European Master in Business Studies

How does Telework Impact Job Satisfaction of Teleworkers from Generation Z?

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Abstract

Title: How does Telework Impact Job Satisfaction of Teleworkers from Generation Z?

Introduction: Teleworking is an ever-increasing phenomena in the workplace, especially after the Covid-19 pandemic, and with the constant entry of workers from Generation Z, which is the first digital generation, it is necessary to investigate how this working model influences their life.

Purpose: The aim of this study is to further investigate the relationship between teleworking and job satisfaction focusing on Generation Z.

Methodology: A quantitative research will be conducted through a self-administrated online questionnaire. The target group selected for this study is employees from Generation Z who teleworked in the last year, since they have experienced this type of working model.

Contributions: this study aims to contribute to existing teleworking research by analysing specifically Z-Gen's job satisfaction and to give HR managers an empirical point of view of telework perception of young employees.

Keywords: telework, job satisfaction, generation z, work-life balance, remote working

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List of Abbreviation

ACS: American Community Survey

GWA: Global Workplace Analytics

ILO: International Labour Organization

PLS: Partial least squares

SEM: Structural equation modeling

WLB: Work-Life Balance

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1. Introduction

1.1　Background

In the last decades, the role of teleworking in companies has increased exponentially, despite the very low start way below the expectations (Torten et al., 2016), indeed the number of people who work from home has increased by more than 170% since 2005 (Global Workplace Analytics' analysis of 2018 ACS data). Moreover, due to the pandemic occurred in the first half of 2020, almost 40% of employees currently working in the EU started to perform their job through teleworking (Eurofound, 2020), and 77% of the world's workforce want to keep this modality also after the end of the pandemic (Global Workplace analytics). In addition to that, Kate Lister, president of GWA, said that their estimated workforce working from home multiple times per week in 2021 will be between 25% and 30%.

At the same time, Generation Z is the first digital generation entering the labour market and it will cause the biggest generational shift the workplace has ever seen (Kapil & Roy, 2014). In fact, forecasts claimed that in 2020 Z-Gen would have made up almost one quarter of the global workforce (Statista, 2019). People from this cohort were born with Internet and are used to be very skilled and practical when talking about technology, as a matter of fact it is a priority for them to be surrounded by a technological environment (Bencsik et al., 2016). This natural predisposition may affect their job, and when coming to teleworking they could learn faster and be more efficient than their colleagues, especially because they are moved by their motivational drivers like flexibility and autonomy (Bascha, 2011; Seitz, 2018).

The main studies on teleworking analyse the pros and cons in adopting that tool (e.g. Tremblay et al., 2006; Pyöriä, 2011; Golden & Veiga, 2005), aiming to find positive and negative impacts on, among the others, work-life balance and job satisfaction (Smith et al., 2018). Those that instead do focus mainly on the differences in the working values and behaviours are mostly empirical, or theoretical but based on other previous empirical studies (Gaidhani et al., 2019). The biggest problem is that in both media and academic literature two contradictory images of teleworking exist: the easiest integration of paid work

and family and the negative intrusions on work in home and excessive workload (Song & Gao, 2019). Of course, having a positive rather than a negative result as an outcome of a study can be due to the different structure and approach of the research, therefore another limitation of the past studies is that only few of them are objective or focus on both positive and negative aspects of telework (e.g. Shagvaliyeva & Yazdanifard, 2014), as many focus just on the benefits (e.g. Fonner & Roloff, 2010) or on the drawbacks (e.g. Mann & Holdsworth, 2003).

