

Teleworking in the post-pandemic period COVID-19 - reasons and aspects of implementation in the Czech Republic

 Jaroslav Vrchota^{✉ a},  Monika Maříková^b,  Petr Řehoř^b

^a AMBIS University, Prague, Czech Republic; ^b University of South Bohemia, České Budějovice, Czech Republic

Abstract: While teleworking used to be a desirable benefit, it has now become a normal part of the employment relationship and the only way for some employees to continue doing their jobs. The main objective of this paper is to evaluate the aspects affecting the adoption of teleworking in companies. The paper is based on research conducted after the COVID-19 pandemic (late 2020 to mid-2022) and builds on research conducted during the pandemic in 2019, which investigated factors influencing the length of TW (teleworking) implementation in small and medium-sized enterprises in the Czech Republic. In this paper, the authors evaluated 17 aspects that influenced the adoption of teleworking in 216 firms. Using factor analysis, the authors grouped the aspects of teleworking into 3 factors, which were named as follows: Current labour market needs from the perspective of employees (summarizing 8 aspects), Barriers faced by firms (7 aspects) and COVID specifics (2 aspects).

Keywords: teleworking, homeworking, management of organizations, aspects, implementation

Introduction

Thanks to the ever-improving information technology, some work activities can be performed outside the office, such as teleworking (Green et al., 2017). Telework can be defined in different ways; more can be seen in Grant et al. (2013). In the literature, we encounter terms such as teleworking, homeworking, homeoffice, work from home, mobile work and others. Each of these terms has its own definition and meaning, but the general public (employers) confuses them, and research has been conducted in this area. It means working somewhere other than an organisation's office. A teleworker is a person who performs teleworking (Perry et al., 2018).

This article is based on the premise that during the Covid-19 pandemic, telework became an important part of employees' work (Acemoglu et al., 2020), as it was often the only way they could continue working while minimizing the risk of

✉ Associate Professor, AMBIS Vysoká Škola, Prague, Czech Republic; e-mail: vrchota@ef.jcu.cz.

infection and the subsequent spread of the virus. Before the pandemic, telework was less used than it is now (Nakroshiene et al., 2019). Thanks to COVID-19, many workplaces were closed, and managers of these organisations count increased employee satisfaction and often productivity among the positives. For this reason, many have opted for permanent telework. This puts more responsibility on them to create and adhere to a working framework, hence a higher level of personal commitment is required (Fried & Hansson, 2014).

Teleworking itself originated in similar conditions to those of today; in the 1970s it was created in response to the oil crisis and concerns about the potential inability of employees to travel to and from the office. Recent advances in information and communication technology have made this form of employment a viable alternative to traditional offices (Torten et al., 2016).

1. Literature review

Given the situation we now find ourselves in, it is clear that the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic will have a long-term impact on the labour market specifically. It is very likely that some approaches will prove successful and be maintained beyond the end of this pandemic, and TW is one of them. For example, Baert et al. (2020) mention in their research that up to 85% of teleworkers believe that TW will be maintained after the end of this crisis.

The use of TW varies across the European Union. The main influence is due to the different structure of economies, but also to cultural differences, the number of tradesmen in the economy, the average size of companies and, of course, the IT skills of employees. Prior to the pandemic, around 15% of all employed people in EU countries worked from home regularly or occasionally. During the pandemic, the European Commission's Joint Research Centre conducted research on the extent to which home working was used by employees whose presence at the workplace was not required. The research showed that 48% of EU employees worked from home at least some of the time during the pandemic. More than a third (34%) then reported that they worked exclusively from home (Cattaneo, 2020). Working from home is most widely used in Belgium, where more than 50% of employees work exclusively from home during a pandemic, and a significant proportion (around another 15%) work alternately on-site and from home. The other top countries are Ireland, Italy, Spain and France. In all of these countries, more than 40% of respondents reported working exclusively from home and, equally in all these countries, around a further 10% work alternately from home and in the workplace. Portugal, Denmark and Lithuania are also above the EU average. Even in these countries, the rate of working from home is close to 40%. Greece, Finland and Austria are just below the average, followed by Germany and the Czech Republic. In the Czech Republic, 25% of employees work exclusively during the pandemic and around 20% work alternately at the workplace (Cattaneo, 2020).

In recent years, a number of European countries have adopted explicit legislative frameworks for teleworking, reflecting the growing importance of this form of work. Countries where teleworking is regulated through normative legislation include for example Italy, Romania and also the Czech Republic. Countries such as Austria and Germany, among others, have regulated teleworking through collective agreements, while in other countries it has been implemented through methodological guides (as in the UK) (Popescu, 2019; Ștefănescu, 2009; Trexima, 2025).

Private-sector workers are teleworking more than their federal counterparts, according to a new report released by the Congressional Budget Office (CBO). The CBO analysis shows that 22% of federal workers usually teleworked in 2022, compared to 25% of those in the private sector. Telework was also more common in urban areas and among more educated workers in both sectors. The rate of telework in the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area, for example, was 40% for private-sector workers and 38% for federal workers (CBO, 2024). Telework in the public sector is often influenced by individual characteristics such as family responsibilities, as well as organisational factors such as leadership support. These differences can lead to varying impacts of the pandemic on working conditions and employee motivation in both sectors (Mele et al., 2023). Representatives from the private sector often claimed that remote work leads to higher productivity due to fewer interruptions and better time management. In the public sector, opinions were divided; some reported positive impacts, while others were concerned about the negative effects on team collaboration and organisational culture (GAO, 2025).

However, the Czech legislation does not work with the term teleworking at all and does not define it. The current legal regulation of the performance of work outside the employer's workplace can be found in the provisions of Section 317 of the Labour Code, which refers to the employment relationship of an employee who does not work at the employer's workplace, but performs agreed work for the employer in accordance with the agreed terms and conditions during working hours that he or she schedules (Labour Code).

In terms of professions, TW was previously more focused on internet marketing, e-commerce, managing various internet projects. During the pandemic, the structure changed completely to teaching, which in the EU countries was more than 80% distance learning, followed by financial services and public administration. Conversely, the least used TW was in construction, agriculture, transport, commerce, hospitality and health (about 15%) (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2020).

According to several international studies, teleworking has been proven to be beneficial for both organisations and employees. The positive aspect is that employees reduce costs for organisations by not being in the office (Olsen et al., 2018). It also increases the profit of the organisation because there is less rent for office space in buildings and less office supplies are consumed (Bloom et al., 2014).

Baert et al. (2020) found that employees have a largely more positive attitude during teleworking, they are also more productive and less exhausted.

This includes, for example, the possibility to be available to the company around the clock and even in the evenings or on weekends (a significant benefit if the company trades across continents) (Lal & Dwivedi, 2010). Research by Chung and Lippe (2020) highlighted higher productivity, employee retention, better attendance and lower operating costs as motivational aspects of teleworking. Managers of organisations can attract and retain talented employees through teleworking, thereby increasing overall company performance (Beauregard et al., 2019).

Reducing office rental costs and the associated energy costs, etc. is also a frequently cited reason. Another important aspect is the possible increase in work productivity, e.g. due to less frequent interruptions from colleagues or better distribution of work throughout the day which is also evidenced by research conducted at Harvard University, where they concluded that the positive impacts on work ethic are many, after research on lockdown work activities for professions such as managers or information technology developers. Overall, there is a 50% increase in the time employees have to think about what they are going to do. All this time can therefore be put to very good use during working hours, resulting in higher productivity. The most important reason for the introduction of TW is probably the reduced absenteeism and sickness of employees nowadays (Baruch, 2001; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010).

Employees cite reduced travel costs to work as well as time savings as positive aspects (Sarbu, 2018). According to Schuster et al. (2020), employees tend to be less satisfied during teleworking throughout the week. For teleworking to be successful and produce quality results, trust and support for employees must be fostered to the maximum extent possible (Turetken et al., 2011).

