Perceived privacy in home office and musculoskeletal complaints: a test of family–work conflict, work–family conflict, and relaxation as mediators

Milena Sina Wütschert1,3 · Diana Pereira2 · Andrea Eggli2 · Hartmut Schulze3 · Achim Elfering1

Received: 2 July 2021 / Accepted: 18 October 2022 / Published online: 29 October 2022
© The Author(s) 2022

Abstract
Many employees have had to telework all year during the COVID-19 pandemic. Even though working from home has many advantages, there are also some disadvantages worth to consider. Lack of privacy is a relevant factor when it comes to the development of severe musculoskeletal issues. This study investigated the link between perceived privacy in home office and musculoskeletal complaints (MSCs). Family–work conflict (FWC), work–family conflict (WFC), and relaxation were tested as potential mediators for the relationship between perceived privacy and MSCs. The present study’s questionnaire was filled out by 287 teleworking employees. Hypotheses were tested via multiple mediation analyses examining levels of perceived privacy in home office, and its relationship on MSCs. Furthermore, the underlying effect of FWC, WFC, and MSCs were tested with a structural equation model. As assumed, lack of privacy while working at home was linked to individuals more frequently experiencing MSCs. However, the structural equation model showed no significant mediation effect. Work design efforts must address privacy while employees perform telework at home to prevent MSCs.

Keywords Home office · Privacy · Musculoskeletal complaints · Family–work conflict · Work–family conflict · Relaxation
Introduction

The ongoing COVID-19 pandemic has forced employees around the world to telework part and full time from home. A variety of definitions exist for the term “telework” (Berg et al. 2021; Felstead and Jewson 2002; Jaakson and Kallaste 2010). Before the COVID-19 pandemic, telework was perceived as one of several types of work differing from traditional office work. Telework is characterized by employees’ increased use of information and communications technologies (ICTs), which allow users to work from anywhere and at any time (Berg et al. 2021; Messenger and Gschwind 2016). Many companies allowed employees to telework from home for one or two days per week. In the literature, consistent evidence has shown the positive effects teleworking on job performance, satisfaction (e.g., Bentley et al. 2013; de Menezes and Kelliher 2011; Kroll and Nuesch 2019), and absenteeism (e.g., Benach et al. 2012; Higgins et al. 2014; Joyce et al. 2010; Kossek et al. 2006).

Due to the current COVID-19 pandemic, many employees are now permanently working from home. Depending on their home environment, employees may not experience workplace flexibility or privacy because they must use what their home provides in terms of ergonomics and infrastructure, leading to a lack of perceived privacy. Therefore, the present study examined how levels of perceived privacy in home office affect influences the likelihood of employees’ experiencing musculoskeletal complaints (MSCs) while working from home and whether boundary management mediates the relationship between perceived privacy and musculoskeletal complaints (MSCs).

The level of perceived privacy in home office as an environmental factor and MSCs

Stress research has mainly focused on the psychosocial factors that influence job performance, job satisfaction, strain, and employee health. However, some theoretical models of stress at work have included the physical environment as an additional factor (Haapakangas et al. 2014; Vischer and Wifi 2017). The person–environment fit (P–E fit) approach (Dewe et al. 2012) states that employees exist in a person–environment interaction system in which they continuously change their environment while adapting and adjusting their behavior to it (Dewe et al. 2012; Vischer and Wifi 2017). The Person–Environment Fit approach is comprehensive in that it can be applied in any context where the individual responds to the environment and the object within it. The model considers (1) the Need–Supplies Fit, that is, to what extent the design of the environment matches the personal needs and (2) the Demand–Ability Fit, that is, whether the demand of the environment matches the capabilities of the individual (Dewe et al. 2012; Vischer and Wifi 2017). Regarding to the home office, there is a knowledge gap concerning both fits. Currently, little is known in the literature about how the work environment at home is designed or individual living conditions look like (Hax-Noske 2019). According to Altman (1975), it is precisely the territoriality in the home office that can
be challenging. The primary territory is in the permanent possession of one person (e.g., own workroom). It offers a high degree of intimacy and privacy, and the owner has complete power of disposition and access control. The secondary territories are used by several people. There is a shared control of access and disposition. The right of use may not be sufficiently clarified among the persons, which can lead to conflict potential. It can, therefore, be seen that it is precisely the second territory to which the home office can be assigned those harbors certain potential for conflict regarding the perceived privacy in home office. Vieira and Meirinhos (2021) and Wütschert et al. (2021) studies provided additional evidence that perceived privacy among home-based teleworkers may play a supporting role in mental health. The construct of perceived privacy is associated with disturbance and distraction and represents the perceived control of outside stimuli regarding to visual privacy and acoustic privacy (Wohlers and Hertel 2017; Elsbach and Pratt 2007; Haapakangas et al. 2018a, b). The literature shows that perceived lack of privacy is a significant stress factor (Pejtersen et al. 2006; Danielsson and Bodin 2009; Haapakangas et al. 2018a, b). Perceived lack of privacy can facilitate acute stress reactions and can be related to mental and physical health issues (Haapakangas et al. 2018a, b; Lee and Brand 2010; Haapakangas 2014). Work strain includes the psychological (emotional and cognitive), behavioral (fight and flight), and physiological (autonomic and neuroendocrine functions) reactions to work demands (work stressors) (Allen et al. 2017; Ganster and Rosen 2013). Work strain, in turn, is also related to MSCs. MSCs include injuries and disorders of the muscles, nerves, tendons, ligaments, joints, cartilage, and spinal disks (Burton and WHO 2010). Repetitive strain injuries, also known as cumulative trauma disorders, are also a type of MSCs. These disorders are not immediately apparent and can take days, months, or years before they affect an employee (Burton and WHO 2010). Eatough et al. (2012) showed that work strain mediated the relationship between work stressors and work-related MSCs (Lundberg and Melin 2002). Several studies have shown that work strain causes muscle tension triggered by mental (Elfering 2006; Elfering and Mannion 2008; McFarlane 2007) or physical stress (Elfering et al. 2002, 2008). While Aegerter et al. (2021) study found no evidence of an increase in employee neck pain during the COVID-19 pandemic, their results highlighted the effect psychosocial factors have on teleworkers. Aegerter et al. (2021) suggested that further studies are needed to clarify these psychosocial factors’ influence.