1.2   Problem Statement

Studies combining telework and generation Z are instead scarce (Nicholas & Guzman, 2009; Arar & Yüksel, 2015; Kick et al., 2015) or with serious limitations, as the few studies conducted are very recent and either qualitative (e.g. Fratrièová & Kirchmayer, 2018; Kick et al., 2015) or quantitative but with a very low number of respondents (e.g. Nicholas & Guzman, 2009; Seitz, 2018). For this reason, in almost all of them, it is possible to find among the limitations and the advices future researches respectively the repetition of the study, but through a quantitative approach, or the replication of the survey, but with a bigger sample and, eventually, with different or additional discriminants, which can be among the others nationality, gender or even company sector (Nicholas & Guzman, 2009; Seitz, 2018; Persada et al., 2019). Regarding instead Generation Z in the workplace, apart from the studies cited in the previous paragraph, it is possible to find analysis regarding teamwork (Kutlák, 2019), how their reliance in the digital communication would affect relationships (Kick et al., 2015), how to manage them in business life (Arar & Yüksel, 2015), personality traits (Marhadi & Hendarman, 2020), work flexibility (Stankiewicz-Mróz, 2020) and intangible incentives (Seitz, 2018). Similar studies have been addressed for many years to Generation Y, hence it is possible to find studies focused on their values (e.g. Valentine & Powers, 2013), their characteristics (e.g. Morton, 2002), attitudes (e.g. Armour, 2005), but especially on the possible ways to manage them in the workplace (e.g. Eisner, 2005; Sheahan, 2005; McCrindle, 2003) and the differences with the previous generations in the workplace (e.g. Jorgensen, 2003; Macky et al., 2008a; Macky et al., 2008b; Dries et al., 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Wong et al., 2008). Moreover, as it has been done for Generation Z,

studies related to Generation Y, or Millenials as they are also called, also claimed that was the biggest cohort at the time (Ma & Niehm, 2006; Valentine & Powers, 2013), which is why it is even more important to understand now Generation Z.

1.3   Purpose of the Study

The research aims first to fill the gap of past studies regarding teleworkers from GenZ and secondly to evidence the possible issues and opportunities that companies may have in the following years with the entrance of Generation Z in the workforce and the ever-increasing use of teleworking, as well as give some ideas on how to manage and combine them. As these new workers are the future of companies, knowing this and also how to valorise them, depending on their characteristics would be very useful for managers and employers, especially for those that will specifically make large use of teleworking (Gaidhani et al., 2019; Seitz, 2018). Lastly, this study may put some basis for the developing of personnel policies towards Z-Gen (Stankiewicz-Mróz, 2020).

1.4   Research Question

To understand how Generation Z teleworkers' life is and will be affected by the increasing use of teleworking when they will enter in the labour market, we will analyse their job satisfaction and their work-life balance with an adapted model of job satisfaction.

1.5   Exposé Structure

The structure of this study is as follows: it will first discuss the topics considered, giving as well an overview of the academical research addressing them, then the hypothesis will be explained together with their justifications and the model used to confirm them. Going on the definition of the constructs that form the model will be given, a literature table will be drafted, and the methodology and the data analysis and collection procedures will follow. Finally, after the expected contributions, the structure of the thesis' chapters and the workplan with the expected timetable will conclude the exposé.

2. Theoretical Framework

In this section, the main concepts will be explained, through a brief literature review of the historical evolution of the meaning attributed to the concept and the definition that will be used for the study. These concepts will be, in order, Generation Z, telework and job satisfaction.

2.1 Generation Z

A lot of definitions of Generation Z have been given in the last years, and all of them refer to the birthyear. There are scholars that give as starting year 1990 (Half, 2015; Addor, 2011) and others that give a broader range, which can be subject to personal interpretation, as they claim that people from this generation were born between the early 1990s and the early 2000s (Kapil & Roy, 2014; Levickaité, 2010; Pozzulo et al., 2013). Going on, it is possible to find other studies that give only a starting year, which can be 1995 (Persada et al., 2019; Cilliers, 2017; Adecco, 2015), 1996 (Gaidhani et al., 2019) or even 2000 (Bennett et al., 2012). Some other definitions state a full range, and in this case we have many variants as well, like for instance 1995-2010 (Zemke et al., 2000; DeVaney, 2015), 1996-2013 (Bernstein, 2015; Scott, 2016), 1997-2005 (Havlíček et al., 2018) and 1997-2010 (Dimock, 2019). Even in dictionaries and in statistic and research centres there are many different points of view on this topic: Oxford English Dictionary (www.lexico.com) defines it as the generation that will reach adulthood in the second decade of the 21st century, while the Merriam-Webster (www.merriam-webster.com) describes it instead as the generation born in the late 90s and early 2000s. As we can see these definitions are similar but most of all are interpretable in different ways from subject to subject. This is not the case in the majority of the other definitions that we saw and of many others, like the one of Statistics Canada (www12.statcan.gc.ca), which set the range of birthyear for Generation Z between 1993 and 2011, and of Deloitte (Gomez et al., 2018), from 1995 to 2012. In many articles published by the Pew Research Center, authors decided to use 1997 as first year of this range (Dimock, 2019; Parker & Igielnik, 2020), as it has been done on many journals, as for example the Wall Street Journal (Adamy, 2018). Because of the absence of a socially accepted definition of Generation Z, we will consider as from this generation all those people born from 1995,

because in this way the sample will comprehend people up to 25 years old and therefore enough people to have reliable data.