The literature is polarised, some describe their optimistic view of flexible forms of work (workers are more satisfied, work efficiency increases, company costs decrease, etc.) (Redman et al., 2009) while others emphasise the negative impact. It should be emphasised that there are a number of disadvantages of TW, such as social isolation, technostress, blurring of work-life boundaries, or unequal access to teleworking opportunities, these are currently receiving increasing attention in the literature (Eurofiund, 2023; Marissa et al., 2010; Molino et al., 2020). However, in research, these factors do not represent the reasons for the implementation of TW, but rather its potential consequences, i.e. effects that may (or may not) become apparent after the implementation of this work mode. For our purposes, however, we have sought to describe specific barriers that may directly influence the decision to implement teleworking and are therefore relevant in the context of the reasons and aspects of implementation under investigation. These barriers - such as IT risks, lack of feedback, low team cohesion, difficulty in monitoring performance, availability of staff, self-discipline issues or the need for technical support - have been mentioned in this paper precisely because they affect the willingness of organisations and employees

to adopt or further develop teleworking. The negative impacts of teleworking could be the focus of further research, especially as some organisations have longer experience of using teleworking.

Baert et al. (2020) confirms the finding that employees are more likely to experience more negative aspects as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Based on the above, the article's authors perceive teleworking as a method of work performance in which an employee performs his or her work tasks outside the employer's standard workplace, typically from home or another suitable location, using modern information and communication technologies. Teleworking is a flexible working arrangement that allows work activities to be maintained even in crises while at the same time contributing to increased employee satisfaction and optimising the employer's costs.

The aspects that influence the adoption of teleworking in companies have not received much attention (Harker Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). Saving time and thus being able to work longer hours (using commuting time for work) or saving time to use it for oneself is one of the important aspects and as the research by Peters et al. (2008) confirms, teleworking can be used as an HRM tool to attract and/or retain staff as it allows employees to save commuting time and consequently contributes to a better work-home balance. Time saving among others is also mentioned by other authors and confirmed as a significant benefit by current research by Buomprisco et al. (2021). Research by Lari (2012) mentions the number of kilometres travelled during peak hours as the main benefit of introducing teleworking, thus saving time leading to the possibility of increasing working hours. On the other hand, Hjorthol and Nossun (2008) had the same assumption but their research did not confirm it. Time saving is also mentioned in research conducted among academics (Arvola, 2015) among others. Maruyama et al. (2009) research also highlights time saving as a key aspect that employees demand, as does the research of Bolisani et al. (2020), where up to 93% of employees rate time saving associated with travel as a key aspect of teleworking. Due to teleworking becoming an already common part of working life (Ojala et al., 2014), Thulin et al. (2019) describe increasing pressure to control the time spent at work. This is especially enhanced by smartphones, as this brings the worker much closer to the work.

Lower costs – Torten et al. (2016) describes among the main benefits of teleworking the cost advantages for employees and also, of course, for employers. Mahler (2012) describes that teleworking has a range of benefits from increased productivity to reduced environmental costs for the company, which resonates as an important aspect for many people nowadays. Other authors describe the effect of teleworking on costs; of course there are lower costs for the business (heating, cooling office space etc.) but the main cost reduction is for the employee themselves. While they increase their housing-related expenses, they reduce their travel-related expenses and the overall balance is a reduction in costs if they telework (Kitou &

Horvath, 2007). Other research has shown that employees positively evaluate reduced food and drink costs (they can eat at home) (Bolisani et al., 2020).

Flexibility as one of the reasons for introducing teleworking is mentioned in research conducted among academic staff; the purpose was to prove that older academic staff can work longer hours (specifically due to flexibility) because of teleworking (Arvola, 2015). Research by Hjorthol and Nossun (2008) describes flexibility as the main effect of the introduction of teleworking. Flexibility is mentioned as a major aspect in the research of Martínez et al. (2007); managers who understand this have more employees involved in the design and planning of jobs, they are more intensely performance driven and use more variable rewards. The research by Martínez et al. (2007) confirms that teleworking is positively related to performance and confirms the need for HR flexibility as reported by other sources (Eaton, 2003).

Employee satisfaction is an important aspect in teleworking. However, the research by Smith et al. (2018) showed that it is necessary to know the personality type of the employee in order to choose the right form of communication in order to increase employee satisfaction. Using a multi-agent approach and path analysis, the study investigated the extent to which telework affects job satisfaction through work-life conflict, stress caused by meetings and interruptions, perceived organisational politics and information exchange. Results show that teleworkers are more satisfied than office-based employees and derive significant benefits from their work arrangements, with work-life conflict having the greatest impact on job satisfaction (Fonner & Roloff, 2010).

Teleworking has an impact on work life balance (WLB). This is confirmed by research of Beno (2020), and Gálvez et al. (2020). Work life balance is rated as an important aspect by employees, research conducted on 1566 workers shows that teleworkers are 74% satisfied with WLB (Maruyama et al., 2009).

WLB is an even more significant aspect for women, the findings of research by Shaw et al. (2003) suggest that teleworking can contribute positively to the life balance of employed women. Working from home provided better work autonomy and work environment. The flexibility of teleworking also enabled them to better care for their children and enhanced their parenting.

The convenience of home is closely related to the flexibility of time. Employees working from home report greater job satisfaction, as evidenced in research by Maruyama et al. (2009). The convenience of home also allows, for example, to care for sick household members. Also, research by Shaw et al. (2003) mentions that above all, women perceive working from home very positively because of the very working environment that the home offers. This is supported by other research that describes the convenience of home as an important aspect of teleworking (Nakrošienė et al., 2019).

Teleworking brings benefits to both employers and employees, but the nature and extent of the benefits vary. Employers benefit in particular from lower operating

costs, higher productivity and lower absenteeism rates, while employees value flexibility and time saving. As it can be seen from the texts above, teleworking brings benefits to both employers and employees, but the nature and extent of these benefits are not always evenly distributed. Employers typically benefit from lower operating costs (e.g. utilities, premises), higher worker productivity and lower absenteeism rates. In contrast, employees value in particular time flexibility, savings in commuting time, improved work-life balance and the ability to care for children, sick family members or their own health. Special attention is paid to this dimension in the case of public employees - for example, the Romanian Administrative Code explicitly provides for the possibility of teleworking in case of pregnancy, caring for close relatives or health limitations (Directive (EU) 2019/1158). Thus, although it can be said that teleworking can benefit both sides of the working relationship, research shows that the benefits are not symmetrical - they depend on the type of job, family situation, gender and also on the level of organisational support and trust from the employer.

Lack of feedback increases employees' feelings of isolation and also affects employees' expressions of trust in their manager (van der Merwe & Smith, 2014). Employees have a negative attitude towards the lack of feedback. Managers should therefore provide it sufficiently. Research by Gajendran and Harrison (2007) and Golden and Fromen (2011) suggests that it does. In contrast to traditional work arrangements, work-related feedback is more often communicated to remote workers through information and communication technologies.

Low team cohesion/teamwork: a significant drawback of teleworking is the reduced teamwork among employees. The absence of regular meetings and frequent social interactions leads to a fragmentation of the team dynamic, diminishing the benefits typically gained from collaboration. While teleworking offers employees flexibility, it also disrupts team cohesion (Baruch, 2001). Furthermore, the lack of team integration, which is essential for workplace socialisation, has a direct impact on productivity and motivation (Simosi, 2010). Over time, this can weaken the overall cohesion of teams, including both employees and civil servants. This is also confirmed by Bolisani et al. (2020) research, with 37% of employees reporting that they find it much harder to meet and communicate with colleagues. Many managers of organisations lack expertise and experience in leading teams remotely. Organisations need more knowledgeable employees and a more cohesive workplace connected by teamwork (Burrell, 2020).

