that could potentially be used to disadvantage him/her	4.83	1.98	
System Trust* 7-point Likert scale			
<i>Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.</i>			self-created
The organizational culture enables trust-based dealings with each other.	5.20	1.53	
It is relied on that my records (e.g. working time, expense report) are correct.	6.04	1.44	
It is relied on that I do my work well.	6.21	1.11	

Table 3.4: Items for measuring the level of trust

Performance

The next section of the questionnaire focuses on the individual work performance of the respondents (see table 3.5), which is used as the dependent variable of this analysis. Therefore, the respondents must do a self-assessment of their own performance. In doing so, three dimensions of the individual work performance were questioned and described in detail in the following.

First, the participants were asked to do an overall evaluation of their own work performance. Therefore, two items of Koopmans et al. (2013) individual work performance questionnaire were translated to German in order to question the **quality and quantity of the work performance** in the last three months on a seven-level scale from “*insufficient*” (“*ungenügend*”) to “*very good*” (“*sehr gut*”).

Next, the focus is put on the **task performance** to measure the proficiency with which the respondents do the core tasks that are central to their jobs (Koopmans et al., 2013) on a seven-point Likert scale. So, six items of the individual work performance questionnaire developed by Koopmans et al. (2013) were selected, partially adapted and translated to German. This scale had a satisfactory reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .744$.

In addition, the **extra-role behaviour** was measured on a seven-point Likert scale with six items using items of three different scales. Two items were taken from Koopmans et al. (2013), two items were used from Wallace et al. (2011), one was adopted from Reychav and Sharkie (2010) and the last item was a combination of Koopmans et al. and Reychav and Sharkie. As all items were original in English, they were translated to German. Extra-role behaviour scale had also a satisfactory reliability, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .732$.

Question	Mean	Standard Deviation	Source
Quality and Quantity of Work Performance insufficient - very good			
<i>Please answer the following questions on a scale from insufficient to very good.</i>			(Koopmans et al., 2013)
How do you rate the quality of your own work in the past three months?	5.92	0.88	
How do you rate the quantity of your own work in the past three months?	5.85	1.09	
Task Performance 7-point Likert scale			
<i>Please answer the following questions on a scale from disagree to agree.</i>			(Koopmans et al., 2013)
I can manage to plan my work so that it is done on time.	5.57	1.43	
I work towards the end results of my work.	6.18	1.19	
I can set priorities in my work.	5.92	1.39	
I am able to separate main issues from side issues at work.	5.95	1.19	
I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort.	3.90	1.83	
It takes me often shorter to complete my work tasks than intended	4.46	1.77	
Extra-Role Behaviour 7-point Likert scale			
<i>Please answer the following questions on a scale from disagree to agree.</i>			
I am ready to help or lend a helping hand to my colleagues.	6.61	0.72	(Wallace et al., 2011)
I help new colleagues settle in, even though it is not required	6.33	0.84	(Wallace et al., 2011)
I work at keeping my job knowledge and skills up-to-date	5.90	1.20	(Koopmans et al., 2013)
In my work team I have passed on knowledge and experiences from the past that only I knew	6.23	1.01	(Reychav & Sharkie, 2010)
I take the initiative when there is a problem to be solved	5.76	1.19	(Koopmans et al., 2013)
I come up with creative ideas at work in order to achieve improvements at work.	5.79	1.24	(Koopmans et al., 2013) and (Reychav & Sharkie, 2010)

Table 3.5: Items for measuring the level of performance

Socio-demographic Variables

For statistical purposes some demographic characteristics of the respondents were gathered with newly developed questions. Therefore, the participants had to enter their age in a input field and select their gender (0 = “male” (“männlich”), 1 = “female” (“weiblich”)). Moreover, the highest completed level of education was questioned (1 = “compulsory school” (“Pflichtschule”), 2 = “apprenticeship” (“Lehrabschluss”), 3 = “technical school” (“Fachschule”), 4 = “school leaving examination” (“Matura”), 5 = “university” (“Universität/ Fachhochschule”)). Due to the small number of respondents with only a low level of education, the categories technical school, apprenticeship and compulsory school were grouped to one category.

Furthermore, some facts and framework conditions concerning the working arrangement were asked with some newly developed questions since the answers of the respondent to all other questions were based on his or her working arrangement. Initially, the sector in which they are working is requested. For easy evaluation, this question was designed as single-choice question, whereas the list of options contains all main categories of ÖNACE 2008 (Statistik Austria, 2008), which is the Austrian version of the “omenclature générale des Activités économiques dans les Communautés Européenne”, in the same sequence. For the analysis these categories were grouped to four categories, because some of these economic sectors were selected too little to be representative. So, the first category consisted of “information and communication (IT)”. The second category refers to services and includes “financial and insurance activities”, “professional, scientific and technical activities” and “administrative and support service activities”. Next, the third category focuses on public services and merged “public administration and defence, compulsory social security”, “education” and “human health and social work activities”. Finally, all remaining categories were grouped in the fourth category. This classification in categories was checked using cross tabulation, which showed that there is evidence of a relationship between these categories of economic sectors and contract flexibility ($\chi^2 = 25.01, df = 8, p < 0.01$) respective possibilities of space flexibility ($\chi^2 = 102.56, df = 72, p < 0.01$) or requirements on space flexibility ($\chi^2 = 70.82, df = 48, p < 0.05$). In addition, the respondents were asked to fill in the duration of the current working relationship in years, whereas participants working less than a year were instructed to give the answer “1”. Next, they were questioned if they are in a leading position (0 = “no” (“nein”), 1 = “yes” (“ja”)). Then, the respondents had to specify the gender of their superior (0 = “male” (“männlich”), 1 = “female” (“weiblich”)). Finally, they hours of work were asked (0 = “full time” (“Vollzeit”), 1 = “part time” (“Teilzeit”), 2 = “minor employment” (“geringfügig”)). But part time and minor employment were merged to one category, because there were only nine respondents that did select minor employment.

3.4 Analysis and Results

For the analysis of the collected data the software IBM SPSS Statistics 21 was used. Therefore, the data of all completed questionnaires was exported from the SoSci Survey server, imported to SPSS and prepared for the analysis. Next, descriptive statistics and correlations were calculated to explore the data and recognize potential relationships. Finally, regression analyses were used to evaluate the hypotheses.

Data Preparation

Before analysis, the data was prepared whereas this process is described chronologically in this section. First, the imported variables and all their characteristics were controlled and inspected for correctness. In doing so, some labels were edited because of erroneous characters e.g. due to umlauts that were not properly imported. Additionally, the level at which a variable is measured (nominal, ordinal or scale) was corrected for some of the variables.

Second, a closer look was taken on all 216 imported data sets. Five cases were deleted because the respondents stated that they have neither a superior nor colleagues. As a result, trust was measured in that case only insufficiently. Furthermore, the data was examined according to completeness. Thus, seven cases were identified and removed, because less than 50 percent of the questions were answered. In this way participants were detected that just viewed large parts of the questionnaire without filling it out. Furthermore, three additional variables, which were calculated by SoSci Survey as quality indicators, were used for data cleaning. The first two of these variables contain negative points for missing answers and extremely fast completion. The third sums up both variables, whereas values above a specified limit indicate low-quality data. On the recommendation of SoSci Survey, two cases were deleted with a total of more than 75 negative points, which is the limit for relative strict filtering. In total, 202 cases remained for the analysis.

In a third step, the input values of all open questions were checked for correctness. In doing so, obvious errors were corrected: When requesting the duration of the actual employment in years, one respondent filled in the year since he or she is working in the organization. Thus, this value was replaced by the calculated number of years.

Descriptive Statistics

To explore the data, some descriptive statistics were calculated. First, a closer look was taken on socio-demographic data. Here, a distinction was made between items focusing on the personal characteristics of the respondents and items that request some facts about their working arrangement.

To begin with some personal characteristics of the participants were considered and the according frequency distributions can be found in table 3.6. The age of the respondents ranged from 19 to 67 years, whereas the median was 32 years. The data of the age was positively skewed with a mean of 34.43 and a standard deviation of 10.30. Interestingly, most respondents were 27 years old (10.4 percent), followed by 26 years (7.9 percent) and 25 years (7.4 percent). In total, 62.2 percent of the respondents were female while only 37.8 were male. The level of education

	Frequency	Percent
Age in Years		
19-24	24	11.9
25-30	70	34.7
31-40	52	25.7
41-50	38	18.8
>50	17	8.4
Missing	1	0.5
Total	202	100.0
Gender		
Female	125	61.9
Male	76	37.6
Missing	1	0.5
Total	202	100.0
Highest Completed Level of Education		
University	94	46.5
School Leaving Examination (Matura)	72	35.6
Lower Education	36	17.8
Total	202	100.0

Table 3.6: Personal demographic characteristics of the respondents

was relatively high, as the majority had a university degree (46.5 percent) and more than one third had school leaving examination (35.6 percent). Only a small part of 17.8 percent had a lower education, whereof 19 respondents had finished technical school, 16 respondents had completed apprenticeship and only one respondent had ended the education with compulsory school.