Generation Z has some similarities, of course, but different approaches and expectations on the working life compared to the previous generations (Persada et al., 2019; Dick, 2019). In particular, they differ from previous cohorts in terms of attitudes towards work and values (Gaidhani et al., 2019), work motives (Fratrièová, 2018), personal and professional expectations (Grow & Yang, 2018) and priorities in their working environment (Seitz, 2018), which is why researchers aim to understand their unique characteristics as there is little research on the topic (Fratrièová & Kirchmayer, 2018) and further studies are needed to fully understand this generation (Arar & Yüksel, 2015). Since Gen Z started very recently to enter in the workplace, studies addressed to it are mainly focused on the differences and similarities with the other generations (Lyons et al., 2015; Cucina et al, 2018) and on specific characteristics that distinguish people from this generation from the others (Singh & Dangmei, 2016).

2.2   Telework

Regarding teleworking, we can find a similar situation of the previous one, if not worse. Indeed, this is one of the major forms of new modes of work which will be established in the Information Society (Soete, 1996), but exactly because it is continuously evolving its definition is constantly changing as well, and people use different words with a completely different meanings as synonyms or give to the term an own meaning. A very broad definition of telework is "work performed at home" (Shin et al, 2000), as well as "one kind of remote working, or doing normal work activities while away from one's normal workplace" (Grant, 1985, p. 25). We can notice that despite many years of research, there is no "official" definition of teleworking (Moon & Stanworth, 1997) and it has been demonstrated that the existing definitions are neither coincident nor complete (Lamond et al., 1997). Moreover, attempting a definition that scholars, managers, and others will all agree is unlikely (Blount, 2015). After this confutative study, a definition that was more detailed, but still very general at the same time, has been developed: "the term 'telework' or 'teleworking' refers to a work flexibility arrangement under which an employee performs the duties and responsibilities of

such employee's position, and other authorized activities, from an approved worksite other than the location from which the employee would otherwise work" (Telework Enhancement Act, 2010, para. 6501).

This definition is probably the most adaptable to the different types of teleworking that exists, indeed, as aforementioned, with the time diverse types of teleworking have been developed, and in the literature we can find different interpretations, grouping and distinctions of them. In fact, four dimensions can be individuated from all the existing definitions: (1) work location, (2) information and communication technologies, (3) locational time distribution and (4) contractual relationship (Garrett et al., 2007). Since researches almost never consider all of them because of the difficulty of the analysis that follows and especially of the problems related with the design of a model and of a questionnaire that can assess all four of them, we will as well distinguish the respondents of the survey depending on just two aspects: work location and locational time distribution. With this, we mean that we will consider the flexibility of the work location, so if the employee can work indifferently at home or in the office or in any other place or if instead he/she must stay in a determined place, and the flexibility of the working schedule. The reason why we choose these two dimension rather than the other two is that the technology is constantly changing and what would be found would probably have a very short-term utility, and the contractual relationship refers to the type of contract of the teleworker, but since the employees we want to target are all working in companies, and we will therefore not consider any self-employed teleworker, this variable is not relevant in the study. Moreover, one of the very important priorities and motivational drivers of generation Z are the flexibility of the schedule and, more in general, of the work itself (Bascha, 2011; Chillakuri & Mahanandia, 2018), which is another reason to choose those two variables over the others.