The controllability of employees also appears to be a problematic aspect of the implementation of teleworking. There is less opportunity to monitor the work and behaviour of employees, making it impossible to control them. This should be replaced by more pressure to control outputs (Groen et al., 2018). For telework to be effective, managers of teleworkers must trust their subordinates. By trust, we primarily mean that the employee performs the actions that are required regardless of whether there is the ability to consistently control them (Mayer et al., 1995). O'Neill et al. (2009) even

mentions among the three most important aspects of successful teleworking the ability to work as if being controlled. Controllability is of course a key parameter for employers, even as research shows employees themselves confirm up to 25% are less able to control their working hours (Maruyama et al., 2009).

A negative aspect of teleworking concerns the availability of the teleworker. If employees use flexibility in scheduling their work, they may be unavailable to colleagues and customers who have fixed hours (Pérez et al., 2002).

The rather negative aspect of teleworking, which is the impossibility of immediate collaboration with colleagues, is highlighted by studies such as (Beauregard et al., 2019). Other authors also mention increased isolation as a key aspect negatively affecting teleworking; the personality of the worker obviously plays a major role here, with some tolerating isolation better than others (Harris, 2003). Among the most important factors affecting teleworking, Nakrošienė et al. (2019) mentions limited communication with co-workers.

Employee self-discipline is also an important aspect for managers. One of the advantages of teleworking is the autonomy and independence (Hartung, 2015). Self-discipline is a very important skill that is needed for productive work to occur (Lee, 2011). It is self-discipline that can be a problem for many employees, which is why they prefer working in an office where there is a strict boundary between work and personal life rather than teleworking (Lee, 2011).

For teleworking to be successful, organisations need to provide technology and technological support for teleworkers (Kowalski & Swanson, 2005). Technical support was also mentioned in another research by Gschwind and Vargas (2019) in 2015, when 1027 teleworkers reported that technical support was the main barrier to teleworking (connecting to the company network, sufficient ICT equipment).

Sickness or quarantine work (lower absenteeism) is picked up by Meadows (2008) in his work, when he states that it is this option that reduces employee absenteeism. This benefits both the employer and the employee. Much research shows that it is because of teleworking that many businesses have been able to operate during the shutdown economy and a large number of managers recognise the need to maintain teleworking even after the pandemic has ended (Forbes et al., 2020).

Teleworking requires managers to get proper documentation or plans from employee (Lee et al., 2011). Constant updating and revision of documentation is important in teleworking. Teleworkers are required to document the introduction and results of teleworking (Green et al., 2017).

With teleworking, ethical concerns are heightened for managers by the information overload and intrusion into employees' personal lives (Gálvez et al., 2020). Teleworking enhances the work and personal life balance of employees. Employees are satisfied, autonomous, flexible, and satisfy their own needs and personal life needs (Golden & Fromen, 2011). Teleworking can cause problems in personal life in that conflicts may occur more frequently at home, and working at home can disrupt family life (Ojala et al., 2014).

During the Covid-19 pandemic, more and more work activities were moving to the online IT environment. According to the research of Vrchota et al. (2020), IT risks are among the negative aspects of teleworking. As teleworking increases, so do concerns about IT risks - e.g. shadow IT (Evangelakos, 2020). According to two-fifths of respondents, teleworking increases data security risks (Forgács, 2010). Bucsa (2020) presents practical guidance on how to eliminate cyber security risks, going through repeated use of VPN solutions.

Covid-19 has become the most important aspect for the implementation of teleworking and company closures. There are many articles in the literature that deal with research on teleworking before, during and after the pandemic (Tokarchuk et al., 2021). Telework should primarily be justified by the employer's interest in ensuring efficiency, flexibility, and the sustainability of the workforce. However, ensuring protection for employees, including public sector employees, is also crucial, particularly in terms of health protection, work-life balance, and working conditions. Therefore, it is essential to find a balance between both of these factors. The study states that the main advantage of remote work for employees is increased flexibility, which allows them to achieve a better work-life balance compared to working in the office (Proffitt, 2025).

2. Methodological approach

The main objective of this paper is to evaluate the aspects influencing the implementation of Teleworking in companies. The paper is based on research conducted after the COVID-19 pandemic (late 2020 to mid-2022) and builds on research conducted during the pandemic in 2019 (Vrchota et al., 2019), which investigated factors influencing the length of TW implementation in small and medium-sized enterprises in the Czech Republic.

Using a questionnaire and guided personal interviews, entrepreneurs were asked about 17 aspects affecting TW (time saving, lower costs, flexibility, employee satisfaction, work life balance, home comfort, the lack of feedback, low team cohesion / teamwork, employee controllability, availability of teleworkers, cooperation with colleagues, self-discipline, technical support, work in illness or quarantine (lower absence), high bureaucracy, limitation of personal life, IT risks), which they rated on a Likert scale (Goeb et al., 2007). The individual aspects of HW emerged from literature searches of similar research, which were then discussed with business representatives to better reflect the current needs of employees and businesses. Other areas of research included the use of groupware, the advantages and disadvantages of homeworking or general characteristics of businesses.

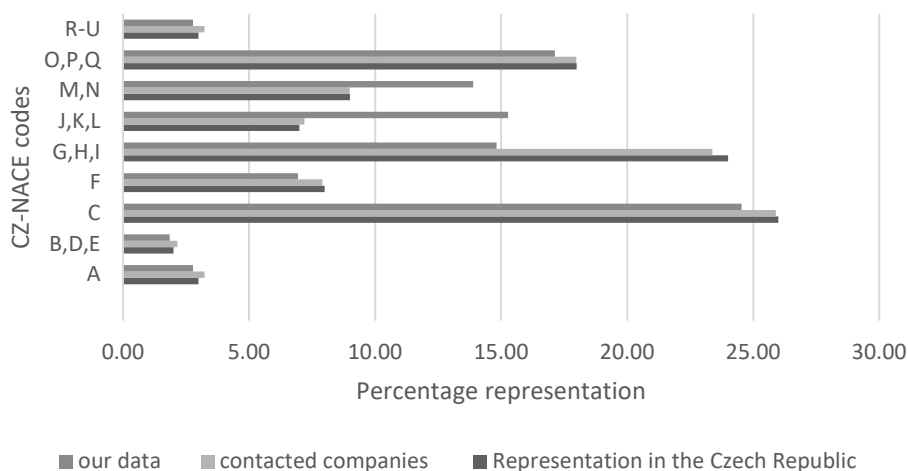
The COVID-19 pandemic has revealed significant differences in employers' readiness to transition to working from home. According to the OECD (2020), on average only about 30% of jobs in OECD countries were suitable for teleworking. Countries with a well-developed digital infrastructure and a predominance of

services, such as Sweden or the Netherlands, have adapted faster, while others have faced structural barriers.

Eurofound (2021) reports that the proportion of employees working from home has risen from 5 % to 40% in the EU, with many employers not having advance plans in place, leading to delays and technical problems. Lund et al. (2020) then reports that 80 % of executives admitted that their organisations were not prepared for the large-scale transition to teleworking, and that more digitally advanced companies have made the switch up to 60 % faster. In the Czech Republic, only 13-18 % of employees could work effectively from home (CSO, 2020). According to PAQ Research (2020), the majority of employers lacked the necessary IT equipment, internal guidelines and trust towards employees. These findings confirm that the implementation of telework is not only a matter of political decisions, but also requires adequate organisational and infrastructural readiness.

A total of 278 enterprises were contacted and data were collected from 216 enterprises, with 51% of them (110 enterprises) using TW, which is in line with data from the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2020), which showed 48% of enterprises using TW in the EU. In the Czech Republic, 45% were identified with TW. A proportional sample was chosen based on the distribution of enterprises in the Czech Republic according to the CZ-NACE sectoral focus, as according to van Barneveld (2020) the COVID-19 crisis affected all business sectors; 16 enterprises were excluded from the data due to being present for just one year on the market; and 94 enterprises were included for the completeness of survey.