The underlying mechanisms among the relationship between the level of perceived privacy in home office and MSCs

Boundary management and recovery

As Eatough et al. (2012) postulated, job-related stressors, such as perceived privacy in Ome Offices, may have more complex effects on MSCs beyond simple bivariate relationships, suggesting that there are underlying mechanisms involved. There are already multiple theoretical models speculating the mechanisms underlying the association between job-related stressors and MSC; however, the results remain
inconsistent (Eatough et al. 2012). Thus, more research investigating the underlying mechanisms is needed. In this paper, we suppose that boundary management and relaxation are crucial in the relationship between perceived privacy in home office and MSCs.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, boundaries have disappeared in employee’s homes, leading work, and family activities to occur in the same space on a permanent basis. This situation makes boundary management more challenging (Allen et al. 2021). Boundary management is defined as the way individuals create, maintain, and change boundaries to navigate the world, including their work and private roles (Allen et al. 2021; Ashforth et al. 2000; Kreiner et al. 2009). Boundary theory is rooted in organization role theory (Biddle 1986; Kahn et al. 1964; Katz and Kahn 1978). Katz and Kahn (1978) define an organization as an open system of roles. Boundaries that are related to work and family can be delineated by the expected behaviors for each role, which determines how individuals manage these boundaries. However, when it is difficult to transition between roles, boundaries can be a source of conflict. Inter-role conflict occurs when role pressures associated with membership in one group conflict with role pressures related to membership in another group. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) define family–work conflict (FWC) and work–family conflict (FWC) as “a form of inter-role conflict in which work, and family roles are not aligned in some respect” (p. 77).

Spending extended time in a home office leads boundaries to disappear between work and private life. The disappearance of these boundaries impacts not only work but also recovery. Demerouti et al. (2007) define recovery as “the sense of urgency that people feel to take a break from their demands when fatigue is building up” (p. 2). Typical indicators of the need for recovery are employees’ finding it difficult to relax at the end of a working day, requiring days off to rest and feeling tired when they start a new working day. Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) characterize relaxation as characterize relaxation as a period of low activation with positive effects on mental and physical well-being. Meijman et al. (1992) effort–recovery theory attempts to explain the importance of relaxation. Its main premise is that effort expenditure at work is associated with stress responses. In optimal conditions, stress responses return to pre-stressor levels during off-hours, and employees completely recover before the start of the next day. However, if stress reactions persist or recur during leisure time, the recovery phase cannot be completed, which not only influences people’s health but also their everyday behavior. For example, when people are not fully recovered, they find it difficult to fulfill their general responsibilities at work and in social life (Demerouti et al. 2007). The disappearance of boundaries between work and home suggests that perceived privacy may be associated with relaxation.

Demerouti et al. (2007) emphasized in their longitudinal study that stress experienced in the home environment spill over into and influence participation in one’s work environment. Conflicts are characterized by a spillover of negative emotions from one area into another. Home-based teleworkers’ lack of privacy may affect work performance and recovery, which, from a long-term perspective, may increase the likelihood of developing MSCs (Sonnentag 2018). The question about the role of FWC, WFC, and relaxation in the relationship between perceived privacy in home
office and MSCs also arose. We hypothesized that FWC, WFC, and relaxation act as mediators for this relationship.

**Methods**

**Purpose**

In light of the ongoing COVID-19 crisis and resulting developments, the relationship between boundary management regarding work’s interference with family, family’s interference with work, and associated health effects should be explored in more detail. According to our knowledge, there are no published studies about how perceived privacy in home office is related to MSCs and about the underlying mechanisms. Furthermore, Demerouti et al. (2007) emphasized in their longitudinal study that stress experienced in the home environment spill over into and influence participation in one’s work environment. Conflicts are characterized by a spillover of negative emotions from one area into another. Home-based teleworkers’ lack of privacy may affect work performance and recovery, which, from a long-term perspective, may increase the likelihood of developing MSCs (Pereira and Elfering 2014; Sonnentag 2018). The question about the role of FWC, WFC, and relaxation in the relationship between perceived privacy in home office and MSCs also arose. We, therefore, hypothesized that perceived privacy is related to MSCs and that there are substantial underlying mechanisms (WFC, FWC, relaxation) that mediate the relationship between perceived privacy in home office and MSCs. The present cross-sectional study is intended to explore these relationships. The following hypotheses were formulated for the population of home-based teleworkers. Figure 1 visualizes the hypotheses in a mediation model.

H1: The level of perceived privacy is related to MSCs.
H2   Underlying mechanisms mediate the relationship between perceived privacy and MSCs.

H2a:  FWC mediates the relationship between perceived privacy and MSCs.

H2b:  WFC mediates the relationship between perceived privacy and MSCs.

H2c:  Relaxation mediates the relationship between perceived privacy and MSCs.

**Procedure**

The present study used a cross-sectional online survey that was distributed in Switzerland. The survey language was German. Participants were recruited through advertisements in magazines and on websites, as well as through social media such as LinkedIn (convenience sampling). This approach allowed us to recruit home-based teleworkers from different sectors. Answering the questionnaire online was time efficient for the participant. Prior to participation, all subjects were informed about the content of the study. They were told that participation is voluntary and that they could cancel at any time. They were further informed that the data would be used for scientific purposes only and would be stored and analyzed anonymously. We used Qualtrics as the platform to host the online survey. The data were collected over a three-month period from January to March 2021. This time span fell into the COVID-19 lockdown when Switzerland’s government recommended that people work from home. Due to convenience sampling, the participation rate could not be derived. Ethical approval (12.01.21, Ethics No. 2021-01-00001) was obtained from the Ethics Commission of the University of Bern, Switzerland prior to data collection. Only subjects between the age of 18 and 65 that telework a minimum of 1–2 days per week from home and possess age-appropriate health were included in the study.

**Sample**

The age of the participants ranged between 18 to 65 years (M 3.19, SD 0.99). The most common age category was 40–59 years (35.8%). Of the total number of participants, 193 (65%) were female, and 103 (35%) were male. Regarding relationship status, 115 (39%) of the respondents were married, 110 (37%) reported they were in a committed relationship, 50 (17%) were single, and 18 (7%) were separated or divorced. Among all participants, 145 (49%) had full-time employment, 231 participants (78%) attended higher education, such as university, and 65 (22%) had participated in an apprenticeship.