Many literature reviews regarding telework have been done up to now (e.g. Haddon & Lewis, 1994; Shin et al., 2000; Pinsinneault & Boisvert, 2001; Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Boell et al., 2013) and from them it is possible to see that several telework implications have been assessed and, especially, that now the list of these implications is almost complete (Bailey &

Kurland, 2002) as very few other impacts have been added, such as energy impacts (Hook, 2020). Indeed, within the list it is possible to find both individual and organizational implications, spacing from the legal problems (e.g. Onica-Chipea, 2020) to the potentiality for disabled people as a form of inclusion (e.g. Hesse, 1995; Igeltjørn & Habib, 2020), as well as more classic and visited topics like productivity (e.g. Bosua et al., 2017), performance (e.g. Kazekami, 2020), quality of life (e.g. Vittersø et al, 2003), and work and family conflict (e.g. Madsen, 2005). Going on, it is possible to find also other focuses, different from these previous ones, like sustainable social and individual implications coming from the adoption of telework (e.g. Dima et al, 2019), telework as a recruiter tool (e.g. Miranda, 2020) and, of course, as an important variable for employees' job satisfaction (Suh & Lee, 2017; Ordóñez Parada, 2018; Bellmann & Hübler, 2020).

2.3   Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is also a concept that is not characterized by a general consensus regarding its meaning (Aziri, 2011), and in the following lines the main interpretations will be analysed. It has been first defined as the result of all those aspects related to psycholgy, physiology, and environment, that would lead a person to sincerely claim to be satisfied with his job (Hoppock, 1935). This means that even though job satisfaction is determined by external factors, it is still an internal feeling caused by those factors. (Aziri, 2011). Another definition related to internal feelings can be the affection in relation to the work position covered at the moment (Vroom, 1964), while a very general definition that is often cited (Aziri, 2011) is people's feeling towards their job and its aspects (Spector, 1997), which is very similar to the attitudes and feelings about the work, that if positive can lead to job satisfaction, while if negative to job dissatisfaction (Armstron, 2006), or again to feelings and beliefs (George et al., 2008). These confirm the fact that definitions of job satisfaction are mostly about personal affections and attitudes (Zhu, 2013). Moreover, job satisfaction has also been linked with a sense of accomplishment and success (Kaliski, 2007; Mullins, 2005), which means that performance and satisfaction are strictly connected (Judge et al., 2001). The real difference that can be found in the literature is that this variable can be analysed from a single perspective, considering then only the affection, or from a multiple perspective,

adding the cognition, but the first has been used from the 30s to the 70s and then scholars shifter to the second one (Zhu, 2013). The correlation between satisfaction and motivation has been largely assessed, and as motivation influences productivity and companies' performance, job satisfaction is a very important and complex concept that managers must consider (Aziri, 2011).Regarding instead past studies assessing job satisfaction, it is possible to find analysis focused on many different discriminants, such as countries (e.g. Dias et al. 2013), rather than industries (e.g. Genc & Coskun 2016; Tharu, 2019) and specific jobs (e.g. Brown & Peterson, 1993; Bušatlić & Mujabašić, 2018; Chen et al, 2006; Bagozzi, 1980; Chen et al. 2012). Also, job satisfaction has been associated, besides as aforementioned to job performance, to WLB (e.g. Malik et al., 2010; Mas-Machuca et al., 2016), workload (e.g. Houston et al., 2006; Liu & Lo, 2018) as well as stress (e.g. Fairbrother & Warn, 2003), motivation (e.g. Tietjen & Myers, 1998) and autonomy (e.g. Jiang et al., 2020).

Through years, several different questionnaires have been developed in order to assess job satisfaction, and most of them have some similar constructs and items but many different ones as well. Among the most famous ones it is possible to find Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Job Descriptive Index (Smith, 1969), Global Job Satisfaction (Warr, Cook & Wall, 1979), Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Lawler et al, 1979), Job Satisfaction Index (Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980), Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985), Job in General Scale (Ironson et al, 1989), and many different models have been designed to be more specific depending on the study.

3. Research Hypothesis

A significant number of studies demonstrated the strong connection between the autonomy of employees on the job and their work-life balance (Dima et al., 2019). Indeed, many researches showed that a greater decision latitude, which is a very similar concept to autonomy on the job (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), is positively related to work-family conflict (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). But, we are considering, as said, only the case of employees, as there are several studies as well that showed how self-employed workers have more autonomy on the job (Annink & den Dulk, 2012), but the relationship can be negative (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001), or faded (Loscocco, 1997). Because telework is

considered as a type of job that is offered to enhance autonomy and flexible schedule (Pérez et al., 2002; Morgan, 2004; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Tremblay & Thomsin, 2012), this relationship will be tested in a telework context to confirm what has been demonstrated up to now in previous studies.