The aim of the article is to organise and break down the individual factors influencing homeworking in Czech companies. For this purpose, a factor analysis was chosen, based on 17 variables, the degree of implementation of which the companies were asked about. These 17 variables helped to define 34 managers in the qualitative research. First, the conditions of the possibility to conduct factor analysis were checked using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Based on Bartlett's test, the null hypothesis, which states that the correlation indices between the variables are zero, was rejected at the $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. Subsequently, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was calculated, where the value came out to be 0.801, where the adequacy can be considered above the level of 0.5 and in terms of the appropriateness of the value and above 0.8, it is described as a good level for this method. The suitability of using factor analysis is also evidenced by the high level of correlation between most of the variables, which was verified by the Pearson and Spearman test (Vrchota et al., 2020). For the purposes of this paper, data from the Spearman test only are presented below as both tests showed very similar data.

Figure 1. Distribution of enterprises

Source: authors' representation and International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), 2021

As a result, the paper summarises the 17 aspects affecting HW, using factor analysis divided into three components: current labour market needs from the perspective of employees, obstacles faced by the firm and COVID specifics, so as to best reflect all factors. Then, each firm's data is transformed under these components and the firms are matched according to these areas to see which areas the firms place most emphasis on.

3. Conducting research and results

The data analysis showed a high interdependence between the different factors of teleworking: time saving (commuting), flexibility, employee satisfaction, lower costs, work-life balance, convenience of home, bureaucracy associated with HW, limitations of personal life, IT risks, lack of feedback, low team belonging, controllability of employees, availability of employees, self-discipline, need for technical support, possibility of working in light illness, impossibility of immediate collaboration with colleagues (quarantine). This is evidenced by the attached correlation matrix, which shows Spearmann correlation coefficients, where significant p-value coefficients close to zero are indicated by ** and coefficients close to the 0.95 significance level are indicated by *. For the purpose of research, Pearson correlations were also performed; however, the results of both correlations are very similar, for this reason only one matrix is presented here. The results show that the strongest correlation of 0.609 is between employee satisfaction and flexibility.

Table 1. Factor correlation matrix

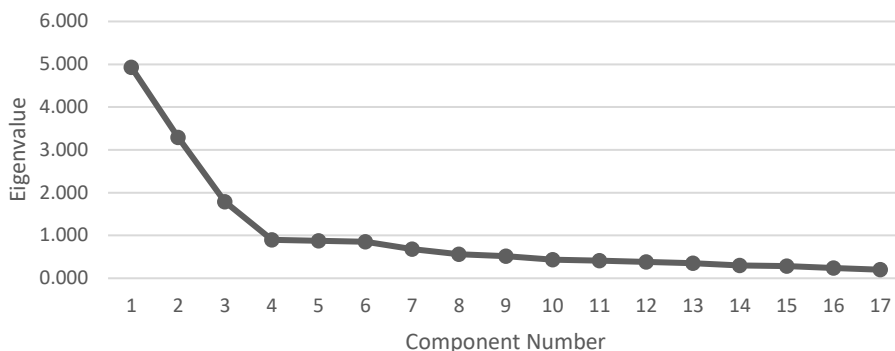
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
work-life balance	1	0.375	0.521	0.484	0.211	0.410	-0.160	0.370	0.205	0.098	0.048	0.093	0.133	0.208	0.311	0.421	0.156
time saving	0.375	1	0.581	0.574	0.573	0.515	-0.079	0.121	-0.070	0.052	0.165	0.597	-0.016	0.028	0.147	0.540	-0.114
employee satisfaction	0.521	0.581	1	0.609	0.471	0.531	-0.143	0.365	-0.005	0.155	0.021	0.432	-0.076	0.169	0.221	0.353	0.116
flexibility	0.484	0.574	0.609	1	0.446	0.534	-0.111	0.362	0.026	0.200	0.266	0.380	0.037	0.091	0.206	0.423	-0.055
lower costs	0.211	0.573	0.471	0.446	1	0.437	-0.087	0.261	-0.023	0.169	-0.077	0.432	0.082	0.024	0.167	0.463	-0.043
limitation of personal life	0.410	0.515	0.531	0.534	0.437	1	-0.009	0.387	0.227	0.283	0.112	0.368	0.139	0.060	0.334	0.472	0.084
cooperation with colleagues	-0.160	-0.079	-0.143	-0.111	-0.087	-0.009	1	0.153	0.310	0.260	0.196	-0.071	0.168	0.467	0.141	0.126	0.258
self-discipline	0.370	0.121	0.365	0.362	0.261	0.387	0.153	1	0.462	0.432	0.084	0.101	0.185	0.419	0.493	0.275	0.111
IT risks	0.205	-0.070	-0.005	0.026	-0.023	0.227	0.310	0.462	1	0.320	-0.027	-0.259	0.293	0.302	0.419	0.130	0.257
availability of teleworker	0.098	0.052	0.155	0.200	0.169	0.283	0.260	0.432	0.320	1	0.023	-0.130	0.218	0.309	0.332	0.190	0.253
work in illness or quarantine	0.048	0.165	0.021	0.266	-0.077	0.112	0.196	0.084	-0.027	0.023	1	0.273	0.017	0.120	0.145	0.135	-0.067
home comfort	0.093	0.597	0.432	0.380	0.432	0.368	-0.071	0.101	-0.259	-0.130	0.273	1	-0.213	-0.013	0.046	0.288	-0.247
employee controllability	0.133	-0.016	-0.076	0.037	0.082	0.139	0.168	0.185	0.293	0.218	0.017	-0.213	1	0.288	0.221	0.153	0.381
low team cohesion / teamwork	0.208	0.028	0.169	0.091	0.024	0.060	0.467	0.419	0.302	0.309	0.120	-0.013	0.288	1	0.354	0.181	0.427
technical support	0.311	0.147	0.221	0.206	0.167	0.334	0.141	0.493	0.419	0.332	0.145	0.046	0.221	0.354	1	0.428	0.167
high bureaucracy	0.421	0.540	0.353	0.423	0.463	0.472	0.126	0.275	0.130	0.190	0.135	0.288	0.153	0.181	0.428	1	0.126
the lack of feedback	0.156	-0.114	0.116	-0.055	-0.043	0.084	0.258	0.111	0.257	0.253	-0.067	-0.247	0.381	0.427	0.167	0.126	1

Source: authors' representation

Time savings from the employees' perspective has the strongest correlation with the other factors, which mainly represents travel to and from work and also frequent disturbance of colleagues from work; if employees have optimal conditions to work from home, they are not subsequently disturbed by anyone. Another factor that often has strong correlations is the employee satisfaction, which is significantly correlated with work-life balance, time savings, flexibility and personal life constraints. In general, the most frequently correlated factor is personal life constraints, which has significant correlations with 12 of the 16 factors. On the other hand, the least significant correlations are for the factor Work Opportunity in Light Sickness, which correlates with only 3 of the 16 factors. Most of the factors correlate with 9-11 factors and mostly we can talk about a moderate to strong association.

Due to the frequent correlations between factors, the logical outcome of the research was to try to express the 17 factors by finding common characteristics and expressing these factors using fewer components. To this end, factor analysis was used, the suitability of which to the chosen data is demonstrated by Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, whose null hypothesis was rejected at a significance level close to zero. The suitability of the sample range is also supported by the high value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (0.801), where the suitability can be considered above the level of 0.5; in terms of the suitability of the value and above 0.8, it is considered very good for this method.