Now, put the focus on demographic data concerning the working arrangement of the participants. The related frequency distributions can be found in table 3.7. Respondents were from all sectors with the exception of mining and quarrying, and activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies. Furthermore, they were not equally distributed. A large part of the respondents, with 26.6 percent, was working in the information and communication sector. Nearly one third did work in service related sectors (30.2 percent), from which 19 respondents did financial and insurance activities, 29 respondents did professional scientific and technical activities and 13 respondents did administrative and support service activities. Next, 15.3 percent had jobs in public services, whereof 16 respondents did work in public administration and defence, compulsory social security, 8 respondents were in the education sector and 7 respondents did social work activities and human health. Finally, the remaining part of the respondents worked in all other sectors (27.7 percent), including for example 12 respondents in manufacturing or 6 respondents that did transportation and storage. The duration of the employment relationship ranged from 1 to 41, whereas the answer 1 means one year or less. This data is positively skewed with median 5, mean 7.48 and standard deviation 7.64. In other words, more than the half of the respondents worked five years or less in the actual organization. Moreover, 22.1 percent of the

	Frequency	Percent
Economic Sector		
Information and Communication (IT)	53	26.2
Services	61	30.2
Public Services	31	15.3
Other Sectors	56	27.7
Missing	1	0.5
Total	202	100.0
Job Tenure		
1-5	112	55.4
6-10	39	19.3
11-15	19	9.4
16-20	14	6.9
>20	15	7.4
Missing	3	1.5
Total	202	100.0
Manager		
Yes	44	21.8
No	155	76.7
Missing	3	1.5
Total	202	100.0
Gender of Superior		
Female	59	29.2
Male	134	66.3
Missing	9	4.5
Total	202	100.0
Hours or Work		
Full Time	156	77.2
Part Time / Minor Employment	42	20.8
Missing	4	2.0
Total	202	100.0

Table 3.7: Work-related demographic characteristics of the respondents

participants were managers, so they did have a leading position. Furthermore, only 29.2 percent of respondents' superiors were female and about two thirds were male. The last item reveals that the majority of the respondents worked full time (77.2 percent). Only 20.8 percent had less hours of work, whereof 33 respondents worked part time and 9 respondents were in minor employment.

Second, the scales that were used for the evaluation of the hypotheses were investigated with regard to mean and standard deviation. Furthermore, the relationships between these variables were examined by calculating correlation coefficients. All values can be found in table 3.8.

Focusing on descriptive statistics of these variables, an initial examination of this data sug-

gests several findings. Only a relative small part of the respondents (18.8 percent) did have flexible working contracts, including all different kinds. Furthermore, there was the tendency that the respondents did have higher time flexibility as space flexibility, whereas possibilities of both were rated higher than the requirements. Taking a look at the usage intensity of technologies, it is suggested that the established technologies were still more commonly used than novel technologies, but these variables tend to have a relative high amount of variation. The frequency distributions of the items measuring the use of technologies show that the respondents tended to choose extreme low or extreme high values. A reason for that could be that available technologies are used quite regularly while the others cannot be used at all. The data of the variables measuring trust is negatively skewed with a mean of 6.52 for trust in superior and a mean of 5.65 for trust in colleagues, suggesting that the respondents perceived a relative high level of trust. Finally, the individual performance was rated relatively high and the data of all three variables is negatively skewed. That may be explained by the fact that the data was collected with a self assessment and people tend to present themselves better.

For investigating the relationship between the variables Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated using pairwise deletion of missing values. The significance of the correlation was tested two-tailed because at this point of time any assumptions about the relationship being directional should be excluded (Field, 2009). The only assumption that is required for the computation of Pearson's correlation coefficient is that the data must be interval or dichotomous, that is categorical with only two categories. In addition, for testing the significance of the correlation coefficient the sampling distribution has to be normally distributed (Field, 2009). These assumptions are true for the variables of this empirical study. The data is interval respectively dichotomous and the sampling distribution can be assumed to be normally distributed due to the large sample (N=202).

The variables measuring the flexibility of the working arrangement and the variables capturing the usage intensity of technologies do correlate partially. There is the tendency that the level of flexibility is negatively correlated to the use of landline phone and personal computer/workstation, while it is positively correlated to the use of novel technologies. With regard to the relationship between the flexibility of the working arrangement and the individual work performance, there is no significant correlation between them with the exception of time flexibility and task performance. Whereby, possibilities of flexible working arrangements do correlate positively with task performance and requirements do correlate negatively. The results indicate a positive relationship between the individually perceived trust and the individual work performance. All variables, except of trust in colleagues, and quality and quantity of work performance, are significant positively correlated.

Other correlations, that are not relevant for the research question of this work, are not discussed. But detailed information about the relationships between the variables can be found in the table below (see 3.8).

	Mean	Standard Deviation	13.	12.	11.	10.	9.	8.	7.	6.	5.	4.	3.	2.	1.
1. Contract Flexibility	0.14	0.76	-0.03	-0.12	-0.09	-0.07	-0.01	-0.09	-0.04	-0.18*	0.05	0.05	-0.02	0.05	1
2. Possibilities of Time Flexibility	4.87	1.55	0.04	0.27**	0.12	0.18*	0.17*	0.20**	-0.23**	-0.16*	0.14*	0.51**	-0.05	1	
3. Requirements on Time Flexibility	4.26	1.64	0.06	-0.16*	0.02	-0.16*	-0.16*	0.27**	-0.25**	-0.16*	0.41**	0.25**	1		
4. Possibilities of Space Flexibility	2.96	1.84	0.03	0.11	0.09	0.10	0.13	0.53**	-0.37**	-0.34**	0.43**	1			
5. Requirements on Space Flexibility	2.69	1.80	0.10	0.08	0.09	0.02	0.09	0.47**	-0.33**	-0.17*	1				
6. Use of Landline Phone	4.85	2.37	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	-0.10	-0.26**	0.34**	1					
7. Use of Personal Computers/Workstation	5.51	2.48	-0.09	-0.12	-0.13	-0.14	-0.05	-0.26**	1						
8. Use of New Technologies	2.89	1.41	0.15*	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.09	1							
9. Trust in Colleagues	5.65	0.99	0.35**	0.31**	0.01	0.55**	1								
10. Trust in Superior	5.62	1.10	0.44**	0.38**	0.22**	1									
11. Quality/Quantity of Work Performance	5.87	0.88	0.34**	0.31**	1										
12. Task Performance	5.33	0.98	0.35**	1											
13. Extra Role Behaviour	6.10	0.69	1												

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.8: Inter-correlations matrix for the scales including mean and standard deviation

Evaluation of Hypotheses

For the evaluation of the hypotheses regression analyses were used. More detailed, for the first three hypotheses multiple linear regressions were carried out and for the fourth hypothesis moderation analyses, based on linear regression, were used.

But before going into detail, some settings for the calculation of the analyses, that were equal for all conducted regressions, are described. The variables measuring the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics were included in all models to control for potential effects. For that, dummy variables were created for both categorical variables, highest completed level of education and economic sector. The method of listwise deletion was selected for dealing with missing values and the values of all scales were standardized prior to the regression analyses. For the calculation of all coefficients' significance the method of bootstrapping was used. With this procedure it is possible to calculate significance tests, even if the shape of the sample distribution is not known, e.g. if the data is not normally distributed (Field, 2009). For the conducted regressions 1000 samples are used. Reason for that decision was that although normal distribution of the sample can be assumed because of the large sample, it cannot be derived from normality in the data, e.g. younger people were overrepresented.

Hypothesis 1

For testing the first hypothesis, the effect of spatial, time, and contract flexibility on the usage intensity of communication and information technologies is tested. Thus, three regression analyses were performed, each with one of the three variables measuring the use of technologies as the outcome variable. Socio-demographic variables and all variables capturing the flexibility of the working arrangement were used as the predictor variables. The according results can be found in table 3.9.

The first regression model, analysing the effect on the usage intensity of the landline phone, was statistically significant, $F(16, 162) = 3.998, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.283$. The resulting model shows that possibilities of spatial flexibility did make a statistically significant contribution to explain the usage intensity of the landline phone. More detailed, it did have a statistically significant negative effect on the usage intensity ($b = -0.30, \rho < 0.01$), implying that employees with more possibilities of space flexibility use the landline phone less. All other variables had no statistically significant influence on the usage intensity of the landline phone.

The second regression model analysing the effect of flexible working arrangements on the usage intensity of the personal computer and workstation was significant, $F(16, 163) = 3.839, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.274$. In this regression model, both, possibilities ($b = -0.30, \rho < 0.01$) and requirements ($b = -0.19, \rho < 0.05$) of spatial flexibility did have a negative effect on the usage intensity of a personal computer respectively workstation. That may be explained by the fact that personal computers and workstations are designed to be used at one place and cannot be transported easily. Moreover, gender did have a statistically significant positive impact on the usage intensity of the personal computer or workstation ($b = -0.56, \rho < 0.01$), indicating that male employees do use a personal computer or workstation considerably more often than female employees.

The third regression model, investigating the impact of the flexibility of the working arrangement on the usage intensity of novel technologies was statistically significant, $F(16, 162) = 8.201, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.448$. Here, in contrast to the previous models, the possibilities ($b = 0.42, \rho < 0.001$) and requirements ($b = 0.20, \rho < 0.05$) of spatial flexibility did have a statistically significant positive effect on the usage intensity of novel technologies. So employees who have a higher autonomy, but also more restrictions, according to the place to work tended to use novel technologies more often. Reason for that may be that these novel technologies do actually support spatial flexibility as for example a Smartphone can be used for checking emails when being not in the office. Besides that, contract flexibility did have a statistically significant negative effect on the usage intensity of novel technologies ($b = -0.16, \rho < 0.05$). Thus, employees with flexible contracts had a lower use of novel technologies than employees with permanent standard contracts. In addition, the highest completed level of education did influence the use of novel technologies as well. Surprisingly, school leaving examination (Matura) did have a statistically significant negative effect ($b = -0.33, \rho < 0.05$). So, respondents with school leaving examination as the highest completed level of education tend to use less novel technologies than respondents with lower education.

To sum up the results, the hypothesis *H1* that the level of flexibility of working arrangements is positively related to the usage intensity of communication and information technologies is only partially supported. Focusing on (a) spatial flexibility, the hypotheses is supported for novel technologies, but not for already established technologies like the personal computer/workstation or the landline phone. The hypotheses that are considering the (b) time and (c) contract flexibility are not supported.