From here, the first hypothesis:

H1. The autonomy of teleworkers is positively related to work–life balance.

In order to perform their job properly and in an effective way, to reach then the aimed WLB, teleworkers are required to have specific abilities, from the technological ones to those related with their independency while working (Daniels & Standen, 2000). Thus, it has been studied that good digital skills are required to perform teleworking and should eventually be taught (McNaughton et al., 2014). In addition, many studies addressed telework as a stressor that may lead to burnout (Song & Gao, 2019; Weinert et al., 2015; Golden, 2012) and therefore employees who are teleworking need to be able to manage stress and burnout signs (Dima et al., 2019). Work autonomy gives to the employees the chance to improve these abilities (Lopes et al., 2014), showing then a positive relationship between the two (Blount, 2015).

As both autonomy and abilities can increase job satisfaction, we suggest then the second hypothesis:

H2. The autonomy of teleworkers is positively related to telework abilities.

Other studies explained how workload can negatively affect office-based employees' WLB (Compton-Edwards, 2001) as it is a predictor of work and personal lives conflicts (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). Pressure of work, deadlines (Worrall & Cooper, 1999) and amount of work (Compton-Edwards, 2001) are the main reasons why people work long hours, but this does not change if someone is working from home (Duxbury & Halinski, 2014). The only difference is that, by having more autonomy, the negative effect of work overload can be mitigated (Weinert et al., 2015).

For the reasons above, the following third hypothesis is proposed:

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H3. Role overload is negatively related to work-life balance.

Academical studies generally agree on the importance given by workers to work-life balance (Kossek et al, 2014), and the reason may be because WLB has a crucial role in reaching a higher job satisfaction in every culture (Haar et al., 2014). Hence, most studies assess the impact of work-life balance on job satisfaction as a positive and direct relationship (Mas-Machuca et al., 2016), and many studies also demonstrated it (e.g. Kanwar et al., 2009; Brough et al., 2014; Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017; Fonner & Roloff, 2010; Malik et al., 2010; Mohanty & Mohanty, 2014; Wonk & Ko, 2009; bin Saleh, 2015; Shagvaliyeva & Yazdanifard, 2014).

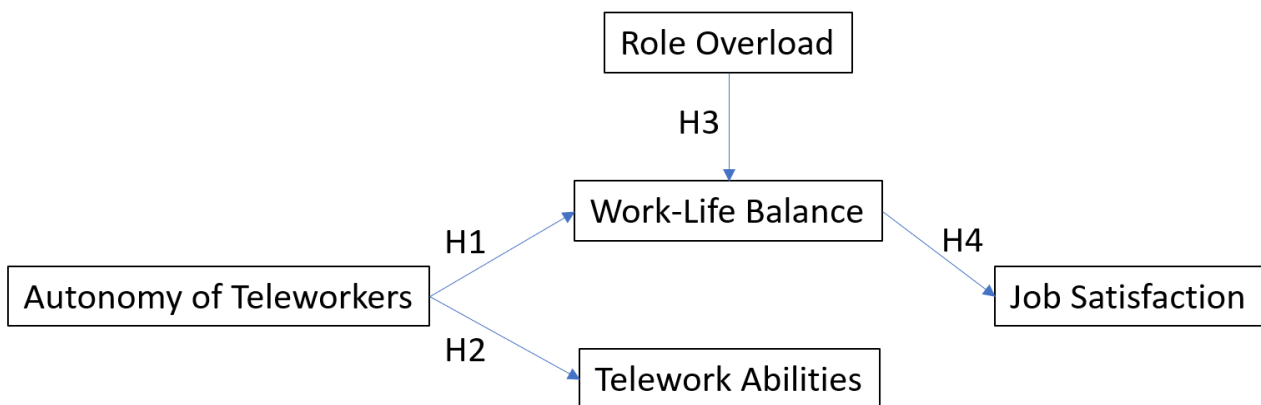As consequence of these past findings, the fourth hypothesis is designed:

H4. Work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction.