Figure 2. Distribution of enterprises representation of the individual components



Source: authors' representation

Figure 2 shows a graphical representation of the individual components, where the x-axis plots the individual components and the y-axis plots their Eigenvalue. Of the 17 components, the total number of components was set to 3 based on the intersection of the elbow rule and components greater than 1. These three components represent 59% of the cases. The levels of the other components are expressed in the table below, where it can be seen that the first component expresses 29% of the cases, the second 19% and the third 11% of the cases. Adding

the fourth to sixth components would only increase the representativeness by approximately 5% each time as well as their eigenvalue is less than 1. Therefore, it does not make sense to add additional components to the model.

During the calculation of the extraction of the individual factors into components, factor loadings were calculated, with the table below showing the distribution of the factors into each component. Only values greater than 0.45 are recorded in the table to achieve uniqueness of each component in terms of factor. At the same time, the factors are ranked within each component according to the magnitude of the loadings, where it can be seen that for the first component, time saving has the strongest loading along with flexibility. Conversely, for example, for the third component, the possibility of working in light sickness and the inability to collaborate with colleagues immediately has the highest loadings.

Table 2. Representativeness of individual components

Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.926	28.975%	28.975%	10	0.435	2.558%	87.242%
2	3.290	19.356%	48.331%	11	0.409	2.406%	89.648%
3	1.789	10.526%	58.857%	12	0.385	2.264%	91.912%
4	0.901	5.299%	64.157%	13	0.351	2.062%	93.974%
5	0.877	5.156%	69.313%	14	0.298	1.754%	95.728%
6	0.856	5.033%	74.346%	15	0.283	1.666%	97.395%
7	0.684	4.023%	78.369%	16	0.243	1.429%	98.823%
8	0.560	3.296%	81.665%	17	0.200	1.177%	100.000%
9	0.513	3.019%	84.684%				

Source: authors' representation

At the same time, based on the results and the classification of the individual factors under the components, according to the literature (Baruch, 2001; Beauregard et al., 2019; Bolisani et al., 2020; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; Maruyama et al., 2009; Nakrošienė et al., 2019; Ojala et al., 2014) and roundtable discussions with labour experts, the three components were named to best represent the factors they shield. Therefore, the term was chosen for the first component: current needs of the labour market from the employees' perspective, which shields the factors relevant to employees: time savings (commuting), flexibility, employee satisfaction, lower costs, work-life balance, home convenience, HW-related bureaucracy, personal life constraints. The second component represents: Barriers faced by the firm in implementing HW: IT risks, lack of feedback, low team cohesion, controllability of employees, availability of employees, self-discipline, need for technical support. And the last component, representing the possibility of working in light illness (quarantine) and the impossibility of immediate collaboration with colleagues, shields factors that do not have significant factor loadings in either of the previous components. The latter has therefore been termed COVID-specific; these are factors that stand outside the employee and company perspectives on homeworking.

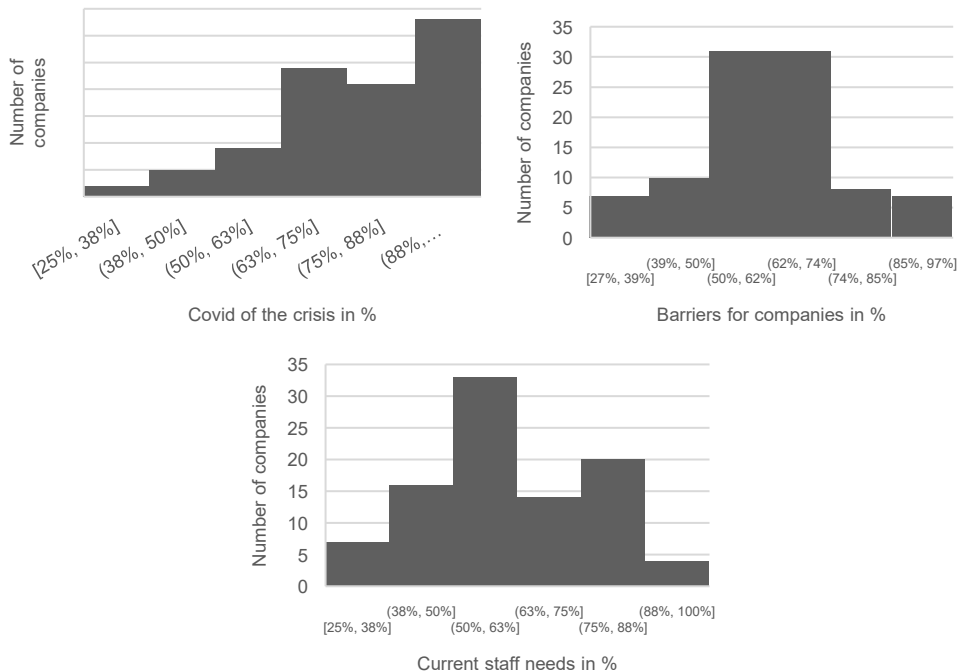
Table 3. Distribution of factors into components

Factors	Components	Components		
		Current labour market needs from the employees' perspective	Barriers faced by the company	COVID specifics
time saving		0.811		
flexibility		0.800		
employee satisfaction		0.798		
lower costs		0.681		
work-life balance		0.613		
home comfort		0.612		
high bureaucracy		0.538		
limitation of personal life		0.473		
IT risks			0.696	
the lack of feedback			0.649	
low team cohesion / teamwork			0.631	
employee controllability			0.618	
availability of teleworker			0.558	
self-discipline			0.544	
technical support			0.456	
work in illness or quarantine (lower absence),				0.709
cooperation with colleagues				0.674

Source: authors' representation

Figure 3. Distribution of factors into components

Source: authors' representation

Figure 4. Representation of enterprises by: during COVID crisis; Barriers; Staff needs.

Source: authors' representation

The individual factors can be characterized more closely using the following graphical representation, where the individual components and their factors are color-coded on a spider web graph. Figure 3 plots the average values for each factor, with the highest value being the ability to work on light sickness (3.40), followed by staff availability (3.04) and flexibility (2.95). In contrast, the least importance was given by the entrepreneurs to personal life constraints (2.04), lower costs from the employees' perspective (2.17) and controllability of employees (2.18). While Std. Deviation for the sample was between 0.853 (lack of feedback) and 1.033 (IT risks).

In terms of data for the individual components, it is evident that firms attach the greatest importance to aspects related to the COVID crisis, since as the graph below shows from the distribution of data across firms, most firms fulfill this component with more than 63% and 33 firms even fulfill it between 88-100% and only 2 firms are below 38%. Therefore, it can be assumed that these aspects summarized under the COVID component have led most enterprises to adopt homeworking. In contrast, for the component focused on the needs of employees, it can be seen that most enterprises are in the 50-63% range (33), with only 4 enterprises placing significant emphasis on this area with a fulfillment of 88-100%, compared to 6 enterprises that represent fulfillment at only 25-38%.

There is a similar distribution of data for the component focusing on barriers on the firm side, where it can be seen that the majority (64) of firms fill this area 50-74% of the time, there is a significant drop off on both sides of the distribution with the other percentages represented by less than 10 firms. Therefore, it can be assumed that all enterprises usually perceive the HW aspects from the perspective of mid-level firms and rarely overestimate or underestimate these aspects.

Conclusions

In this article, the authors evaluated 17 aspects that influenced the adoption of telework in Czech organisations. Among statistical methods, factor analysis was used. For example, this was used by Campbell and Heales (2016) who defined 5 components of the consequences of teleworking from the perspective of employees, not from the perspective of organisations. We just included organisational aspects in our research. Other authors (Khan et al., 2020) also mention the benefits of factor analysis, most often using it to determine the determinants of employee satisfaction. Using factor analysis, the authors grouped the aspects of telecommuting into 3 factors, which were named as follows: Current labour market needs from the employees' perspective (summarises 8 aspects), Barriers faced by companies (7 aspects) and Covid specifics (2 aspects). It is the latter factor that managers attach the most importance to the organisation. Even the authors (Gaffney et al., 2021; Mouratidis & Papagiannakis, 2021) cite the importance of the Covid-19 pandemic for promoting telework. This third component is more than 2/3 fulfilled in Czech companies. Thus, the three factors identified may contribute to better modelling of telework outcomes in organisations, and certainly present further opportunities for empirical research along with contributions to science and theory.