	Use of Landline Phone		Use of PC/Workstation		Use of New Technologies	
Predictor	B	Beta	B	Beta	B	Beta
(Constant)	-0.07		0.31		0.26	
Age in Years	0.13	0.12	-0.03	-0.03	-0.07	-0.06
Gender	0.35	0.17	-0.56**	-0.27	-0.15	-0.07
Highest Completed Education (University)	-0.18	-0.09	0.04	0.02	-0.12	-0.06
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.07	0.04	-0.05	-0.02	-0.33*	-0.16
Economic Sector (IT)	-0.15	-0.12	-0.06	-0.05	0.29	0.23
Economic Sector (Services)	0.00	0.00	-0.13	-0.11	-0.06	-0.05
Economic Sector (Public Services)	0.22	0.17	0.12	0.10	-0.16	-0.12
Job Tenure	0.16	0.16	0.04	0.04	-0.01	-0.01
Manager	-0.08	-0.03	0.06	0.03	0.11	0.04
Gender of Superior	0.01	0.01	0.27	0.12	0.04	0.02
Hours of Work	-0.19	-0.08	-0.28	-0.12	-0.25	-0.10
Contract Flexibility	-0.09	-0.07	0.01	0.01	-0.16*	-0.12
Possibilities of Time Flexibility	0.10	0.10	-0.09	-0.09	-0.07	-0.07
Requirements on Time Flexibility	-0.15	-0.15	-0.09	-0.09	0.08	0.08
Possibilities of Space Flexibility	-0.30**	-0.30	-0.30**	-0.30	0.43***	0.43
Requirements on Space Flexibility	0.10	0.10	-0.19*	-0.18	0.20*	0.19
R ²	0.283		0.274		0.448	

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 3.9: Regression of usage intensity of technologies on background variables and flexibility of the working arrangement

Hypothesis 2

To test the second hypothesis, the impact of the individually perceived level of trust on the individual work performance is tested. Therefore, three regression analyses were carried out, using every variable that is measuring the individual work performance as the outcome variable. The demographic variables and both variables measuring the individually perceived level of trust were used as the predictors. The results of these analyses can be seen in table 3.10.

First, the regression model examining the effect of trust on the quality and quantity of the individual work performance was statistically significant, $F(13, 163) = 2.418, \rho < 0.01, R^2 = 0.162$. According to this model, trust in superior did have a statistically significant positive effect on the outcome variable ($b = 0.29, \rho < 0.01$). So, employees with a high level of trust in their superior tend to a higher quality and quantity of their work performance.

Second, the model focusing on the impact of trust on the task performance of the respondents was statistically significant, $F(13, 163) = 4.587, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.268$. The level of trust in the superior did have a statistically significant positive effect on the task performance ($b = 0.33, \rho < 0.001$). That means that employees with a high level of trust in their superior tend to an increased task performance as well. Furthermore, the highest completed level of education is influencing the task performance statistically significantly, university degree ($b = -0.51, \rho < 0.01$) and school leaving examination (Matura) ($b = -0.55, \rho < 0.01$). Thus, respondents with university degree and school leaving examination tended to rate their own task performance on average worse than respondents with a lower education.

Third, the relationship between trust and extra role behaviour was investigated and the resulting regression model was statistically significant, $F(13, 163) = 4.515, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.265$. Here again, the perceived level of trust in the superior did have a statistically significant positive effect on the extra role behaviour ($b = 0.34, \rho < 0.01$). That implies that employees with a high level of trust in their superior tend to report better extra role behaviour.

Summing it up, the hypothesis (*H2*) that the level of trust and the employees' individual performance are positively correlated, is partially supported. For the perceived level of trust in the superior it is supported, while it is not for the perceived trust in colleagues.

	Quality/Quantity		Task Performance		Extra Role Behaviour	
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>
(Constant)	-0.5		0.32		0.11	
Age in Years	0.19	0.18	-0.08	-0.08	0.10	0.09
Gender	0.28	0.14	0.17	0.08	0.01	0.00
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.17	0.09	-0.51**	-0.25	-0.03	-0.02
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.33	0.16	-0.55**	-0.26	-0.06	-0.03
Economic Sector (IT)	0.08	0.07	-0.04	-0.03	-0.10	-0.08
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.17	-0.14	-0.12	-0.10	-0.24	-0.20
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.03	-0.02	0.21	0.17	0.26	0.20
Job Tenure	0.01	0.01	0.15	0.14	0.03	0.03
Manager	0.21	0.09	0.31	0.13	0.04	0.02
Gender of Superior	0.34	0.16	-0.19	-0.09	0.02	0.01
Hours of Work	0.10	0.04	0.12	0.05	-0.14	-0.06
Trust in Colleagues	-0.15	-0.15	0.14	0.14	0.19	0.19
Trust in Superior	0.29**	0.30	0.33***	0.34	0.37**	0.38
R^2	0.162		0.268		0.265	

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 3.10: Regression of individual work performance on background variables and trust

Hypothesis 3

To evaluate the third hypothesis, three regression analyses were conducted, see table 3.11. In doing so, the impact of spatial, time and contract flexibility on the individual work performance was investigated. So, again, the variables measuring the individual work performance were used as the outcome variables, whereas variables capturing demographic characteristics and the level of flexibility were the predictor variables.

Initially, the regression model analysing the impact of the flexibility of the working arrangement on the quality and quantity of the individual work performance was statistically significant, $F(16, 165) = 1.851, \rho < 0.05, R^2 = 0.152$. But none of the variables that refer to the flexibility of the working arrangement did have a statistically significant influence. The age of the respondents was the only variable that did have a statistically significant positive impact ($b = 0.21, \rho < 0.05$). So, older respondents tended to rate the quality and quantity of their own work performance better than younger respondents.

Second, the effect of spatial, time and contract flexibility on the individual task performance was analysed. The resulting regression model, which was statistically significant, $F(16, 165) = 3.739, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.266$, was directing the focus on the possibilities of and requirements on time flexibility. The possibilities of time flexibility did have a statistically significant positive effect on the individuals' task performance ($b = 0.32, \rho < 0.001$), so the possibility of time flexibility increased the task performance. In contrast, the requirements on time flexibility did have a statistically significant negative effect on the individuals' task performance ($b = -0.25, \rho < 0.01$). Thus, if the employer requests from the employee to have working hours different from the standard, it has a negative effect on the task performance. Furthermore, gender did have a statistically significant positive effect on the individuals' task performance ($b = 0.38, \rho < 0.05$). So, the female respondents tended to rate their task performance lower than the male ones. Moreover, the highest completed level of education did have a statistically significant impact on the task performance, university degree ($b = -0.72, \rho < 0.001$) and school

leaving examination (Matura) ($b = -0.52, \rho < 0.01$). Thus, participants with lower education, tended to rate their own task performance higher than respondents with better education.

Finally, the impact of the flexibility of the working arrangement on extra role behaviour was investigated. The related regression model was not statistically significant, $F(16, 165) = 0.303, \rho = 0.996, R^2 = 0.029$. As none of the coefficients of the model is statistically significant, the result confirms that the level of flexibility does not have a considerable direct influence on the extra role behaviour.

In summary, the hypothesis (*H3*), that the level of (a) spatial, (b) time and (c) contract flexibility is positively correlated to the individual work performance, is only partially supported. The possibilities of time flexibility did have a positive effect on the task performance. But it must be noted that requirements on time flexibility did have a negative effect on the task performance.

	Quality/Quantity		Task Performance		Extra Role Behaviour	
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>
(Constant)	-0.50		0.31		0.21	
Age in Years	0.21*	0.2	-0.07	-0.07	0.08	0.07
Gender	0.37	0.18	0.38*	0.19	0.00	0.00
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.10	0.05	-0.72***	-0.36	-0.26	-0.13
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.41	0.20	-0.52**	-0.24	-0.16	-0.08
Economic Sector (IT)	0.02	0.01	-0.12	-0.10	0.02	0.01
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.16	-0.13	-0.10	-0.08	-0.13	-0.11
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.01	-0.01	0.23	0.18	0.05	0.04
Job Tenure	-0.04	-0.04	0.10	0.10	-0.02	-0.02
Manager	0.09	0.04	0.23	0.09	-0.02	-0.01
Gender of Superior	0.34	0.16	-0.14	-0.07	0.02	0.01
Hours of Work	0.19	0.08	0.16	0.07	0.01	0.00
Contract Flexibility	-0.11	-0.09	-0.08	-0.07	-0.02	-0.02
Possibilities of Time Flexibility	0.16	0.17	0.32***	0.32	0.07	0.07
Requirements on Time Flexibility	-0.09	-0.09	-0.25**	-0.25	0.03	0.03
Possibilities of Space Flexibility	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.05	-0.02	-0.02
Requirements on Space Flexibility	0.10	0.10	0.17	0.16	0.04	0.04
R ²		0.152		0.266		0.029

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 3.11: Regression of individual work performance on background variables and flexibility of the working arrangement

Hypothesis 4

For testing the fourth, and final, hypothesis a number of moderation analyses was carried out. The concept of moderation implies that the effect of the predictor variable on the outcome variable is moderated by a third variable. Thus, the size, sign or strength of this effect depends on the moderator variable (Hayes, 2013). Therefore, for evaluating this hypothesis analyses were done, using variables measuring socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the perceived trust within the organization as the predictors. Variables measuring the individual work performance were the outcome variables. Furthermore, the variables that captured the flexibility of the working arrangement were utilized as the moderator.

In doing so, the macro PROCESS was used for the computation of the moderation analyses. It is a free macro for SPSS developed by Andrew F. Hayes for estimating mediator models,

moderation models and conditional process analysis. For that, ordinary least squares or logistic regression-based path analytical framework is used. Furthermore, bootstrap methods are implemented (Hayes, 2013).

It was tested whether the link between perceived trust and individual work performance is moderated by flexibility. Since there are so many subdimensions, in total 30 simple moderation models were calculated with PROCESS. Due to this large number of moderation models, only the models that did have a statistically significant moderation effect are described in detail below. The most relevant information about all other models may be found in the according tables.

First, focusing on the moderation effect of **contract flexibility**, six moderation models were calculated. These models can be found in table 3.12. Although, all of the models, except of one, were statistically significant, none of it did show a statistically significant moderation effect. Thus, the hypothesis (*H4c*) “The higher the level of contract flexibility of working arrangements, the stronger is the positive correlation between individual trust and individual performance” is not supported.