Regarding the family situation, 172 (58%) had no children, and 124 (42%) had children. Regarding their home office situation, 184 (63.5%) participants had a separate office room in their home while 112 (36.5%) did not. Silent work was done by 182 respondents (68%), 127 (43%) participants worked on a laptop, while 98 (33%) had a monitor, keyboard, and mouse in their home office. Fifty (17%) participants
stated that they appreciated their home office because they could balance family and work, and 65 (22%) appreciated having time flexibility. As to the reasons for a positive attitude towards home office, 44 (15%) of the respondents preferred working in a home office mainly because they experienced increased concentration, 71 (24%) preferred their home office to avoid conflicts at work, and 65 (22%) of respondents preferred to be alone when working.

**Measures**

**The perceived level of privacy in the home office**

Distractions and disturbances caused by lack of privacy in one’s home office were measured with four items. Originally, these items have been introduced for usage in activity-based work settings, but we adapted them for the home office setting. An example item was “How satisfied are you with the visual distinction of your home office, for example, the visibility by others, seeing others, being seen?” The items were answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not satisfied at all) to 5 (totally satisfied). Cronbach’s alpha in the present data was 0.88. Prior studies have already used the privacy sub-scale to validate self-rated productivity and well-being (et al. 2018a, b).

**Relaxation experience**

Relaxation experience was measured with one single item “In general, I can sit back and relax in my free time” from Sonnentag and Fritz’ (2007) Recovery Experience Questionnaire. This item was answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In the scale manual from Sonnentag and Fritz (2007), this item had the highest loading on the factor (p.213); therefore, it can be assumed that it is a valid item.

**Work–family conflict and family–work conflict**

WFC and FWC were measured with Netemeyer et al. (1996) scale, which has three items each. One item that evaluated WFC was “The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.” The WFC items were answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha in the present data was 0.80. One item that evaluated FWC was “The demands of my home and my family life interfere with work-related activities.” The FWC items were also answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha in the present study was 0.85. This scale has been applied and validated in a variety of work–life balance studies (Labrague et al. 2021; Rupert et al. 2012).
Musculoskeletal complaints

MSCs were measured with four items from the German version of the Cornell Musculoskeletal Discomfort Questionnaire (D-CMDQ) (Kreuzfeld et al. 2016). An example item was “During the last work week, how often did you experience aches, pains, or discomfort in (1) neck, (2) shoulders, (3) upper back, and (4) lower back.” These items were answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (several times every day). Cronbach’s alpha in the present study was 0.80. Prior studies have used the D-CMDQ, and it has shown validity regarding the measurement of workplace ergonomic conditions among computer workers (Osama et al. 2018; Vahdatpour et al. 2019).

Control variables

The present study controlled for age (1 ≤ 20 years; 2 = 20–29 years; 3 = 30–39 years; 4 = 40–59 years, 5 = 60–65 years) and gender (0 = male; 1 = female) because past studies have shown that age and gender affect MSCs in employees (Baur et al. 2018; Elfering et al. 2016). To take individual requirements into account, this study also controlled for full- or part-time employment, as suggested by Elfering et al. (2016).

Data analysis

We performed data analysis using R software 4.0.2. The strength of linear relationships between continuous variables was measured with a Pearson’s product-moment correlation. For the analysis, we used the packages lavaan and MVN, and for visualization, we used the packages semPlot and sjPlot.

To test our hypotheses, we conducted multiple mediation analyses with level of perceived privacy as the predictor FWC as well as WFC as mediators and MSCs as the dependent. Gender, age, and full- or part-time job were also entered into each model as control variables. The multiple mediation analysis was conducted following Preacher and Hayes (2004) recommendations, which included the steps by Baron and Kenny (1986) and estimated direct and indirect effects via bootstrapping, which does not require the assumption that the error is normally distributed (Preacher and Hayes 2004). When using the bootstrapped CI (lower limit of the CI [LL]; upper limit of the CI [UL]) procedure, mediation is indicated by the exclusion of zero from the CI for the indirect effect. If the bootstrapped CI does not include zero, then the mediating effect differs significantly from zero (Preacher and Hayes 2004). In this study, we estimated a 95% bias-corrected CI using 5,000 bootstrapped samples.

Additional analysis

Self-reported measures and cross-sectional studies are susceptible to common method bias (CMB). Podsakoff et al. (2012) recommended Harman’s one-factor test, in which all items measuring latent variables are loaded into one common factor. If
the total variance for a single factor is less than 50%, it is concluded that CMB does not affect the results. The first factor in the present study explained a total variance of 20%, so no common method bias was observed.

**Results**

**Descriptive statistics and correlations**

Means and standard deviations for all relevant variables and bivariate correlations are reported in Table 1. The level of perceived privacy in home office was negatively related to MSCs \( r(287) = -0.252, p < 0.01 \) and FWC \( r(287) = -0.170, p < 0.01 \). Relaxation was negatively associated with MSCs \( r(287) = -0.204, p < 0.01 \), FWC \( r(287) = -0.244, p < 0.01 \) and WFC \( r(287) = -0.399, p < 0.01 \). Age was positively related to the level of perceived privacy in the home office \( r(287) = 0.246, p < 0.01 \). Men had significantly more MSCs \( r(287) = -0.182, p < 0.01 \) than women and a significantly lower level of perceived privacy \( r(287) = 0.142, p < 0.05 \). Part-time work was positively associated with the level of perceive privacy in home office \( r(287) = 0.163, p < 0.01 \).