Of all the aspects of teleworking, the most highly rated are the ability to work in quarantine, employee availability, and flexibility. A high correlation was then found between employee satisfaction and flexibility. According to Yossef (2020) and Collins et al. (2014), flexibility significantly influence teleworking. The most correlated aspects included time savings from the employees' perspective and personal life limitations. According to Kazekami (2020), time saving is one of the factors that increases labor productivity in teleworking.

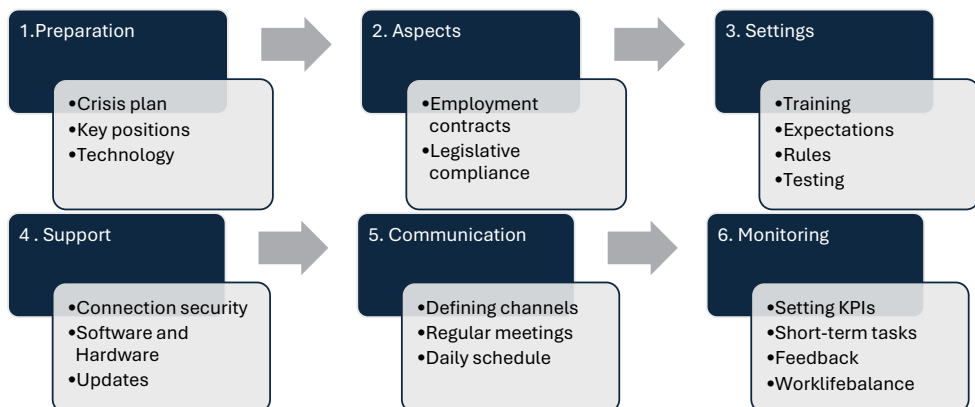
The efficiency of telecommuting will certainly affect the productivity of organizations, as it has a major impact on the well-being of employees. All of this will manifest itself in the medium term. Several factors will determine whether it will extend to the long term. Managers of organizations will have to consider the potential benefits of this form of work, as well as the productivity and satisfaction of workers, as Tokarchuk et al. (2021) confirm. Even businesses not using this form of work will need to consider whether to offer it to their employees and expand their IT technology. In 2025, the European Union faces several simultaneous challenges: economic stagnation coupled with persistent inflation, disruption of supply chains, a

shortage of skilled workers, growing cyber threats, and energy insecurity. At the same time, tensions in trade relations with the United States are intensifying, marked by the threat of a trade war and new tariffs, which further complicate the export and investment environment. In response to these multifaceted challenges, the EU is promoting digitalization, retraining of workers, and the adoption of flexible working conditions, all aimed at enhancing resilience and competitiveness. The impact of the crisis on businesses is expected to be felt in the long term, making it essential for managers to invest in employee upskilling, lifelong employability, and facilitating the transition to telework. Tavares et al. (2021) emphasize the importance of providing workers with adequate training in technology and time/schedule management. Moreover, it is crucial to adapt work processes to the virtual environment and balance work and family demands.

Based on the analysis of the research results, we have identified and systematized the main points of telework implementation at the employer level in the event of a crisis. The model aims to make it simple and effective for employers to implement teleworking in the event of a force majeure event requiring such a solution.

When implementing teleworking, it is crucial to prepare for crisis situations that may require an immediate transition to remote work. The first step is to create a crisis plan that clearly specifies the conditions for teleworking activation, responsibilities and communication protocols. It is also important to identify critical jobs that can be performed remotely and to provide the necessary technological infrastructure, such as VPN connections, cloud storage and video conferencing tools. Another key step is to ensure compliance with all legislative and internal aspects. The employer should update employment contracts and adapt them to the specifics of remote work, including flexible working hours and personal data protection.

Figure 6. A model for implementing teleworking in the event of a future crisis



Source: authors' representation

Monitoring legislative changes in the teleworking sector is essential to ensure that the organization is always compliant with applicable legislation. It is also important to work with the employees themselves for successful implementation. This includes regular training on how to use video conferencing tools effectively, online collaboration, and time management. It is also necessary to clearly define work rules and expectations and regularly test the effectiveness of remote work through simulated crisis scenarios, for example during times of mild health indisposition of an employee. Support plays a key role in ensuring a smooth transition to remote work. It's important to ensure an internet connection, security protocols for handling sensitive data, and providing online collaboration tools. Regular monitoring of technology tools ensures that all systems are up-to-date and compliant with security standards. To maintain effective communication and team collaboration, it is important to regularly organize online meetings and clarify what communication channels will be used for different types of communication. Flexibility in synchronizing the workday is also essential so that each team member can work in accordance with their personal habits with respect to the work team. Finally, to maintain productivity and efficiency, key performance indicators (KPIs) need to be established. Just as it is necessary for managers to be able to divide large tasks into a series of small ones, to avoid procrastination and procrastination. Regular feedback must not be neglected, and also supporting the employees in achieving a work-life balance. This includes support for working from home and flexible working hours to allow employees to better adapt to new circumstances.

One of the earlier problems of Czech legislation was the insufficient regulation of telework, which for a long time remained outside a clearly defined legal framework. However, this situation has changed, particularly following the implementation of the European Work-Life Balance Directive. The Czech Republic has already responded and telework is now legislatively anchored in the Labor Code - including rules for its negotiation, compensation claims and employee protection (Aion, 2024; Directive (EU) 2019/115).

In further research, the authors will examine whether teleworking has become an integral part of the culture of the organization or whether it was just a temporary change and what effects and benefits it has brought to organizations. The relationship between the three factors identified and the implications that teleworking brings with it will also need to be explored.

References

Acemoglu, D., Chernozhukov, V., Werning, I., & Whinston, M. (2020). *Optimal Targeted Lockdowns in a Multi-Group SIR Model* (Working Paper No. 27102). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w27102>

- Aion, A. C. (2024). Act amending Act No. 262/2006 Coll., the Labour Code, as amended, and certain. <https://www.zakonyprolidi.cz/cs/2024-230>
- Arvola, R., & Kristjuhan, Ü. (2015). Workload and health of older academic personnel using telework. *Agronomy Research* 13(3), 741-749.
- Baert, S., Lippens, L., Moens, E., Weytjens, J., & Sterkens, P. (2020). *The Covid-19 Crisis and Telework: A Research Survey on Experiences, Expectations and Hopes*. Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=3596696>
- Baruch, Y. (2001). The status of research on teleworking and an agenda for future research. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 3(2), 113-129. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2370.00058>
- Beauregard, T. A., Basile, K. A., & Canónico, E. (2019). *Telework: Outcomes and facilitators for employees*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. <https://www.cambridge.org/gb/academic/subjects/psychology/applied-psychology/cambridge-handbook-technology-and-employee-behavior?format=PB>
- Beno, M. (2020). Mobile Teleworking - Its Effects on Work/Life Balance, a Case Study from Austria. In R. Silhavy (eds.), *Artificial Intelligence and Bioinspired Computational Methods* (pp. 161-171). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-51971-1_13
- Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J., & Ying, Z. J. (2014). Does Working from Home Work? Evidence from a Chinese Experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 130(1), 165-218. <https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qju032>
- Bolisani, E., Scarso, E., Ipsen, C., Kirchner, K., & Hansen, J. P. (2020). Working from home during COVID-19 pandemic: Lessons learned and issues. *Management & Marketing*, 15(1), 458-476. <https://doi.org/10.2478/mmcks-2020-0027>
- Buomprisco, G., Ricci, S., Perri, R., & De Sio, S. (2021). Health and Telework: New Challenges after COVID-19 Pandemic. *European Journal of Environment and Public Health*, 5(2), em0073. <https://doi.org/10.21601/ejeph/9705>
- Burrell, D. N. (2020). Understanding the Talent Management Intricacies of Remote Cybersecurity Teams in Covid-19 Induced Telework Organizational Ecosystems. *Land Forces Academy Review*, 25(3), 232-244. <https://doi.org/10.2478/raft-2020-0028>
- Campbell, J., & Heales, J. (2016). Factor Structure of Individual Consequences for Teleworking Professionals. *Australasian Journal of Information Systems*, 20. <https://doi.org/10.3127/ajis.v20i0.906>
- Cattaneo, B. (2020). *Coronavirus pandemic reveals large differences in the prevalence of telework across the EU*. <https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/news/coronavirus-pandemic-reveals-large-differences-prevalence-telework-across-eu>
- Collins, N., Chou, Y.M., & Warner, M. (2014). Member satisfaction, communication and role of leader in virtual self-managed teamwork: Case studies in Asia-Pacific region. *Human Systems Management*, 33(4), 155-170. <https://doi.org/10.3233/HSM-140824>