	Quality/Quantity	Task Performance	Extra Role Behaviour
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
(Constant)	-0.44	0.35	0.14
Age in Years	0.21*	-0.06	0.12
Gender	0.23	0.16	-0.00
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.15	-0.56**	-0.12
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.34	-0.53*	-0.07
Economic Sector (IT)	0.07	-0.04	-0.09
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.13	-0.07	-0.19
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.11	0.12	0.17
Job Tenure	-0.05	0.11	0.02
Manager	0.13*	0.24	-0.02
Gender of Superior	0.36*	-0.18	0.06
Hours of Work	0.18	0.18	-0.08
Contract Flexibility	-0.22	-0.06	0.01
Trust in Colleagues	-0.04	0.32***	0.38***
Moderator Effect	0.23	-0.01	0.04
\bar{R}^2	0.120	0.197	0.173
(Constant)	-0.48	0.31	0.12
Age in Years	0.18	-0.12	0.07
Gender	0.24	0.14	-0.00
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.22	-0.52**	-0.08
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.40	-0.52**	-0.11
Economic Sector (IT)	0.04	-0.05	-0.05
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.17	-0.12	-0.24*
Economic Sector (Public Services)	0.00	0.22	0.24
Job Tenure	-0.01	0.17	0.06
Manager	0.17	0.32	0.08
Gender of Superior	0.33	-0.20	-0.01
Hours of Work	0.18	0.13	-0.11
Contract Flexibility	-0.15	0.11	0.13
Trust in Superior	0.19*	0.44***	0.50***
Moderator Effect	0.10	-0.13	-0.06
\bar{R}^2	0.155	0.261	0.246

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 3.12: Regression of individual work performance on background variables, trust in colleagues or superior and contract flexibility of the working arrangement, and their interaction

Second, the attention is paid on **time flexibility** of working arrangements, so both variables measuring time flexibility were used as moderator variables. The resulting models of the conducted regression analyses for possibilities of time flexibility are to be found in table 3.13 and for requirements on time flexibility in table 3.14. Altogether, there were only two regression models that did show a statistically significant moderation effect.

The first model that is described in detail was statistically significant, $F(14, 162) = 3.326, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.223$. That model did use the self-assessment of the extra role behaviour as the outcome variable. Trust in colleagues was the predictor variable, with a statistically significant positive effect ($b = 0.47, \rho < 0.001$), and the requirements on time flexibility was the moderator variable. The moderation effect of the requirements on flexibility on the relationship between trust in colleagues and extra role behaviour was statistically significant negative ($b = -0.19, \rho < 0.01$). Thus, the higher the level of possibilities of time flexibility, the weaker is the impact of trust in colleagues on the extra role behaviour (see figure 3.1).

Second, the moderation model, which did analyse the effect of requirements on time flexibility on the link between trust in superior and extra role behaviour, was statistically significant, $F(14, 168) = 4.750, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.284$. The predictor, trust in superior, did have a statistically significant positive impact on extra role behaviour ($b = 0.54, \rho < 0.001$). The moderator variable had no statistically significant direct effect on extra role behaviour, but it had a statistically significant negative moderation effect ($b = -0.17, \rho < 0.05$). That means that requirements on time flexibility do weaken the positive relationship between trust in superior and extra role behaviour (see figure 3.2). In addition, the economic sector did have a statistically significant influence. More detailed, respondents working in the services sector tend to show less extra role behaviour than participants in other economic sectors ($b = -0.23, \rho < 0.05$).

Thus, the hypothesis (*H4b*) “The higher the level of time flexibility of working arrangements, the stronger is the positive correlation between individual trust and individual performance” is not supported. In contrast, the moderation effect found did weaken the relationship between individual trust and performance.

	Quality/Quantity	Task Performance	Extra Role Behaviour
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
(Constant)	-0.48	0.34	0.13
Age in Years	0.23*	-0.03	0.12
Gender	0.36*	0.33*	0.01
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.05	-0.68***	-0.10
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.31	-0.54**	-0.04
Economic Sector (IT)	0.05	-0.07	-0.06
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.16	-0.12	-0.19
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.03	0.23	0.15
Job Tenure	-0.02	0.12	0.03
Manager	0.13	0.27	0.01
Gender of Superior	0.39*	-0.13	0.05
Hours of Work	0.12	0.11	-0.09
Possibilities of Time Flexibility	0.19*	0.30***	-0.02
Trust in Colleagues	0.00	0.26***	0.36***
Moderator Effect	0.03	-0.10	-0.11
\bar{R}^2	0.136	0.293	0.187
(Constant)	-0.48	0.30	0.11
Age in Years	0.22*	-0.08	0.06
Gender	0.32	0.32*	-0.01
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.11	-0.59**	-0.03
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.34	-0.54**	-0.07
Economic Sector (IT)	0.02	-0.10	-0.05
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.19	-0.16	-0.23*
Economic Sector (Public Services)	0.06	0.32*	0.23
Job Tenure	-0.01	0.16	0.05
Manager	0.13	0.32*	0.09
Gender of Superior	0.34*	-0.14	-0.01
Hours of Work	0.13	0.08	-0.09
Possibilities of Time Flexibility	0.17*	0.29***	-0.03
Trust in Superior	0.22**	0.36***	0.47***
Moderator Effect	0.09	-0.06	-0.06
\bar{R}^2	0.186	0.344	0.247

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 3.13: Regression of individual work performance on background variables, trust in colleagues or superior and possibilities of time flexibility of the working arrangement, and their interaction

	Quality/Quantity	Task Performance	Extra Role Behaviour
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
(Constant)	-0.50	0.31	0.18
Age in Years	0.21	-0.06	0.13
Gender	0.28	0.18	-0.02
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.12	-0.56**	-0.17
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.33	-0.54*	-0.16
Economic Sector (IT)	0.09	-0.04	-0.07
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.13	-0.09	-0.19
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.10	0.12	0.16
Job Tenure	-0.00	0.14	-0.01
Manager	0.18	0.31	-0.04
Gender of Superior	0.36*	-0.17	0.03
Hours of Work	0.13	0.14	-0.08
Requirements on Time Flexibility	-0.07	-0.16*	0.10
Trust in Colleagues	0.01	0.33***	0.47***
Moderator Effect	-0.03	-0.09	-0.19**
\bar{R}^2	0.110	0.225	0.223
(Constant)	-0.50	0.29	0.16
Age in Years	0.18	-0.11	0.05
Gender	0.25	0.15	-0.03
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.19	-0.49*	-0.07
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.39	-0.49*	-0.17
Economic Sector (IT)	0.05	-0.07	-0.04
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.18	-0.12	-0.23*
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.01	0.23	0.23
Job Tenure	0.02	0.17	0.04
Manager	0.18	0.37*	0.03
Gender of Superior	0.33*	-0.18	-0.03
Hours of Work	0.15	0.13	-0.09
Requirements on Time Flexibility	-0.02	-0.13	0.13
Trust in Superior	0.22**	0.40***	0.54***
Moderator Effect	-0.02	-0.01	-0.17*
\bar{R}^2	0.151	0.272	0.284

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 3.14: Regression of individual work performance on background variables, trust in colleagues or superior and requirements on time flexibility of the working arrangement, and their interaction

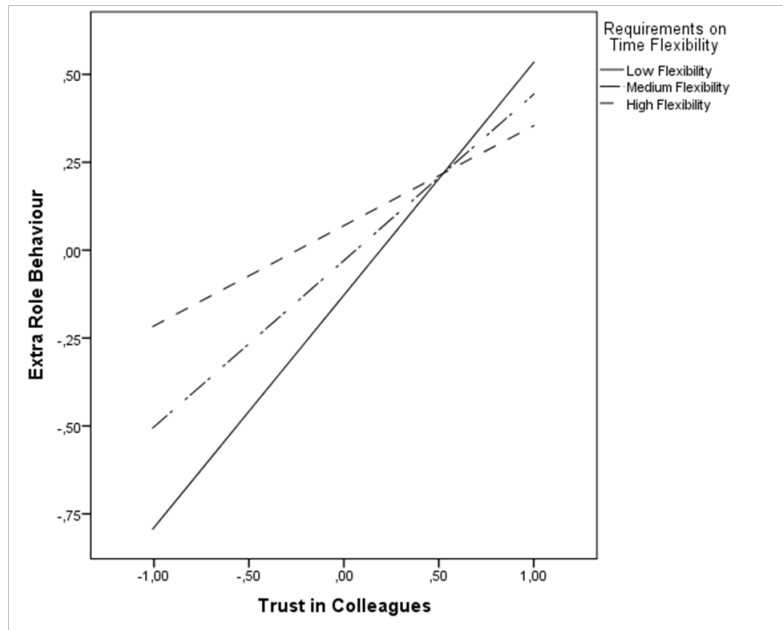


Figure 3.1: Simple slopes for low, medium and high requirements on time flexibility: effects of trust in colleagues on extra role behaviour

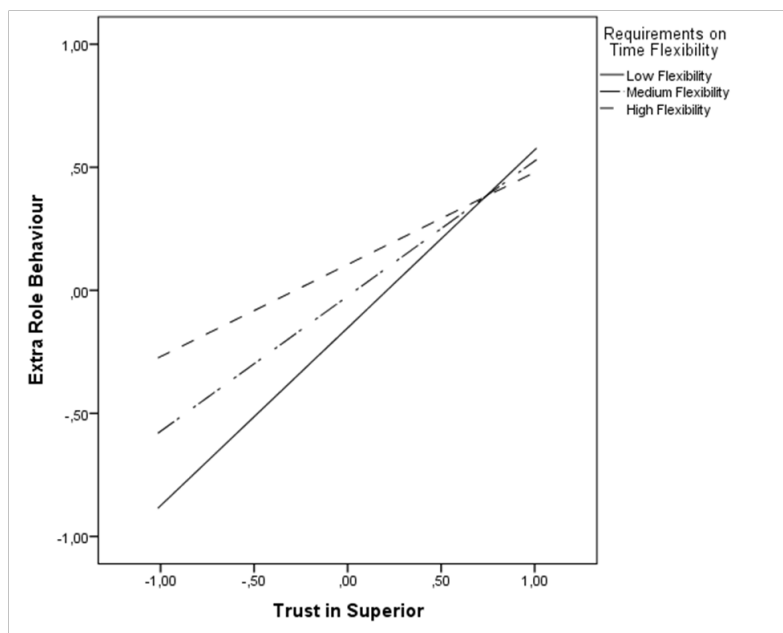


Figure 3.2: Simple slopes for low, medium and high requirements on time flexibility: effects of trust in superior on extra role behaviour

Third, the moderation effect of **spatial flexibility** of the working arrangement on the relationship between individually perceived trust and the individual work performance was explored. Below, table 3.15 does include all conducted analyses on possibilities of spatial flexibility and table 3.16 shows all analyses on requirements on spatial flexibility. Two analyses did show a moderation effect and are described in detail in the following.