**Confirmatory factor analysis**

The data were not normally distributed; therefore, we used the bias-corrected 5,000 bootstrapped method (Preacher and Hayes 2004). Due to the non-normal distribution, the robust maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was used to calculate a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The CFA was conducted to examine convergent and discriminant validity. The convergent validity is the degree of confidence that a trait is measured well by its indicators (Campbell and Fiske 1959). Discriminant validity evaluates the extent to which each construct in the model differs from the other constructs (Bagozzi et al. 1991). The convergent validity of the measurement model can be evaluated by the average variance extracted (AVE) and the composite reliability (CR). AVE measures the level of variance captured by a construct versus the level caused by measurement error. Values above 0.7 are considered very good, whereas 0.5 is acceptable (Fornell and Larcker 1981). CR is a less biased estimate of reliability than Cronbach’s alpha; the acceptable values of CR are 0.7 and above (Bagozzi et al. 1991). All constructs exceeded the recommended values. Table 2 shows evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of all the reflective latent constructs.

The CFA was also used to assess measurement model fit. To judge how well the model represented the data, fit indices such as the \( \chi^2 \) statistic, the non-normed fix index (NNFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) were used. A normed \( \chi^2 \) should be lower than 3.0 (Mal-kanthie, 2018). For NNFI, values larger than 0.95 or 0.97 constitute a good fit with an NNFI near 1 represents a perfect fit. For CFI, values larger than 0.95 constitute a good fit, and values above 0.90 mark an acceptable fit (Medsker et al. 1994). For the SRMR, it has been suggested that values below 0.05 constitute a good fit, while
Table 1  Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlations

|                      | Mean  | SD    | 1    | 2     | 3     | 4     | 5     | 6     | 7     | 8     |
|----------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Privacy in HO     | 3.927 | 1.032 | 1    |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 2. MSCs              | 1.805 | 0.758 | -0.252** | 1    |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 3. FWC               | 1.342 | 0.491 | -0.170** | 0.007 | 1    |       |       |       |       |       |
| 4. WFC               | 1.860 | 0.788 | -0.048 | 0.066 | 0.319** | 1    |       |       |       |       |
| 5. Relaxation        | 3.736 | 0.966 | 0.094 | -0.204** | -0.244** | -0.399** | 1    |       |       |       |
| 6. Part-time work    | 8.494 | 1.857 | 0.163** | -0.013 | -0.046 | 0.077 | -0.045 | 1    |       |       |
| 7. Age               | 3.199 | 0.993 | 0.246** | -0.045 | 0.041 | 0.193** | -0.033 | -0.025 | 1    |       |
| 8. Sex *             | 0.347 | 0.477 | 0.142* | -0.182** | 0.084 | -0.033 | 0.023 | 0.291** | 0.168** | 1    |

N=287

HO home office; MSCs musculoskeletal complaints; FWC family–work conflict; WFC work–family conflict

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, two tailed

*0 = male, 1 = female
### Table 2  CFA model: convergent and discriminant validity

| Construct   | $R^2$ Estimate | Standardized loading ($\beta$) | CR   | AVE | $\alpha$ |
|-------------|----------------|-------------------------------|------|-----|---------|
| Privacy HO  | 0.87           |                               | 0.63 | 0.63| 0.88    |
| Privacy1    | 0.63           | 0.80***                       |      |     |         |
| Privacy2    | 0.53           | 0.73***                       |      |     |         |
| Privacy3    | 0.65           | 0.80***                       |      |     |         |
| Privacy4    | 0.72           | 0.85***                       |      |     |         |
| FWC         |                |                               | 0.80 | 0.57| 0.85    |
| FWC1        | 0.64           | 0.80***                       |      |     |         |
| FWC2        | 0.53           | 0.73***                       |      |     |         |
| FWC3        | 0.56           | 0.75***                       |      |     |         |
| WFC         |                |                               | 0.80 | 0.67| 0.80    |
| WFC1        | 0.49           | 0.70***                       | 0.86 |     |         |
| WFC2        | 0.84           | 0.92***                       |      |     |         |
| WFC3        | 0.60           | 0.83***                       |      |     |         |
| MSCs        |                |                               | 0.82 | 0.53| 0.80    |
| MSCs1       | 0.67           | 0.82***                       |      |     |         |
| MSCs2       | 0.64           | 0.80***                       |      |     |         |
| MSCs3       | 0.58           | 0.76***                       |      |     |         |
| MSCs4       | 0.24           | 0.50***                       |      |     |         |

*N* = 287

$CR$ composite reliability; $AVE$ average variance extracted; $\alpha$ Cronbach’s alpha; $HO$ home office; $FWC$ family–work conflict; $WFC$ work–family conflict; $MSCs$ musculoskeletal complaints

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, two-tailed*

### Table 3  Goodness of fit statistics

|                 | $\chi^2$ | df  | $p$   | CFI $^b$ | RMSEA $^c$ | AIC $^d$ |
|-----------------|----------|-----|-------|----------|------------|----------|
| CFA: user model | 106.289  | 71  | <0.000| 0.980    | 0.041      | 202.289  |
| CFA: baseline model | 1847.439 | 91  | <0.000| 0.000    | 0.256      | 1903.439 |

*N* = 287

$\chi^2$ chi-square value; df degrees of freedom; $p$ p value of minimum discrepancy; CFI comparative fit index; RMSEA root–mean-square error of approximation; AIC aikake information criterion

$a$The model is considered as fit to the data if the $\chi^2$ value is low relative to the degree of freedom with an insignificant $p$ value ($p < 0.05$) (Malkanthie 2018)

$b$The comparative fit index (CFI) > 0.90 reflect an acceptable fit between the model and the data (Malkanthie 2018)

$c$Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) value < 0.05 reflects a good fit of the model (Schermelleh-Engel et al. 2003). RMSEA is a measure of fit that considers the population moments rather than sample moments

$d$Aikake information criterion (AIC) should be as low as possible in model comparing (Malkanthie 2018)
values in the 0.05 to 0.10 range are an acceptable fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1992). The measurement model provided a good fit for the data \( \chi^2 (71) = 1.26 \) (\( n = 269 \)), \( p < 0.001 \); NNFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.98; SRMR = 0.04]. Further fit indices of the user model and baseline model are shown in Table 3. The CFA user model supported the hypothetical factor structure better than the CFA baseline model.