3.1   Research Model

4.   Given the analysed literature and the hypotheses drawn, the following conceptual research model is created.

Figure 1

Research model

4.1   Constructs' Definition

In this part, the constructs forming the model are explained. Job satisfaction will not be considered in this section as it has been already explained in the theoretical framework.

With autonomy of teleworkers, we mean the possibility of the employees performing telework to decide how, when and where they can perform their tasks (Spector, 1986; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Onken-Menke et al., 2018), therefore we can include the flexibility of the time allocation and the location in this concept (Dima et al., 2019), which are the discriminants we will consider to differentiate the different types of telework.

When saying role overload, in our case, we can substitute the term with workload, which is the amount of work of the employee, as it can create conflicts among time, resources, and requests (Christen et al., 2010).

The term work-life balance is considered as the degree to which a person is equally involved in and satisfied with his job and private life (Saeed & Farooqi, 2014; Saikia, 2011; Aamir et al., 2016; Cascio, 2000), which can be interpretated as the ability of an employee to manage both work and all the other aspects of his life without incurring in conflicts, overlapping, or opposition of one aspect to the other (Blyton et al., 2005).

Telework abilities refer to the ability to perform the requested tasks and to solve problems independently (Onken-Menke et al., 2018), hence digital skills and self-sufficiency, as well as the capacity of the employees to manage stress and maintain the concentration (Dima et al., 2019).

5. Literature Table

In this table the main articles used to structure the model, develop the hypotheses, and define the gaps are listed.

Table 1

Literature table

Title	Source	Contribution
Sustainable Social and Individual Implications of Telework: A New Insight into the Romanian Labor Market	Dima, A. M., Țuclea, C. E., Vrânceanu, D. M., & Țigu, G. (2019)	Model (autonomy of teleworkers, work-life balance, telework abilities) Hypothesis: H1, H2
Job satisfaction, job performance, and effort: A reexamination using agency theory	Christen, M., Iyer, G., & Soberman, D. (2006).	Model (role overload)
Why teleworkers are more satisfied with their jobs than are office-based workers: When less contact is beneficial	Fonner, K. L., & Roloff, M. E. (2010).	Model (job satisfaction)
Married to the Job?	Compton-Edwards, M. (2001).	Hypothesis: H3
The sustainable workforce: organizational strategies for promoting work–life balance and wellbeing	Kossek, E. E., Valcour, M., & Lirio, P. (2014).	Hypothesis: H4
Which telework? Defining and testing a taxonomy of technology-mediated work at a distance	Garrett, R. K., & Danziger, J. N. (2007).	Distinction of telework
Barriers to work motivation of generation Z	Fratrièová, J., & Kirchmayer, Z. (2018).	Gaps
How to Manage Generation Z in Business Life	Arar, T., & Yüksel, İ. (2015).	Gaps
Is teleworking for the millennials?	Nicholas, A. J., & Guzman, I. R. (2009, May)	Gaps

6. Methodology

This chapter will define the research method adopted to get the results aimed by the study and prove the hypothesis. It will first present the type of research, and the target group, then the sample selection to conclude with the procedures applied to collect and analyse the data.

6.1 Research Design

The research will be based on a quantitative study, conducted by an online questionnaire. The reason why the quantitative method has been preferred is because, as mentioned in the introduction, several qualitative studies have advised to analyse generation Z through this method and some previous quantitative studies were limited, like said previously, by the low number of respondents. The online diffusion has been determined due to mainly three factors: cost, time, and hard-to-reach sample. Online surveys have many benefits, like the cost advantage and the time efficiency (DeLeeuw, 2012; Hessler et al, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2007), and another important issue they can solve is the very defined target, which imply the risk of a little sample like the previous studies, but thanks to that it is possible to reach way more people and hence get help with sampling and data collection (Alessi & Martin, 2010).

The survey will be developed in English and then translated in Italian, Spanish, German and French to facilitate the respondents. The translations will be performed by a native speaker for each of the mentioned languages and will be checked by another native speaker.