The first moderation model, which needs to be mentioned, analysed the effect of the possibilities of spatial flexibility on the relationship between trust in superior and the quality and quantity of the work performance. It was statistically significant, $F(14, 167) = 2.945, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.198$. In that model, the predictor variable, trust in superior, did have a statistically significant positive effect on the quality and quantity of the work performance ($b = -0.24, \rho < 0.001$). So, the higher the perceived level of trust in the superior, the better is the individual work performance. The variable possibilities of spatial flexibility did have no statistically significant direct impact, but a statistically significant positive moderation effect ($b = 0.20, \rho < 0.01$). That means that possibilities of spatial flexibility did strengthen the relationship between trust in superior and the quality and quantity of the work performance (see figure 3.3). Furthermore, the gender of the superior did have a statistically significant positive effect ($b = 0.35, \rho < 0.05$). Thus, respondents with female superior rated their quality and quantity of the work performance better than respondents with male superior.

Second, the effect of requirements on spatial flexibility of the working arrangement on the relationship between trust in superior and extra role behaviour was examined. The according moderation model was statistically significant, $F(14, 168) = 4.313, \rho < 0.001, R^2 = 0.264$. The predictor, trust in superior, did have a statistically significant positive effect on extra role behaviour, ($b = 0.47, \rho < 0.001$). In other words, the higher the level of trust in superior, the better is the extra role behaviour. The requirements on spatial flexibility did have no statistically significant direct impact, but a statistically significant negative moderation effect on the relationship ($b = -0.15, \rho < 0.05$). Thus, under the condition of higher requirements on spatial flexibility, the link between trust in superior and extra role behaviour was weaker (see figure 3.4). In addition, respondents working in the economic sector of services tended to show less extra role behaviour compared with participants of other economic sectors ($b = -0.23, \rho < 0.05$).

Summarising the above, the hypothesis (*H4a*) “The higher the level of spatial flexibility of working arrangements, the stronger is the positive correlation between individual trust and individual performance” was partially supported. When possibilities of spatial flexibility were higher, the link between trust in superior and the quality and quantity of the work performance was stronger. All other analyses did not show a positive moderation effect, but one model did even suggest that a higher spatial flexibility leads to a weaker relationship between trust and the individual performance.

	Quality/Quantity	Task Performance	Extra Role Behaviour
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
(Constant)	-0.46	0.36	0.13
Age in Years	0.19	-0.05	0.12
Gender	0.30	0.25	0.01
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.08	-0.66**	-0.11
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.33	-0.56**	-0.06
Economic Sector (IT)	0.06	-0.08	-0.09
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.13	-0.12	-0.19
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.08	0.24	0.17
Job Tenure	0.00	0.10	0.01
Manager	0.09	0.24	-0.02
Gender of Superior	0.37*	-0.15	0.05
Hours of Work	0.11	0.16	-0.07
Possibilities of Space Flexibility	0.06	0.18*	0.01
Trust in Colleagues	0.03	0.31***	0.39***
Moderator Effect	0.15	-0.10	-0.03
R ²	0.134	0.226	0.172
(Constant)	-0.46	0.33	0.13
Age in Years	0.18	-0.12	0.07
Gender	0.22	0.24	-0.02
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.15	-0.58**	-0.05
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.36	-0.52**	-0.09
Economic Sector (IT)	0.03	-0.11	-0.06
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.17	-0.15	-0.23
Economic Sector (Public Services)	0.02	0.32*	0.24
Job Tenure	0.02	0.14	0.04
Manager	0.15	0.30	0.07
Gender of Superior	0.35*	-0.17	-0.01
Hours of Work	0.11	0.12	-0.09
Possibilities of Space Flexibility	0.03	0.16*	-0.02
Trust in Superior	0.24***	0.40***	0.49***
Moderator Effect	0.20**	-0.07	0.01
R ²	0.198	0.280	0.242

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 3.15: Regression of individual work performance on background variables, trust in colleagues or superior and possibilities of space flexibility of the working arrangement, and their interaction

	Quality/Quantity	Task Performance	Extra Role Behaviour
Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>
(Constant)	-0.48	0.35	0.14
Age in Years	0.20	-0.07	0.12
Gender	0.28	0.19	0.03
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.11	-0.57**	-0.10
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.34	-0.56**	-0.09
Economic Sector (IT)	0.07	-0.05	-0.10
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.12	-0.09	-0.20
Economic Sector (Public Services)	-0.08	0.16	0.19
Job Tenure	-0.01	0.14	0.03
Manager	0.14	0.21	-0.07
Gender of Superior	0.36*	-0.17	0.04
Hours of Work	0.15	0.21	-0.03
Requirements on Space Flexibility	0.08	0.09	0.08
Trust in Colleagues	0.03	0.31***	0.35***
Moderator Effect	0.07	-0.07	-0.15
R ²	0.113	0.204	0.193
(Constant)	-0.48	0.31	0.10
Age in Years	0.16	-0.12	0.08
Gender	0.27	0.15	-0.01
Highest Completed Education (University)	0.14	-0.48*	0.00
Highest Completed Education (Matura)	0.36	-0.51**	-0.06
Economic Sector (IT)	0.05	-0.09	-0.09
Economic Sector (Services)	-0.18	-0.12	-0.23*
Economic Sector (Public Services)	0.01	0.27	0.27
Job Tenure	0.02	0.17	0.05
Manager	0.17	0.29	0.03
Gender of Superior	0.33*	-0.19	-0.02
Hours of Work	0.16	0.17	-0.06
Requirements on Space Flexibility	0.05	0.09	0.06
Trust in Superior	0.23**	0.41***	0.47***
Moderator Effect	0.14	-0.08	-0.15*
R ²	0.171	0.267	0.264

* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 3.16: Regression of individual work performance on background variables, trust in colleagues or superior and requirements on space flexibility of the working arrangement, and their interaction

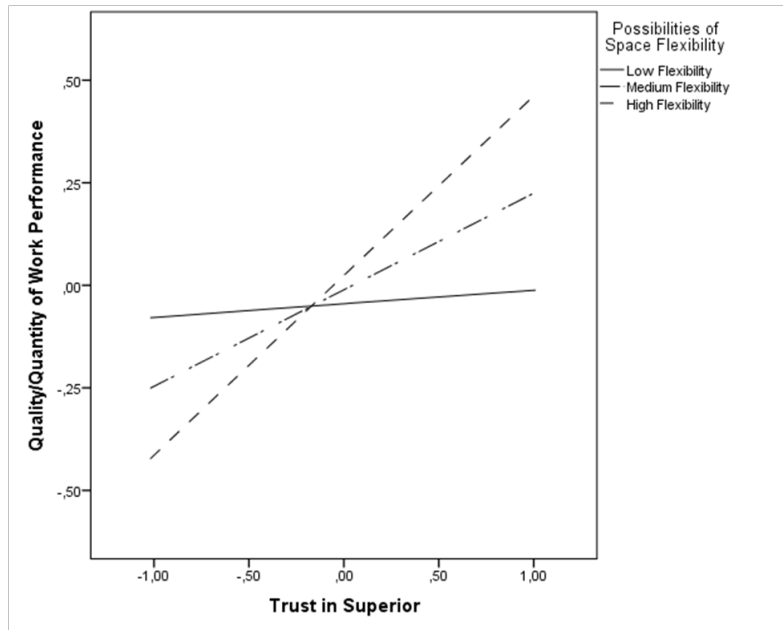


Figure 3.3: Simple slopes for low, medium and high possibilities of space flexibility: effects of trust in superior on quality and quantity of work performance

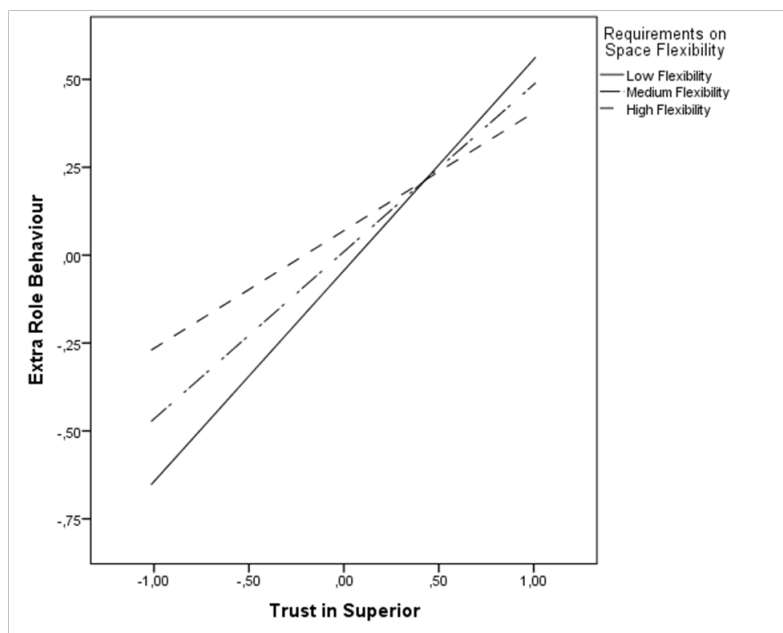
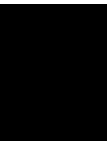


Figure 3.4: Simple slopes for low, medium and high requirements on space flexibility: effects of trust in superior on extra role behaviour



Conclusion

The aim of this work was to increase the understanding of the relationship between flexible working arrangements, individual trust and individual work performance. In that way, both, researchers from an academic point of view and managers from an practical point of view, may benefit from the results.