The standardized path coefficient \( \beta \) from the CFA showed the relationship between the constructs. There was a significant relationship between the level of perceived privacy in the home office and FWC (\( \beta = -0.183, p = 0.010 \)), level of perceived privacy in the home office, and MSCs (\( \beta = -0.268, p < 0.001 \)) as well as WFC and FWC (\( \beta = 0.354, p < 0.001 \)). The level of perceived privacy in the home office and WFC (\( \beta = -0.026, p = 0.692 \)), FWC, and MSCs (\( \beta = -0.015, p = 0.829 \)) as well as WFC and MSCs (\( \beta = 0.058, p = 0.390 \)) were not significant.

**Test of direct and indirect paths**

The test of direct paths showed that the level of perceived privacy in the home office was negatively related to MSCs and that this effect was significant (\( \beta = -0.18, SE = 0.04, p < 0.001 \)). The relationship of perceived privacy in the home office to FWC was significantly negative (\( \beta = -0.11, SE = 0.03, p < 0.001 \)). The relationship of FWC to MSCs was not negative, but not significant (\( \beta = -0.04, SE = 0.10, p = 0.282 \)). The relationship between the level of perceived privacy in the home office and WFC was significantly negative (\( \beta = -0.09, SE = 0.05, p = 0.004 \)), and the relationship between WFC and MSCs was positive, but not significant (\( \beta = 0.03, SE = 0.06, p = 0.662 \)). The level of perceived privacy in the home office had

| Table 4 | Regression results for multiple mediation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Direct and total effects | \( \beta \) | SE | \( t \) | \( p \) |
| Privacy HO \( \rightarrow \) MSCs | -0.18*** | 0.04 | -4.09 | 0.000 |
| Privacy HO \( \rightarrow \) Relaxation | 0.11 | 0.06 | 1.81 | 0.070 |
| Privacy HO \( \rightarrow \) FWC | -0.11*** | 0.03 | -3.63 | 0.001 |
| Privacy HO \( \rightarrow \) WFC | -0.09** | 0.05 | -1.88 | 0.004 |
| Relaxation \( \rightarrow \) MSCs | -0.15** | 0.05 | -3.06 | 0.002 |
| FWC \( \rightarrow \) MSCs | -0.04 | 0.10 | -1.08 | 0.282 |
| WFC \( \rightarrow \) MSCs | 0.03 | 0.06 | 0.44 | 0.662 |
| Bootstraps results for indirect effect | \( M \) | SE | LL 95% CI | UL 95% CI |
| Indirect Effect on Relaxation | -0.02 | 0.01 | -0.04 | 0.00 |
| Indirect Effect on FWC | 0.00 | 0.01 | -0.02 | 0.03 |
| Indirect Effect on WFC | -0.00 | 0.01 | -0.02 | 0.01 |

\( N = 287, \) Bootstrap size = 5000

\( LL \) lower limit; \( CI \) confidence interval; \( UL \) upper limit; \( HO \) home office; \( MSCs \) musculoskeletal complaints; \( FWC \) family–work conflict; \( WFC \) work–family conflict

\(* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001, \) two-tailed
a positive but non-significant relationship with relaxation ($\beta = 0.11, SE = 0.06, p = 0.070$). The relationship between relaxation and MSCs was significantly negative ($\beta = -0.15, SE = 0.05, p < 0.002$). Table 4 gives an overview over all direct effects.

To see whether there were significant indirect effects, we performed a multiple mediation analysis. FWC ($M = 0.00, CI = [-0.02, 0.03]$), WFC ($M = -0.00, CI = [-0.02, 0.01]$), and relaxation ($M = -0.02, CI = [-0.04, 0.00]$) did not act as mediators, as shown in Table 4. Figure 2 provides an overview over the present hypotheses and findings.

**Discussion**

The present study investigated the impact of the level of perceived privacy in home office on MSCs. Additionally, we examined the mediating effects of relaxation, FWC and WFC on the relationship of perceived privacy and MSCs. The data showed significant evidence that the level of perceived privacy in the home office has a negative association with MSCs. Consistent with our expectation, the evidence supports our assumption that the level of perceived privacy in the home office (e.g., opportunities to retreat) is a predictor of physical health. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. This finding is in line with Vischer’s (2007) environmental comfort model, which postulates that a balanced fit between employee (the demand of the environment matches with the abilities and skills of the individual) and workplace environment (appropriate workplace design) puts employees’ workloads into perspective, and thus, counteracts workplace stress (Dewe et al. 2012; Vischer and Wifi 2017). The level of perceived privacy in the home office belongs to Vischer’s (2007) third category, psychological comfort. Psychological comfort is defined as a feeling of belonging, ownership, and control over one’s workspace. Psychological comfort entails the concept of subjectively experienced privacy (Vischer 2007). One possible explanation for why a high level of perceived privacy in the home office led
to low MSCs is that perceived privacy can be influenced by the design of the physical workplace, such as physical features that separate the space between working and living environment (Fonner and Stache 2012; Kossek et al. 2006; Wohlers and Hertel 2017). When appropriating and controlling space, employees can change the meaning of a place in their home according to their interests (appropriation process). During the appropriation process, the employee’s behavior in the space is determined and defined by the employee (Wapshott and Mallett 2011). This control provides the individual with a sense of security, which in turn reduces perceived stress in the workplace (Vischer 2007; Wapshott and Mallett 2011). Perceived control over one’s work environment is assumed to reduce the impact of work stress and is positively associated with social relationships, environmental satisfaction, and job satisfaction (Vischer 2007). In the context of open workplace design, several studies highlighted the positive effects of high perceived privacy and well-being (Haapakangas et al. 2018a, b; Haapakangas et al. 2014; Hongisto et al. 2016).

Although FWC, WFC, and relaxation do not act as mediators, the present paper shows that relaxation acts as an independent predictor of MSCs whereas the level of perceived privacy acts as an independent predictor of FWC and WFC among home-based teleworkers. How can the observed lack of mediation be explained? A possible explanation for the non-significant mediation is provided by Wapshott and Mallett (2011). The authors emphasized that a person who can acquire a separate room or at least a certain area to work at home can find a symbolic mechanism to cognitively detach the connection between work and family, while other members of the family can recognize this room as a work zone. As a result, individuals experience fewer distractions, and others who share the environment understand the separation and follow specific rules to respect the individual’s space (Wapshott and Mallett 2011). Additionally, Solís (2016) showed in his research that increasing one’s number of teleworking days per week led to a reduction in family and work interference. This result is consistent with Hill et al. (2003) and Joyce et al.’s (2010) findings. Solís (2016) concluded that it is possible that the longer employees work from home, the better they can organize their time and develop strategies to avoid conflicts between work and family. According to Altman’s (1975) theory, it can be assumed that after a certain period of time, a consensus with the other family members on the right of use of the shared (space) areas will arise. Present sample was consisted of employees who have been working in homeoffice for at least 1 year. Thus, they may have already adapted in relation to the stressors (e.g., conflicts related to work and family) of their specific working environment in home office.