6.2 Sample Description

The target chosen for the study is composed by companies' employees born from 1995 onwards, that have performed at least 3 months of telework in their career. The lower limit for the age of the respondents will be set at 14 years, because around one third of the countries that adopted the ILO Convention C138, which is the Minimum Age Convention of 1973, have set this age as minimum age to be eligible to work, while the others chose either 15 or 16 years.

6.3 Data Collection & Data Analysis Procedures

In first place, a pilot questionnaire will be used to assess the potential flaws, the possible errors, and the comprehensibility. Following the eventual adjustments, the survey will be distributed online through academical channels, as institutional emails, and social media platforms, like WhatsApp and LinkedIn. A snowball sampling process will be used to increase the sample size and be able to access the hard-to-reach population reducing costs and time (Benfield and Szlemko, 2006).

In order to conduct the data analysis, the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) will be used. Particularly, SmartPLS will assess the relationships among the variables. Regarding missing values, this study will observe the indications of Grimm and Wagner (2020) to optimize the accuracy of the estimations obtained in the SEM calculations using SmartPLS.

6.4 Measures

In the following table, the constructs explained in the previous chapter are listed, together with the items used in the researches of Dima et al. (2019), Christen et al. (2010), and Fonner et al. (2010).

Table 2

Constructs and items

Construct	Items	Source
Role Overload	1) Feeling that you have heavy a workload, one that you can't possibly finish during an ordinary workday. 2) Thinking that the amount of work you have to do interferes with how well it gets done. 3) Feeling that your job tends to interfere with your family life.	Christen et al. (2006)
Autonomy of Teleworkers	1) Teleworkers feel they have more control over their activities. 2) Teleworkers have more flexibility to arrange their working schedule. 3) Teleworkers have more flexibility in arranging the schedule that is not work related.	Dima et al. (2019)
Work-Life Balance	1) teleworkers can face better the family responsibilities than office employees. 2) teleworkers can manage time more efficiently than	Dima et al. (2019)

	office workers. 3) teleworkers face less stress. 4) teleworkers deal with less work-related health issues.	
Telework Abilities	1) teleworkers need to solve their problems independently. 2) teleworkers need digital literacy skills. 3) teleworkers must be able to manage the burnout tendency. 4) teleworkers must manage the work distraction.	Dima et al. (2019)
Job Satisfaction	1) Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide? 2) If a good friend asked if he/she should apply for a job like yours with your employer, what would you recommend? 3) How does this job compare with your ideal job? 4) In general, how does your job measure up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it? 5) All things considered, how satisfied are you with your current job? 6) In general, how much do you like your job?	Fonner et al. (2010)

7. Expected Contributions

The study aims to clear some of the gaps evidenced in the introduction, as well as in the theoretical framework, by giving a more reliable point of view regarding the opinion about telework of employees from Generation Z, thanks to a quantitative study with a bigger sample compared to the previous studies that assessed this topic (Nicholas & Guzman, 2009; Arar & Yüksel, 2015; Kick et al., 2015; Fratrièová & Kirchmayer, 2018; Kick et al., 2015; Nicholas & Guzman, 2009; Seitz, 2018). To achieve this goal, a new model, designed from previous existing models, will be tested and used. Academically speaking, the research should put an additional base to the future studies on this younger generation entering the workplace, as when the generational shift will be over a longitudinal comparison may be useful to understand how the aforementioned opinion changed in time and if there are differences between the older and the younger members of this cohort.

From a managerial perspective, the objective is to clarify what Human Resource Managers, employers and organizations in general should focus more on, when offering to someone

from Z-Gen the possibility to telework (Gaidhani et al., 2019; Seitz, 2018) or, as it happened during the pandemic, forcing him/her to work from home. In addition, further analysis regarding which kind of telework provides more satisfaction and to which type of employee will be performed. The practical contributions include hence also some hints on how to structure and develop new personnel policies addressed to Generation Z and/or regarding telework (Stankiewicz-Mróz, 2020).

8. Thesis Chapter Overview

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9. Workplan

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Workplan

Task	Date
Exposè	30 September
Instrument Development	1 October – 20 October
Instrument Pilot Test & Improvements	21 October – 31 October
Data Collection	1 November – 20 November
Data Analisys	21 November – 5 December
Thesis Writing	11 December – 9 January
Thesis Hand-In	10 January

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