- Congressional Budget Office. (2024). *Telework in the Federal Workforce: Trends and Implications*.
- Czech Statistical Office (CSO). (2020). Employment and telework during the COVID-19 pandemic. <https://www.czso.cz>
- Directive (EU) 2019/1158 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 June 2019 on work-life balance for parents and carers and repealing Council Directive 2010/18/EU, 188 OJ L § (2019).
- Eaton, S. C. (2003). If You Can Use Them: Flexibility Policies, Organisational Commitment, and Perceived Performance. *Industrial Relations*, 42(2), 145-167. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-232X.00285>
- Eurofound, Demetriades, S., Cabrita, J., & Eiffe, F. F. (2023). The future of telework and hybrid work, Publications Office of the European Union. <https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2806/234429>
- European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. (2020). *Living, working and COVID-19*. LU: Publications Office. <https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2806/467608>
- European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. (2023). The future of telework and hybrid work. LU: *Publications Office*. <https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2806/977006>
- Evangelakos, G. (2020). Keeping critical assets safe when teleworking is the new norm. *Network Security*, 2020(6), 11-14. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1353-4858\(20\)30067-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1353-4858(20)30067-2)
- Fonner, K. L., & Roloff, M. E. (2010). Why Teleworkers are More Satisfied with Their Jobs than are Office-Based Workers: When Less Contact is Beneficial. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 38(4), 336-361. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00909882.2010.513998>
- Forbes, S., Birkett, H., Evans, L., Chung, H., & Whiteman, J. (2020). *Managing employees during the covid-19 pandemic*. <https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/documents/college-social-sciences/business/research/responsible-business/managerial-experiences-during-covid19-2020-accessible.pdf>
- Forgács, T. (2010). Empirical research findings on telework: Management experiences and attitudes. *Business and Economic Horizons*, (01), 6-13.
- Fried, J., & Hansson, D. H. (2013). *Remote: Office not required*. London: Vermilion.
- Gaffney, A. W., Himmelstein, D. U., & Woolhandler, S. (2021). Trends and Disparities in Teleworking During the COVID-19 Pandemic in the USA: May 2020-February 2021. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-021-07078-9>
- Gajendran, R. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2007). The good, the bad, and the unknown about telecommuting: Meta-analysis of psychological mediators and individual consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1524-1541. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1524>

- Gálvez, A., Tirado, F., & Alcaraz, J. M. (2020). "Oh! Teleworking!" Regimes of engagement and the lived experience of female Spanish teleworkers. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 29(1), 180-192. <https://doi.org/10.1111/beer.12240>
- Goeb, R., McCollin, C., & Ramalhoto, M. F. (2007). Ordinal methodology in the analysis of likert scales. *Quality & Quantity*, 41(5), 601-626. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-007-9089-z>
- Golden, T. D., & Fromen, A. (2011). Does it matter where your manager works? Comparing managerial work mode (traditional, telework, virtual) across subordinate work experiences and outcomes. *Human Relations*, 64(11), 1451-1475. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726711418387>
- Government Accountability Office. (2025). *Telework: Private Sector Stakeholder and Expert Views (GAO-25-107078)*. <https://www.gao.gov/products/gao-25-107078>
- Grant, C. A., Wallace, L. M., & Spurgeon, P. C. (2013). An exploration of the psychological factors affecting remote e-worker's job effectiveness, well-being and work-life balance. *Employee Relations*, 35(5), 527-546. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-08-2012-0059>
- Green, N., Tappin, D., & Bentley, T. (2017). Exploring the Teleworking Experiences of Organisations in a Post-Disaster Environment. *New Zealand Journal of Human Resources Management*, 17(1), 1-19.
- Groen, B. A. C., van Triest, S. P., Coers, M., & Wtenweerde, N. (2018). Managing flexible work arrangements: Teleworking and output controls. *European Management Journal*, 36(6), 727-735. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2018.01.007>
- Gschwind, L., & Vargas, O. (2019). *Telework and its effects in Europe. Telework in the 21st Century*. <https://www.elgaronline.com/view/edcoll/9781789903744/9781789903744.00007.xml>
- Harker Martin, B., & MacDonnell, R. (2012). Is telework effective for organisations?: A meta-analysis of empirical research on perceptions of telework and organisational outcomes. *Management Research Review*, 35(7), 602-616. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409171211238820>
- Harris, L. (2003). Home-based teleworking and the employment relationship: Managerial challenges and dilemmas. *Personnel Review*, 32(4), 422-437. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480310477515>
- Hartung, B. (2015). *Work Flexibility, Telework, and an Evolving Workplace*. Vanguard University. <https://doi.org/10.19099/fstp.091503>
- Hjorthol, R., & Nossun, Å. (2008). Teleworking: A reduction in travel or just increased flexibility? *Journal of eWorking*, 2(1).
- International Standard Classification of Education. (2021). *Classification of Education*. [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=International_Standard_Classification_of_Education_\(ISCED\)](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=International_Standard_Classification_of_Education_(ISCED))

- Kazekami, S. (2020). Mechanisms to improve labor productivity by performing telework. *Telecommunications Policy*, 44(2), 101868. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.telpol.2019.101868>
- Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2010). Doing more with less? Flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 83-106. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726709349199>
- Khan, M. R., Wajidi, F. A., & Sadaf, A. (2020). Effects of Communication on Employee Motivation: Study of Pakistan's State-Owned Oil Company. *Journal of Business & Economics*, 12(1), 77-84.
- Kitou, E., & Horvath, A. (2007). External air pollution costs of telework. *The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, 13(2), 155. <https://doi.org/10.1065/lca2007.06.338>
- Kowalski, B. K., & Swanson, J. A. (2005). Critical success factors in developing teleworking programs. Benchmarking: *An International Journal*, 12(3), 236-249. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14635770510600357>
- Lal, B., & Dwivedi, Y. K. (2010). Investigating homeworkers' inclination to remain connected to work at "anytime, anywhere" via mobile phones. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 23(6), 759-774. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17410391011088628>
- Lari, A. (2012). Telework/Workforce Flexibility to Reduce Congestion and Environmental Degradation? *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 48, 712-721. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.1049>
- Lee, T., Arnold, L., Wagner, J., Samorano, E., & Morgan, A. (2011). *Telework within the Bureau of Reclamation Lower Colorado Region office*. <https://doi.org/10.34917/2131189>
- Lund, S., Madgavkar, A., Manyika, J., & Smit, S. (2020). what's next for remote work: An analysis of 2,000 tasks, 800 jobs, and nine countries. *McKinsey Global Institute*. <https://www.mckinsey.com/featured-insights/future-of-work/whats-next-for-remote-work>
- Mahler, J. (2012). The Telework Divide: Managerial and Personnel Challenges of Telework. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 32(4), 407-418. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X12458127>
- Marissa L., S., Christopher W., W., Eduardo, S., & C. Shawn, B. (2010). Leading One Another Across Time and Space: Exploring Shared Leadership Functions in Virtual Teams. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, 26(1), 3-17. <https://doi.org/10.5093/tr2010v26n1a1>
- Martínez S., A., Pérez, M., de Luis Carnicer, P., & José Vela Jiménez, M. (2007). Teleworking and workplace flexibility: A study of impact on firm performance. *Personnel Review*, 36(1), 42-64. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480710716713>
- Maruyama, T., Hopkinson, P. G., & James, P. W. (2009). A multivariate analysis of work-life balance outcomes from a large-scale telework programme. *New Technology*,