Limitations

Our results should be interpreted with caution for several reasons. First, it is well known from the literature that MSCs may not become immediately apparent in those suffering from them. It can take days, months, or even years for MSCs to affect a worker (Burton and WHO 2010). A sample that shows more variance in terms of FWC, WFC, and relaxation may lead to different results.
Second, the present study used self-reported measures and a cross-sectional design. Cross-sectional studies are sensitive to CMB. We controlled for CMB with the Herman factor, yet this study’s results were not supported with objective or extended data, such as interviews.

Third, in our sample, 184 (62%) of participants had their own workplace, and 231 (78%) worked in colleges and universities. In Switzerland, most academic institutions and their employees are advanced and knowledgeable about flexible working conditions.

Fourth, the present study is limited to Switzerland. The context of telework in other countries is not covered here. It is difficult to compare other countries, especially in the case of teleworking (Eurofound 2020). The progress of telework depends on the respective working conditions, which are handled differently from country to country (Kotera and Correa Vione 2020). Technological progress also necessarily differs between countries and must be considered, especially regarding teleworking (Eurofound 2020; Hosoda 2021; Morrison et al. 2019).

**Implication**

This study’s results underline the importance of environmental factors in establishing privacy in the home office. To avoid the consequences of workplace stress, workplace design must be adapted to the individual needs of each employee through ergonomic, organizational, and personal support by their employers (Mojtahedzadeh et al. 2021; Parker and Turner 2002; Parker et al. 2017). Employers should play an advisory role for employees to establish working conditions in their home offices and acquire self-management and work design skills, such as self-leadership and responsibility for the structuring of one’s work activities and motivational strategies (Dettmers and Clauß 2018; Mojtahedzadeh et al. 2021). Parker et al. (2017) emphasized that work design impacts individual work performance in four key categories of psychological mechanisms: motivation, knowledge, skill, and opportunity. These categories can support employees in learning to distance themselves from work, even when environmental factors are not optimal. Furthermore, breaks from work should not be spent on work-related activities. To enhance work detachment and avoid physical tension, employees should be as active as possible during breaks by exercising, stretching, or practicing progressive muscle relaxation or mindfulness exercises. To reduce possible role conflicts, workers should create time and space boundaries between their work and private life. If space is not available, then employees should consciously change their location during breaks. Work detachment can also be supported through fixed rituals before and after working (Mojtahedzadeh et al. 2021; Mustafa and Gold, 2013; Syrek et al. 2017). In today’s world, it cannot be assumed that every employee has his or her own room to work. Therefore, innovative approaches must be developed to show how privacy can be maintained in the home office with physical features and non-physical features, such as mental strategies. Sonnentag (2018) suggested that initiating processes that stimulate recovery (e.g., relaxation) is a powerful approach to countering the negative effects of job stressors. Therefore, these processes should be more thoroughly
examined. Sonnentag (2018) emphasized the importance of prioritizing recovery, especially because people who experience high levels of job stressors tend to not detach from work during non-work time [e.g., engage in less physical activity and have poor sleep quality; see also the meta-analysis from Sonnentag (2018)]. Furthermore, little research has been conducted regarding and the question how resources such as social support from supervisors (Chen et al. 2021; De Bloom and Keller 2021) or individual coping strategies (Chang et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2020) influence working from home. But precisely because the influence of these topics is so important for the design of future work models, they should be investigated.

Future research must be conducted to examine how a high level of perceived privacy can be created in the home office. In today’s world, it cannot be assumed that every employee has his or her own room to work. Therefore, innovative approaches must be developed to show how privacy can be maintained in the home office with physical features and non-physical features, such as mental strategies. Sonnentag (2018) suggested that initiating processes that stimulate recovery (e.g., relaxation) is a powerful approach to counteracting the negative effects of job stressors. Therefore, these processes should be more thoroughly examined. Sonnentag (2018) emphasized the importance of prioritizing recovery, especially because people who experience high levels of job stressors tend to not detach from work during non-work time [e.g., engage in less physical activity and have poor sleep quality; see also the meta-analysis from Sonnentag (2018)]. Furthermore, little research has been conducted regarding and the question how resources such as social support from supervisors (Chen et al. 2021; De Bloom and Keller, 2021) or individual coping strategies (Chang et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2020) influences working from home. But precisely because the influence of these topics is so important for the design of future work models, they should be investigated in the future.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the link between perceived privacy in home offices and MSCs. Furthermore, FWC, WFC, and relaxation were tested as potential mediators for the relationship between perceived privacy and MSCs. The significant results show that a lack of privacy while working at home was linked to individuals more frequently experiencing MSCs. This study is making an important contribution to the field of work and organizational psychology. To the best of our knowledge, the impact of the level of perceived privacy on home-based teleworkers has not yet been investigated in relation to MSCs.

Acknowledgements We thank all participants who responded to our survey.

Author contributions All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection, and analysis were performed by [MSW]. The first draft of the manuscript was written by [MSW] and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.
**Funding**  Open access funding provided by University of Bern. This study was not supported by financial resources.

**Data availability**  The datasets are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

**Declarations**

**Conflict of interest**  The authors reported no potential conflict of interest.

**Ethical approval**  The Ethical approval (12.01.21, Ethics No. 2021-01-00001) was obtained from the Ethics Commission of the University of Bern, Switzerland prior to data collection.

**Informed consent**  Prior to participating, all subjects were informed of the study’s content and its voluntary participation, which could be canceled at any time. The participants were informed that the data would be used for scientific purposes and would be stored and analyzed anonymously. All participants gave written informed consent.