In the first part of this work, a comprehensive overview of the state-of-the-art in research is given. Yet, there exist a great number of studies that focus on flexible working arrangements, trust within organizations or individual task performance. But in literature there is still the lack of generally valid theoretical conceptualizations, so, there are several, slightly varying, definitions. As a result, empirical studies are partially based on different concepts and therefore, they are not that easy comparable. However, researchers started attempts to identify commonalities in different approaches to generate an integral theoretical conceptualization. But until now, there are too little results, especially when focusing on the connection between those subjects. Therefore, this chapter brings added value through its holistic approach.

In the second part of this work, an empirical study was conducted to improve the knowledge about the relationship between trust, flexible working arrangements and the individual work performance within organizations. The respondents specified their level of flexibility of the working arrangement, the individually perceived level of trust and the usage intensity of technologies. Furthermore, a self-assessment of the individual work performance was made. Finally, some socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, including detailed information about their working arrangement, were questioned. Based on this empirical data, direct effects between these variables were examined using multiple regression analysis. The results show, that space flexibility did have a positive effect on the usage intensity of new technologies, but a negative impact on the usage intensity of landline phone and personal computer or workstation. Furthermore, it was shown that trust in superior did have a significant positive effect on the individual work performance. In contrast, the direct impact of the flexibility of the working arrangement on the individual work performance was less clear and one regression model was even not statistically significant. But it appeared that possibilities of time flexibility had a positive influence

on the task performance whereas requirements had a negative impact. That suggested that the level of flexibility may have no direct, but interaction effect on the individual work performance.

Therefore, further analyses were conducted to identify moderation effects. Initially, it was assumed that the level of trust in colleagues and superior has a positive effect on the individual work performance and that contract, time, and spatial flexibility strengthen this relationship. The reason for that assumption was that the more flexible the working arrangement, the more difficult it is to implement command and control styles of management effectively to increase the performance. But, the results of the analyses did support this hypothesis only partially. Possibilities of space flexibility was the only variable that did have a positive moderation effect on the relationship between trust in superior and quality and quantity of the work performance. In contrast, requirements on space flexibility did have a negative moderation effect on the link between trust in superior and extra role behaviour. In addition, requirements on time flexibility did have as well a negative effect on the relationship between trust, trust in colleagues as well as trust in superior, and extra role behaviour. The variables possibilities of time flexibility and contract flexibility showed no moderation effect.

However, this empirical study has some limitations as well. The online questionnaire was in German only to avoid irregularities due to cultural differences. As a result, it cannot be assumed that these results apply to other cultures as well. Furthermore, although, it can be assumed that the sample of this empirical study was normal distributed because of the large sample ($N = 202$), the sample may not be representative for the population under investigation. Compared to the statistics of Statistik Austria (2014b), women were overrepresented in this analysis. Furthermore, people with lower education were underrepresented. That may be explained by the fact that the distribution of the link to the questionnaire started in university environment. In addition, the variables measuring the perceived trust and the individual work performance were negatively skewed. Thus, it cannot be inferred that the sampling distribution is normal. But that problem was overcome by the use of the bootstrap method because with this procedure the sampling distribution can be estimated.

Another limitation of this study is that the variables that were used are multidimensional constructs and the measurement of each was restricted to several scales that were not able to capture the complete concept. Reason for that is that for the empirical study a compromise was made between the acquisition of the variables as complete as possible and an acceptable length of the questionnaire. When considering the flexibility of the working arrangement, contract flexibility was measured with only one variable. In that way, it was only measured if the respondent did have a flexible work contract, but the participants were not able to state if they actually prefer the contract, flexible or not, that they have. So, a distinction between people who have voluntarily flexible contracts and those that have not may lead to more significant results. In addition, the scales that measured the level of trust did not gather a complete picture of trust perceived by the individual. The characteristics of the respondents, respective trustor, were not questioned. But they may influence the level of trust significantly because they determine the general willingness to trust others. Furthermore in the analyses only variables that measured trust in other individuals were used. Another interesting aspect might be as well system trust, which was measured with three items. But this scale was excluded from the analysis because of the results of the factor analysis. In addition, the scales of the individual work performance did

not question counterproductive work behaviour. As it was identified as an important dimension of the work performance, it might be worth to include it in the analysis.

From this discussion, some implications for future research can be derived. This empirical study has shown the importance to make a distinction between the possibilities of the employee and the requirements from the organization respective the employer when measuring the flexibility of the working arrangement. There was the clear tendency that possibilities of the employee did have a positive impact, whereas the requirements did have a negative effect on the individual work performance. Reason for that might be that the possibilities may enable employees to optimize their work performance while requirements may restrict them. Independently of that, both are necessarily measured for conclusive results. Another important point that needs to be addressed is that there is no appropriate way yet to measure system trust because, to my knowledge, there is no approach in literature that is sufficient empirically tested. And the results of the empirical study of this work did show that the developed scale was not able to capture system trust adequately.

From the practical perspective, the results stress the importance of high levels of trust within organizations. More precisely, the level of trust in superior did have a positive effect on all dimensions of the individual work performance, whereas trust in colleagues did have no effect. Therefore, managers should try to establish a trusting relationship to their subordinates because, as a consequence, a higher individual work performance of the employees can be expected. Compared to that, flexibility of the working arrangements seemed to play a tangential role. Only possibilities of time flexibility did have a positive impact on the employees' task performance. Thus, managers should grant greater time autonomy to their employees to improve their performance. On the contrary, requirements on time flexibility did have a negative effect on task performance. Therefore, managers must ensure that restrictions of the job on the employees according to time flexibility are not too strict, as this might have a negative influence on the individual work performance. Considering now the outcome of the moderation analyses, requirements on time and spatial flexibility did have a negative effect on the link between trust and extra role behaviour. That means for the practice that the positive effect of a high trusting relationship is reduced if the job has many restrictions for the employees. So for managers it is important to know that the level of trust is more important when employees have low requirements on time and spatial flexibility, but less important with high requirements. In contrast, possibilities of spatial flexibility did strengthen the relationship between trust, and quality and quantity of the work performance. Hence, if employees have jobs with high possibilities of spatial flexibility, managers should place particular importance on their relationship to increase their performance. So summing it up, managers should try to establish a high trusting relationship with their employees for an improved performance. In addition, they should increase the possibilities of and decrease requirements on flexibility of the working arrangements for an optimal individual work performance of the employees.

Questionnaire

Sehr geehrte Damen und Herren!

Im Rahmen meines Studiums „Business Informatics“ an der Technischen Universität Wien beschäftigt sich meine Diplomarbeit mit dem Thema **flexibles Arbeiten**. Es freut mich sehr, dass Sie mich dabei unterstützen und die folgenden Fragen zu Ihrer Arbeit beantworten.

Die Umfrage wird ca. 10 Minuten Ihrer Zeit in Anspruch nehmen. Bitte beachten Sie, dass ich Ihren Fragebogen nur dann verwerten kann, wenn Sie **alle Fragen beantworten**. Selbstverständlich bleiben Sie bei Ihrer Teilnahme vollkommen **anonym**.

Wenn Sie an den Ergebnissen dieser Studie interessiert sind, finden Sie auf der letzten Seite eine Option, Ihre Kontaktdaten anzuführen. Ich werde Ihnen in diesem Fall eine Zusammenfassung zukommen lassen.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme,

Anja Fiby

Dear Madam or Sir!

In the course of my studies “Business Informatics” at the Vienna University of Technology my diploma thesis is about the topic **flexible working**. I am very pleased that you support me by answering the following questions about your work.

The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes. Please note that I can utilize your questionnaire only if you **answer all questions**. Of course, your participation is completely **anonymous**.

If you are interested in the results of this study, you can specify your contact data on the last page. In this case I will send you a written summary.

Thank you very much for your participation,

Anja Fiby

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit Ihrer Arbeit im Allgemeinen? Kunin-Skala	How satisfied are you with your work in general? Kunin scale
Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala	Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale
Ich identifiziere mich mit dem Unternehmen, in dem ich arbeite.	I identify myself with the organization I am working in.
Ich bin stolz, hier zu arbeiten.	I am proud to work here.
Ich arbeite gern in diesem Unternehmen.	I like working in this organization.
Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala	Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale
Die Unternehmenskultur ermöglicht einen vertrauensvollen Umgang miteinander.	The organizational culture enables relationship of trust and confidence among employees.
Es wird darauf vertraut, dass meine Aufzeichnungen (z.B.: Arbeitszeiten, Spesenabrechnungen) korrekt sind.	It is relied on that my records (e.g. working time, expense report) are correct.
Es wird darauf vertraut, dass ich meine Arbeit gut mache.	It is relied on that I do my work well.

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala	Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale
Die MitarbeiterInnen werden hier für die geleistete Arbeit angemessen bezahlt.	The employees are paid adequately for their work.
Befördert werden diejenigen MitarbeiterInnen, die es am meisten verdienen.	Those employees are promoted, who deserve it most.
Jede/r hat hier die Möglichkeit, Aufmerksamkeit und Anerkennung zu bekommen.	Everyone has the chance to get attention and recognition.
Ich werde hier unabhängig von meiner Position als vollwertiges Mitglied behandelt.	I am treated as full member, independently from my position.
Die Führungskräfte vermeiden die Bevorzugung einzelner MitarbeiterInnen.	Management avoids preference of individual employees.
Wenn ich ungerecht behandelt werde und mich beschwere, bin ich überzeugt, dass damit fair umgegangen wird.	If I am treated unjustly and I complain, I am convinced that it is handled fair.
Es gibt viele ungeschriebene Regeln der Zusammenarbeit in meinem Arbeitsbereich.	There are many unwritten rules for cooperation in my work area.
Wenn MitarbeiterInnen wichtige ungeschriebene Regeln der Zusammenarbeit verletzen, dann wird das Verhalten durch Gruppendruck sanktioniert.	If employees break important unwritten rules for cooperation, the behaviour is sanctioned by peer pressure.
Bei uns wird darauf geachtet, dass jede/r seinen fairen Anteil beiträgt.	It is ensured that everyone contributes its faire share.