- Work and Employment*, 24(1), 76-88. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-005X.2008.00219.x>
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An Integrative Model Of Organizational Trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(3), 709-734. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1995.9508080335>
- Meadows, V. (2008). Versatile bureaucracy: A telework case study. *Public Manager*, 36(4).
- Mele, V., Belardinelli, P., & Bellé, N. (2023). Telework in public organizations: A systematic review and research agenda. *Public Administration Review*, 83(6), 1649-1666. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.13734>
- Molino, M., Ingusci, E., Signore, F., Manuti, A., Giancaspro, M. L., Russo, V., Zito, M., & Cortese, C. G. (2020). Wellbeing Costs of Technology Use during Covid-19 Remote Working: An Investigation Using the Italian Translation of the Technostress Creators Scale. *Sustainability*, 12(15), 5911. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12155911>
- Mouratidis, K., & Papagiannakis, A. (2021). COVID-19, internet, and mobility: The rise of telework, telehealth, e-learning, and e-shopping. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, 74, 103182. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2021.103182>
- Nakrošienė, A., Bučiūnienė, I., & Goštautaitė, B. (2019). Working from home: Characteristics and outcomes of telework. *International Journal of Manpower*, 40(1), 87-101. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJM-07-2017-0172>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development - OECD. (2020). OECD Digital Economy Outlook (2020). OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/bb167041-en>
- Ojala, S., Nätti, J., & Anttila, T. (2014). Informal overtime at home instead of telework: Increase in negative work-family interface. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 34(1/2), 69-87. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSSP-03-2013-0037>
- Olsen, H. M., Brown, W. J., Kolbe-Alexander, T., & Burton, N. W. (2018). Physical activity and sedentary behaviour in a flexible office-based workplace: Employee perceptions and priorities for change. *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, 29(3), 344-352. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hpja.164>
- PAQ Research & Czech Technical University in Prague. (2020). *How to live in the Czech Republic during the coronavirus: results of a sociological survey*. <https://www.paqresearch.cz>
- Pérez, M. P., Sánchez, A. M., & de Luis Carnicer, M. P. (2002). Benefits and barriers of telework: Perception differences of human resources managers according to company's operations strategy. *Technovation*, 22(12), 775-783. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4972\(01\)00069-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4972(01)00069-4)
- Perry, S. J., Rubino, C., & Hunter, E. M. (2018). Stress in remote work: Two studies testing the Demand-Control-Person model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 27(5), 577-593. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2018.1487402>
- Peters, P., Wetzels, C., & Tijdens, K. (2008). Telework: Timesaving or Time-Consuming? An Investigation into Actual Working Hours. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Economics*, 19(4), 421-442. <https://doi.org/10.1177/02601079X08001900407>

- Popescu, A. M. (2019). *Tele-Working in European Legislation and the Romanian Law System*. <https://doi.org/10.5281/ZENODO.3550084>
- Proffitt, K. (2025). Benefits of remote work for both employees & employers. *HRMorning*. <https://www.hrmorning.com/articles/benefits-of-remote-work-for-employees-employers/>
- Redman, T., Snape, E., & Ashurst, C. (2009). Location, Location, Location: Does Place of Work Really Matter? *British Journal of Management*, 20, S171-S181. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2008.00640.x>
- Sarbu, M. (2018). The role of telecommuting for work-family conflict among German employees. *Research in Transportation Economics*, 70, 37-51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.retrec.2018.07.009>
- Schuster, C., Weitzman, L., Sass Mikkelsen, K., Meyer-Sahling, J., Bersch, K., Fukuyama, F., Kay, K. (2020). Responding to COVID-19 through Surveys of Public Servants. *Public Administration Review*, 80(5), 792-796. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.13246>
- Shaw, S. M., Andrey, J., & Johnson, L. C. (2003). The Struggle for Life Balance: Work, Family, and Leisure in the Lives of Women Teleworkers. *World Leisure Journal*, 45(4), 15-29. <https://doi.org/10.1080/04419057.2003.9674333>
- Simosi, M. (2010). The role of social socialisation tactics in the relationship between socialization content and newcomers' affective commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(3), 301-327. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941011023758>
- Smith, S. A., Patmos, A., & Pitts, M. J. (2018). Communication and Teleworking: A Study of Communication Channel Satisfaction, Personality, and Job Satisfaction for Teleworking Employees. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 55(1), 44-68. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2329488415589101>
- Ștefănescu, A.C. (2009). Telework on international, European and Romanian level - regulation, definition, specific and legal nature. *Law Magazine. Avocatnet.ro no. 1*.
- Tavares, F., Santos, E., Diogo, A., & Ratten, V. (2021). Teleworking in Portuguese communities during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 15(3), 334-349. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEC-06-2020-0113>
- Thulin, E., Vilhelmson, B., & Johansson, M. (2019). New Telework, Time Pressure, and Time Use Control in Everyday Life. *Sustainability*, 11(11), 3067. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11113067>
- Tokarchuk, O., Gabriele, R., & Neglia, G. (2021). Teleworking during the Covid-19 Crisis in Italy: Evidence and Tentative Interpretations. *Sustainability*, 13(4), 2147. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13042147>
- Torten, R., Reaiche, C., & Caraballo, Ervin. L. (2016). Teleworking in the new milleneum. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 50(5), 317-326. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jda.2016.0060>
- Trexima. (2025). Handbook for HR and employee remuneration. <https://ppropo.mpsv.cz/IV4Vykonpracemimopracovistezames>

- Turetken, O., Jain, A., Quesenberry, B., & Ngwenyama, O. (2011). An Empirical Investigation of the Impact of Individual and Work Characteristics on Telecommuting Success. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 54(1), 56-67. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TPC.2010.2041387>
- van Barneveld, K., Quinlan, M., Kriesler, P., Junor, A., Baum, F., Chowdhury, A., ... Rainnie, A. (2020). The COVID-19 pandemic: Lessons on building more equal and sustainable societies. *Economic and Labour Relations Review*, 31(2), 133-157. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1035304620927107>
- van der Merwe, F. I., & Smith, D. C. (2014). Telework: Enablers and Moderators when Assessing Organisational Fit. In *Proceedings of the Southern African Institute for Computer Scientist and Information Technologists Annual Conference 2014 on SAICSIT 2014 Empowered by Technology - SAICSIT '14*, 323-333. Centurion, South Africa: ACM Press. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2664591.2664599>
- Vrchota, J., Maříková, M., & Řehoř, P. (2020). Teleworking in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) before the onset of coronavirus crisis in the Czech Republic. *Management*, 25(2), 151-164. <https://doi.org/10.30924/mjcmi.25.2.8>
- Vrchota, J., Z. Frantíková, Z., & Vlčková, M. (2019). Why Some SME's in the Czech Republic Adopt Telework and Others Not?, *European Countryside*, 11(4), 599-615. <https://doi: 10.2478/euco-2019-0033>.
- Yossef, M. W., Ahmed, M. N. A., & Ragheb, M. A. S. (2020). Business Environment and Their Readiness to Implement the Teleworking: A Field Study on the Application of the Egyptian Private Commercial Banks. *OALib*, 07(11), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1106578>