**Open Access**  This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article’s Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article’s Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit [http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

**References**

Aegerter AM, Deforth M, Johnston V et al (2021) No evidence for an effect of working from home on neck pain and neck disability among Swiss office workers: Short-term impact of COVID-19. Eur Spine J 30:1699–1707. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00586-021-06829-w](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00586-021-06829-w)

Allen AP, Kennedy PJ, Dockray S, Cryan JF, Dinan TG, Clarke G (2017) The trier social stress test: principles and practice. Neurobiol Stress 6:113–126. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ynstr.2016.11.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ynstr.2016.11.001)

Allen TD, Merlo K, Lawrence RC, Slutsky J, Gray CE (2021) Boundary management and work-nonwork balance while working from home. Appl Psychol 70:60–84. [https://doi.org/10.1111/app.12300](https://doi.org/10.1111/app.12300)

Altman I (1975) The environment and social behavior: privacy, personal space, territory, and crowding. ERIC, California

Ashforth BE, Kreiner GE, Fugate M (2000) All in a day’s work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. Acad Manag Rev 25:472–491

Bagozzi RP, Yi Y, Phillips LW (1991) Assessing construct validity in organizational research. Adm Sci Q 36:421–458

Baron RM, Kenny DA (1986) The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. J Pers Soc Psychol 51:1173–1182

Baur H, Grebner S, Blasimann A, Hirschlumiller A, Kubosh EJ, Elfering A (2018) Work–family conflict and neck and back pain in surgical nurses. Int J Occup Saf 24:35–40. [https://doi.org/10.1080/10803548.2016.1263414](https://doi.org/10.1080/10803548.2016.1263414)

Benach J, Amable M, Muntaner C, Benavides FG (2012) The consequences of flexible work for health: are we looking at the right place? J Epidemiol Commun Health 56:405–406. [https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.56.6.405](https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.56.6.405)

Bentley T, McLeod L, Bosua R, Gloet M, Teo S, Rasmussen E, Tan F (2013) The future of work program: the trans-tasman telework survey New Zealand Work Research Institute AUT and IBES (Institute for a Broadband Enabled Society). The University of Melbourne, Melbourne

Berg J, Humblet M, Soares S (2021) Working from home: from invisibility to decent work. Biddle BJ (1986) Recent developments in role theory. Annu Rev Sociol 12:67–92
Browne MW, Cudeck R (1992) Alternative ways of assessing model fit. Sociol Methods Res 21:230–258
Burton J, World Health Organization (2010) WHO healthy workplace framework and model: Background and supporting literature and practices. World Health Organization, Geneva
Campbell DT, Fiske DW (1959) Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. Psychol Bull 56:81–105
Chang Y, Chien C, Shen LF (2021) Telecommuting during the coronavirus pandemic: Future time orientation as a mediator between proactive coping and perceived work productivity in two cultural samples. Pers. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110508
Chen JW, Lu L, Cooper CL (2021) The compensatory protective effects of social support at work in presenteeism during the coronavirus disease pandemic. Front Psychol. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.643437
Danielsson CB, Bodin L (2009) Difference in satisfaction with office environment among employees in different office types. J Archit Plan Res 26:241–257
De Bloom J, Keller A (2021) Making telework work: the upsides, downsides and the way forward (Part 2). Available via Blog 12 mei. https://www.rug.nl/hrm-ob/bloggen/making-telework-work-the-upsid es-downsides-and-the-way-forward-part-2. Accessed 30 August 2022
De Menezes LM, Kellihér C (2011) Flexible working and performance: A systematic review of the evidence for a business case. Int J Manag Rev 13:452–474
Demerouti E, Taris TW, Bakker AB (2007) Need for recovery, home–work interference and performance: Is lack of concentration the link? J Vocat Behav 71:204–220. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2007.06.002
Dettmers J, Clauß E (2018) Arbeitsgestaltungskompetenzen für flexible und selbstgestaltete Arbeitsbedingungen. Springer, Berlin
Dewe PJ, O’Driscoll MP, Cooper CL (2012) Theories of psychological stress at work. Handbook of occupational health and wellness. Springer, Boston, pp 23–38
Eatough EM, Way JD, Chang CH (2012) Understanding the link between psychosocial work stressors and work-related musculoskeletal complaints. Appl Ergon 43:554–563
Elfering A (2006) Work-related outcome assessment instruments. Eur Spine J. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00586-005-1047-7
Elfering A, Mannion AF (2008) Epidemiology and risk factors of spinal disorders. Spinal disorders. Springer, Berlin, pp 153–173
Elfering A, Grebner S, Semmer NK, Gerber H (2002) Time control, catecholamines, and back pain among young nurses. Scand J Work Environ Health. https://doi.org/10.5271/sjweh.690
Elfering A, Grebner S, Gerber H, Semmer NK (2008) Workplace observation of work stressors, catecholamines and musculoskeletal pain among male employees. Scand J Work Environ Health 34:337–344
Elfering A, Igic I, Keller AC, Meier LL, Semmer NK (2016) Work-privacy conflict and musculoskeletal pain: A population-based test of a stress-sleep-mediation model. Health Psychol 4:70–90
Elsbach KD, Pratt MG (2007) The physical environment in organizations. Acad Manag Ann 1:181–224
Eurofound (2020) Telework and ICT-based mobile work: Flexible working in the digital age. Eurofound, Dublin
Felstead A, Jewson N (2002) In work, at home. Routledge, London
Fonner KL, Stache LC (2012) All in a day’s work, at home: Teleworkers’ management of micro role transitions and the work–home boundary. New Technol Work Employ 27:242–257
Fornell C, Larcker DF (1981) Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: algebra and statistics. J Mark Res 18:382–388
Ganster DC, Rosen CC (2013) Work stress and employee health. J Manag 39:1085–1122. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313475815
Greenhaus JH, Beutell NJ (1985) Sources of conflict between work and family roles. Acad Manag Rev 10:76–88
Haapakangas A, Hongisto V, Hyöniä J, Kokko J, Keränen J (2014) Effects of unattended speech on performance and subjective distraction: the role of acoustic design in open-plan offices. Appl Acoust 86:1–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2014.04.018
Haapakangas A, Hallman DM, Mathiassen SE, Jahncke H (2018a) Self-rated productivity and employee well-being in activity-based offices: the role of environmental perceptions and workspace use. Build Environ 145:115–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2018.09.017
Haapakangas A, Hongisto V, Varjo J, Lahtinen M (2018b) Benefits of quiet workspaces in open-plan offices: evidence from two office relocations. J Environ Psychol 56:63–75. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenwp.2018.03.003