Question and <i>respond option</i>	Question and <i>respond option</i>
Sind Sie bei der Arbeit einem/r Vorgesetzten unterstellt?	Do you have a superior at work?
<i>Nein</i>	<i>no</i>
<i>Ja</i>	<i>yes</i>
Arbeiten Sie mit anderen MitarbeiterInnen zusammen bzw. haben Sie KollegInnen?	Do you cooperate with other employees respectively do you have colleagues?
<i>Nein</i>	<i>no</i>
<i>Ja</i>	<i>yes</i>

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
<p>Bitte denken Sie an Ihre KollegInnen, wenn Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu beantworten. 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>Ich kann mich darauf verlassen, dass mir meine KollegInnen helfen, wenn ich bei meiner Arbeit Schwierigkeiten habe.</p> <p>Wenn ich mit meinen KollegInnen über ein Problem spreche, bekomme ich eine ehrliche und konstruktive Antwort.</p> <p>Meine KollegInnen arbeiten professionell und engagiert.</p> <p>Meine KollegInnen haben das Wissen und die Fähigkeiten, um ihre Aufgaben zu erfüllen.</p> <p>Ich kann mich darauf verlassen, dass meine KollegInnen ihr Wort halten und entsprechend handeln.</p> <p>Meine KollegInnen sind mir gegenüber offen und ehrlich, auch wenn die Wahrheit unangenehm ist.</p>	<p>Please think about your colleagues when answering the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>I can count on my colleagues to help me if I have difficulties with my job.</p> <p>If I share my problems with my colleagues, I know that they would respond constructively and caringly.</p> <p>My colleagues approach their jobs with professionalism and dedication.</p> <p>My colleagues have the knowledge and skills to do their work.</p> <p>My colleagues will keep the promises they make and take actions that are consistent with their words.</p> <p>My colleagues are open and upfront with me, even if the truth is unpleasant.</p>
<p>Ich bin bereit... 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>...mich auf das Urteil meiner KollegInnen zu verlassen.</p> <p>...mich auf die aufgabenbezogenen Fähigkeiten meiner KollegInnen zu verlassen.</p> <p>...mich auf meine KollegInnen zu verlassen, dass sie meine Arbeit vor anderen richtig darstellen.</p> <p>...mich auf meine KollegInnen zu verlassen, dass sie mich in schwierigen Situationen unterstützen.</p> <p>...mich meinen KollegInnen über persönliche Angelegenheiten, die sich auf meine Arbeit auswirken, anzuvertrauen.</p> <p>...arbeitsbezogene Probleme und Schwierigkeiten, die mich möglicherweise benachteiligen, mit meinen KollegInnen zu besprechen.</p>	<p>I am willing to... 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>...rely on my colleagues' work-related judgements.</p> <p>...rely on my colleagues' task-related skills and abilities.</p> <p>...rely on my colleagues to represent my work accurately to others.</p> <p>...depend on my colleagues to back me up in difficult situations.</p> <p>...confide in my colleagues about personal issues that are affecting my work.</p> <p>...discuss work-related problems or difficulties with my colleagues that could potentially be used to disadvantage me.</p>

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
<p>Bitte denken Sie an Ihre/n Vorgesetzte/n, wenn Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu beantworten. 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r hat im Allgemeinen gute Absichten.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r sorgt sich um mein persönliches Wohlergehen.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r zeigt gutes Urteilsvermögen bei seinen/ihren Entscheidungen.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r hat das Wissen und die Fähigkeiten um seine/ihre Aufgaben zu erfüllen.</p> <p>Ich kann mich darauf verlassen, dass mein/e Vorgesetzte/r sein/ihr Wort hält und entsprechend handelt.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r ist mir gegenüber offen und ehrlich, auch wenn die Wahrheit unangenehm ist.</p>	<p>Please think about your superior when answering the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>In general, I believe my superior's motives and intentions are good.</p> <p>My superior is concerned about my personal well-being.</p> <p>My superior shows good judgement when making decisions about the job.</p> <p>My superior has the knowledge and skills to do his/her work.</p> <p>My superior will keep the promises he/she makes and takes actions that are consistent with his/her words.</p> <p>My superior is open and upfront with me, even if the truth is unpleasant.</p>
<p>Ich bin bereit... 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>...mich auf das Urteil meines/r Vorgesetzten zu verlassen.</p> <p>...mich auf die aufgabenbezogenen Fähigkeiten meines/r Vorgesetzten zu verlassen.</p> <p>...mich auf meine/n Vorgesetzte/n zu verlassen, dass er/sie meine Arbeit vor anderen richtig darstellt.</p> <p>...mich auf meine/n Vorgesetzte/n zu verlassen, dass er/sie mich in schwierigen Situationen unterstützt.</p> <p>...mich meinem/r Vorgesetzten über persönliche Angelegenheiten, die sich auf meine Arbeit auswirken, anzuvertrauen.</p> <p>...arbeitsbezogene Probleme und Schwierigkeiten, die mich möglicherweise benachteiligen, mit meinem/r Vorgesetzten zu besprechen.</p>	<p>I am willing to... 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>...rely on my superior's work-related judgements.</p> <p>...rely on my superior's task-related skills and abilities.</p> <p>...rely on my superior to represent my work accurately to others.</p> <p>...depend on my superior to back me up in difficult situations.</p> <p>...confide in my superior about personal issues that are affecting my work.</p> <p>...discuss work-related problems or difficulties with my superior that could potentially be used to disadvantage me.</p>

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
<p>Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>Ich fühle mich durch meine/n Vorgesetzte/n kontrolliert.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r kontrolliert permanent meine Arbeitsfortschritte.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r überprüft regelmäßig wie ich meine Arbeit verrichte.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r gibt mir klar messbare Leistungsziele.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r evaluiert regelmäßig die Erreichung meiner Leistungsziele.</p> <p>Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r bespricht regelmäßig den Fortschritt meiner Zielerreichung mit mir.</p>	<p>Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>I feel controlled by my superior.</p> <p>My superior controls my work progress permanently.</p> <p>My superior checks regularly how I do my work.</p> <p>My superior gives me clear measurable performance targets.</p> <p>My superior evaluates regularly the achievement of my performance targets.</p> <p>My superior discusses regularly the progress of the achievement of performance targets with me.</p>
<p>Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>Zielerreichung wird belohnt.</p> <p>Wenn Ziele nicht erreicht werden, dann hat das Konsequenzen.</p> <p>Dauerhaftes Fehlverhalten wird nicht toleriert.</p>	<p>Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>Achievement of objectives is rewarded.</p> <p>If objectives are not achieved, then it has consequences.</p> <p>Permanent misbehaviour is not tolerated.</p>

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
<p>Bitte überlegen Sie sich, wie Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r zu Ihnen steht. Es geht dabei um Ihre persönliche Einschätzung. Mein/e Vorgesetzte/r ist der Meinung, dass ich... 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>... im Allgemeinen gute Absichten habe.</p> <p>... gutes Urteilsvermögen bei meinen Entscheidungen zeige.</p> <p>... das Wissen und die Fähigkeiten habe, um meine Aufgaben zu erfüllen.</p> <p>... mein Wort halte und entsprechend handle.</p>	<p>Please think about your superior and your relationship with him/her. This is only about your personal view. My superior believes that... 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>...my motives and intentions are, in general, good.</p> <p>...I show good judgement when making decisions.</p> <p>...I have the knowledge and skills to do my work.</p> <p>...I will keep the promises that I make and take actions that are consistent with my words.</p>
<p>Ich bin der Ansicht, dass mein/e Vorgesetzte/r bereit ist... 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>... sich auf mein Urteil zu verlassen.</p> <p>... sich auf mich zu verlassen, dass ich ihn/sie in schwierigen Situationen unterstütze.</p> <p>... mir persönliche Angelegenheiten, die sich auf die Arbeit auswirken, anzuvertrauen.</p> <p>... arbeitsbezogene Probleme und Schwierigkeiten, die ihn/sie möglicherweise benachteiligen, zu besprechen.</p>	<p>I believe that my superior is willing to... 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>...rely on my work-related judgements.</p> <p>...depend on me to back him/her up in difficult situations.</p> <p>...confide in me about personal issues that are affecting his/her work.</p> <p>...discuss work-related problems or difficulties with me that could potentially be used to disadvantage him/her</p>

Question and <i>respond option</i>	Question and <i>respond option</i>
Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von ungenügend bis sehr gut. <i>ungenügend - sehr gut</i>	Please answer the following questions on a scale from insufficient to very good. <i>insufficient - very good</i>
Wie bewerten Sie die Qualität Ihrer Arbeit in den letzten 3 Monaten?	How do you rate the quality of your own work in the past three months?
Wie beurteilen Sie das Ausmaß der Arbeit, das Sie in den letzten 3 Monaten geschafft haben?	How do you rate the quantity of your own work in the past three months?
Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. <i>7-Punkt Likert Skala</i>	Please answer the following questions on a scale from disagree to agree. <i>7-point Likert scale</i>
Ich kann meine Arbeit so planen, dass ich fristgerecht fertig bin.	I can manage to plan my work so that it is done on time.
Ich arbeite selbstständig auf die Ergebnisse hin.	I work towards the end results of my work.
Ich kann in der Arbeit selbstständig Prioritäten setzen.	I can set priorities in my work.
Ich kann in der Arbeit Hauptprobleme von Nebenproblemen trennen.	I am able to separate main issues from side issues at work.
Ich kann meine Arbeit mit minimalem Aufwand/Anstrengungen leisten.	I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort.
Ich brauche oft kürzer als vorgesehen für meine Arbeitsaufgaben.	It takes me often shorter to complete my work tasks than intended

<i>Question and respond option</i>	<i>Question and respond option</i>
Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala	Please answer the following questions on a scale from disagree to agree. 7-point Likert scale
Ich bin bereit meinen KollegInnen zu helfen.	I am ready to help or lend a helping hand to my colleagues.
Ich helfe neuen KollegInnen sich einzugewöhnen, auch wenn ich nicht dazu verpflichtet bin.	I help new colleagues settle in, even though it is not required
Ich arbeite daran, mein berufliches Wissen und meine Fähigkeiten auf dem neuesten Stand zu halten.	I work at keeping my job knowledge and skills up-to-date
Ich teile mein Wissen und meine Erfahrungen, die ich in früheren Beschäftigungsverhältnissen gesammelt habe, mit meinen KollegInnen.	In my work team I have passed on knowledge and experiences from the past that only I knew
Ich ergreife die Initiative, wenn es ein Problem zu lösen gibt.	I take the initiative when there is a problem to be solved
Ich lasse mir kreative Ideen/Lösungswege einfallen, um Verbesserungen bei meiner Arbeit zu erreichen.	I come up with creative ideas at work in order to achieve improvements at work.

Question and <i>respond option</i>	Question and <i>respond option</i>
<p>Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen auf einer Skala von trifft überhaupt nicht zu bis trifft völlig zu. 7-Punkt Likert Skala</p> <p>Ich habe das Gefühl, das ist MEIN Job.</p> <p>Ich investiere sehr viel von mir in meinen Job.</p> <p>Ich empfinde diesen Job als MEINEN Job und nicht nur als EINEN Job.</p>	<p>Please answer the following questions on a scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. 7-point Likert scale</p> <p>I have the feeling that this is MY job.</p> <p>I invest a lot of me in my job.</p> <p>I sense this job as MY job and not as A job.</p>

Question and <i>respond option</i>	Question and <i>respond option</i>
Arbeitszeit <i>Vollzeit</i> <i>Teilzeit</i> <i>geringfügig</i>	Number of hours worked <i>full-time</i> <i>part-time</i> <i>minor employment</i>
Wie viele Wochenarbeitsstunden sind in Ihrem Arbeitsvertrag definiert? __ <i>Stunden</i>	How many hours do you have to work per week according to your contract? __ <i>hours</i>
Wie viele Stunden arbeiten Sie im Durchschnitt tatsächlich pro Woche (inkl. Überstunden)? __ <i>Stunden</i>	How many hours do you actually work per week (incl. overtime)? __ <i>hours</i>
Wird Mehrarbeit (Überstunden) abgegolten? <i>nein</i> <i>ja</i>	Is overtime compensated? <i>no</i> <i>yes</i>
An wie vielen Tagen pro Woche arbeiten Sie normalerweise? 1 - 7	How many days do you work per week? 1 - 7
Inwiefern sind Ihre Arbeitszeiten vorgegeben? <i>fix vorgegebene Arbeitszeit</i> <i>Gleitzeit mit Kernzeit</i> <i>Gleitzeit</i>	How far is your working time specified? <i>fixed working hour</i> <i>flextime with core hours</i> <i>flextime</i>

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
Bitte geben Sie an, wie häufig Sie an folgenden Orten arbeiten. <i>nie - täglich</i>	Please specify how often you work at the following places. <i>never - daily</i>
Am eigenen Arbeitsplatz im Büro	In the own workplace at the office
Nicht am eigenen Arbeitsplatz im Büro, aber innerhalb des Bürogebäudes	Not at the own workplace at the own office, but within the office building
In anderen Bürogebäuden (an externen Standorten, bei KundInnen etc.)	In other office buildings (at external locations, on customers location, etc.)
In CoWorkingSpaces (geteilte Büros, z.B.: the HUB Vienna)	In CoWorkingSpaces (shared offices, e.g. the HUB Vienna)
Unterwegs (im Zug, Flugzeug etc.)	On the way (train, airplane, etc.)
Zu Hause	At home
An anderen Orten (Kaffeehaus, Hotel, im Park, etc.)	At other places (coffee house, hotel, park, etc.)

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
Ich habe die Möglichkeit... <i>nie - immer</i> ... mir meine Arbeitswoche selbst einzuteilen. ...meine täglichen Arbeitszeiten frei zu wählen. ...mir ein paar Stunden frei zu nehmen. ...mir selbst einzuteilen, wo ich meine Aufgaben erledige. ...meine Arbeit von zu Hause, anstatt meines herkömmlichen Arbeitsplatzes zu erledigen. ...auch bei Besprechungen nicht körperlich anwesend zu sein (Telefonkonferenz, Videotelefonie, etc.).	I have the opportunity... <i>never - always</i> ...to arrange my weekly working hours by myself. ...to choose my daily working hours freely. ...to take some hours off. ...to decide by myself where I perform a task. ...to work from home instead of working at my usual working place. ...to be not physically present during meetings (telephone conference, video telephony, etc.).
Meine Arbeit erfordert von mir... <i>nie - immer</i> ... in Bezug auf meine Arbeitszeit flexibel zu sein. ... Überstunden zu machen. ... auch außerhalb der üblichen Arbeitszeiten zu arbeiten z.B.: am Abend, in der Nacht oder an den Wochenenden. ... an unterschiedlichen Orten zu arbeiten. ... für gewisse Arbeiten ins Büro zu fahren. ... unterwegs bei AuftraggeberInnen/KundInnen zu arbeiten.	My job requires me... <i>never - always</i> ...to be flexible in terms of working hours. ...to work overtime. ...to work also beyond usual working hours e.g. in the evening, at night or at weekends. ...to work at different places. ...to go to the office for certain tasks. ...to work mobile at the clients' office.

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
Wie viele Jahre sind Sie schon in diesem Unternehmen tätig? Wenn Sie weniger als ein Jahr in dem Unternehmen tätig sind, geben Sie bitte 1 Jahr an. __ Jahre	How many years are you working in this organization? If you work less than one year in this organization please enter 1 year. __ years
Art des Arbeitsverhältnisses <i>selbstständig</i> <i>unbefristete/r ArbeitnehmerIn</i> <i>befristete/r ArbeitnehmerIn</i> <i>freier Dienstvertrag</i> <i>Werkvertrag</i> <i>angestellt über eine Personalleasingfirma</i>	type of employment contract <i>self-employed</i> <i>permanent contract</i> <i>fixed-term contract</i> <i>freelance contract</i> <i>contract for work and labour</i> <i>contract with employment agency</i>
Wenn Sie ein befristetes Arbeitsverhältnis haben, auf wie viele Monate oder Jahre ist der Vertrag befristet? __ Monate, oder __ Jahre	If you have a fixed-term contract, on how many months or years is the contract limited? __ months, or __ years
Üben Sie eine leitende Funktion aus bzw. sind Ihnen andere MitarbeiterInnen unterstellt? (Führungskraft) <i>nein</i> <i>ja</i>	Are you in a leading position respectively are employees under your responsibility? (Manager) <i>no</i> <i>yes</i>
Welches Geschlecht hat Ihr/e Vorgesetzte/r? <i>männlich</i> <i>weiblich</i>	What is the gender of your superior? <i>male</i> <i>female</i>

Question and respond option	Question and respond option
In welcher Branche sind Sie tätig?	In which economic sector do you work?
<i>Land- und Forstwirtschaft, Fischerei</i>	<i>agriculture, forestry and fishing</i>
<i>Bergbau und Gewinnung von Steinen und Erden</i>	<i>mining and quarrying</i>
<i>Verarbeitendes Gewerbe (Herstellung von Waren)</i>	<i>manufacturing</i>
<i>Energieversorgung</i>	<i>electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply</i>
<i>Wasserversorgung, Abwasser- und Abfallentsorgung und Beseitigung von Umweltverschmutzungen</i>	<i>water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities</i>
<i>Baugewerbe</i>	<i>construction</i>
<i>Handel, Instandhaltung und Reparatur von Fahrzeugen</i>	<i>wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles</i>
<i>Verkehr und Lagerei</i>	<i>transportation and storage</i>
<i>Gastgewerbe (Beherbergung und Gastronomie)</i>	<i>accommodation and food service activities</i>
<i>Erbringung von Finanz- und Versicherungsdienstleistungen</i>	<i>financial and insurance activities</i>
<i>Grundstücks- und Wohnungswesen</i>	<i>real estate activities</i>
<i>Information und Kommunikation (IT)</i>	<i>information and communication</i>
<i>Erbringung von freiberuflichen, wissenschaftlichen und technischen Dienstleistungen</i>	<i>professional, scientific and technical activities</i>
<i>Erbringung von sonstigen wirtschaftlichen Dienstleistungen</i>	<i>administrative and support service activities</i>
<i>Öffentliche Verwaltung, Verteidigung, Sozialversicherung</i>	<i>public administration and defence, compulsory social security</i>
<i>Erziehung und Unterricht</i>	<i>education</i>
<i>Gesundheits- und Sozialwesen</i>	<i>human health and social work activities</i>
<i>Kunst, Unterhaltung und Erholung</i>	<i>arts, entertainment and recreation</i>
<i>Erbringung von sonstigen Dienstleistungen</i>	<i>other service activities</i>
<i>Exterritoriale Organisationen und Körperschaften</i>	<i>activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies</i>

Question and <i>respond option</i>	Question and <i>respond option</i>
Wie häufig nutzen Sie folgende Technologien für Ihre Arbeit? <i>nie - mehrmals täglich</i>	How often do you use the following technologies for work? <i>never</i> <i>- several times daily</i>
PC/Workstation	pc/workstation
Laptop/Notebook	laptop/Notebook
Tablet	tablet
Mobiltelefon/Smartphone	mobile phone/smartphone
Festnetztelefon	landline phone
Telefonie (via Festnetztelefon, Mobiltelefon, Computer, etc.)	telephony (via landline phone, mobile phone, computer, etc.)
SMS/MMS	SMS/MMS
E-Mail	email
Chat/Nachrichtendienste (Skype, Lync, WhatsApp, etc.)	chat/message services (Skype, Lync, WhatsApp, etc.)
Soziale Netzwerke (Facebook, Xing, etc.)	social networks (Facebook, Xing, etc.)
Foren, Blogs und Wikis	forums, blogs und wikis

Question and <i>respond option</i>	Question and <i>respond option</i>
Alter __ Jahre	Age __ years
Geschlecht männlich weiblich	Gender male female
Höchste abgeschlossene Ausbildung Pflichtschule Lehrabschluss Fachschule Matura Universität/Fachhochschule	Highest completed level of education compulsory school apprenticeship technical school school leaving examination university
Wenn Sie an den Ergebnissen dieser Studie interessiert sind, geben Sie bitte Ihre Emailadresse hier ein. In diesem Fall bekommen Sie eine Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse zugesendet. E-Mail: __	If you are interested in the results of this study, please enter your email address here. In this case I will send you a written summary. email: __

Table A.1: Complete questionnaire

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