Hax-Noske C (2019) Der Arbeitsplatz im Homeoffice. Doctoral dissertation, Wien

Higgins C, Duxbury L, Julien M (2014) The relationship between work arrangements and work-family conflict. Work 48:69–81. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-141859

Hill EI, Ferris M, Märtinson V (2003) Does it matter where you work? A comparison of how three work venues (traditional office, virtual office, and home office) influence aspects of work and personal/family life. J Vocat Behav 63:220–241. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0001-8791(03)00042-3

Hongisto V, Haapakangas A, Varjo J, Helenius R, Koskela H (2016) Refurbishment of an open-plan office: environmental and job satisfaction. J Environ Psychol 45:176–191. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenwp.2015.12.004

Hosoda M (2021) Telework amidst the COVID-19 pandemic: effects on work style reform in Japan. ISSN International Centre 21:1059–1071. https://doi.org/10.1108/CG-09-2020-0390

Jaakson K, Kallaste E (2010) Beyond flexibility: Reallocation of responsibilities in the case of telework. New Technol Work Employ 25:196–209. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-005X.2010.00248.x

Joyce K, Pabayo R, Critchley JA, Bambra C (2010) Flexible working conditions and their effects on employee health and wellbeing. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD008009.pub2

Kahn RL, Wolfe DM, Quinn RP, Snoek JD, Rosenthal RA (1964) Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity. Wiley, London

Katz D, Kahn RL (1978) The social psychology of organizations. Wiley, London

Kossek EE, Lautsch BA, Eaton SC (2006) Telecommuting, control, and boundary management: Correlates of policy use and practice, job control, and work–family effectiveness. J Vocat Behav 68:347–367. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.07.002

Kotera Y, Correa Vione K (2020) Psychological Impacts of the New Ways of Working (NWW): A Systematic Review. Int J Environ Res Public Health. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17145080

Kreiner GE, Hollensbe EC, Sheep ML (2009) Balancing borders and bridges: Negotiating the work-home interface via boundary work tactics. Acad Manag Ann 52:704–730

Kreuzfeld S, Seibt R, Kumar M, Rieger A, Stoll R (2016) German version of the Cornell Musculoskeletal Discomfort Questionnaire (CMDQ): translation and validation. J Occup Med Toxicol 11:1–12

Kroll C, Nuesch S (2019) The effects of flexible work practices on employee attitudes: Evidence from a large-scale panel study in Germany. Int J Hum Resour 30:1505–1525. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2017.1289548

Labrague LJ, Ballad CA, Fronda DC (2021) Predictors and outcomes of work–family conflict among nurses. Int Nurs Rev 68:349–357

Lee SY, Brand JL (2010) Can personal control over the physical environment ease distractions in office workplaces? Ergonomics 53:324–335. https://doi.org/10.1080/00140130903389019

Lundberg U, Melin B (2002) Stress in the development of musculoskeletal pain: Avenues for the prevention of chronic musculoskeletal pain and disability. Avenues for the prevention of chronic musculoskeletal pain and disability. Elsevier Science, Amsterdam, pp 165–179

Malkanthie A (2018) Structural equation modeling with AMOS. LAP. https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.1960.4647

McFarlane AC (2007) Stress-related musculoskeletal pain. Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol 21:549–565

Medsker GJ, Williams LJ, Holahan PJ (1994) A review of current practices for evaluating causal models in organizational behavior and human resources management research. J Manag 20:439–464

Meijman TF, Mulder G, Van Dornomel M (1992) Workload of driving examiners: a psychophysiological field study. Enhancing industrial performances. Taylor & Francis, London, pp 245–260

Mesenger JC, Gschwind L (2016) Three generations of Telework: New ICT’s and the (R) evolution from Home Office to Virtual Office. New Technol Work Employ 31:195–208

Mojtahedzadeh N, Rohwer E, Lengen J, Harth V, Mache S (2021) Gesundheitsfördernde Arbeitsgestaltung im Homeoffice im Kontext der COVID-19-Pandemie. Zentralblatt Fuer Arbeitsmedizin Arbeitensschutz Ergon 71:69–74

Morrison J, Chigona W, Malanga DF (2019) Factors that influence information technology workers’ intention to telework: a South African perspective. SAICSIT 32:1–10. https://doi.org/10.1145/3351108.3351141
Mustafa M, Gold M (2013) ‘Chained to my work’? Strategies to manage temporal and physical boundaries among self-employed teleworkers. Hum Resour Manag J 23:413–429. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12009

Netemeyer RG, Boles JS, McMurrian R (1996) Development and validation of work–family conflict and family–work conflict scales. J Appl Psychol 81:400–410

Osama M, Ali S, Malik RJ (2018) Posture related musculoskeletal discomfort and its association with computer use among university students. J Pak Med Assoc 68:639–641

Parker SK, Turner N (2002) Work design and individual work performance: Research findings and an agenda for future inquiry. Psychological management of individual performance. Wiley, West Sussex, pp 69–93

Parker SK, Van den Broeck A, Holman D (2017) Work design influences: A synthesis of multilevel factors that affect the design of jobs. Acad Manag Ann 11:267–308

Pejtersen J, Allermann L, Kristensen TS, Poulsen OM (2006) Indoor climate, psychosocial work environment and symptoms in open-plan offices. Indoor Air 16:392–401. https://doi.org/10.1011/j.1600-0668.2006.00444.x

Pereira D, Elfering A (2014) Social stressors at work, sleep quality and psychosomatic health complaints - a longitudinal ambulatory field study. Stress Health 30:43–52

Podsakoff PM, MacKenzie SB, Podsakoff NP (2012) Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. Annu Rev Psychol 63:539–569. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.8.789

Preacher KJ, Hayes AF (2004) SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. Behav Res Meth Instrum Comput 36:717–731

Rupert PA, Stevanovic P, Hartman ERT, Bryant FB, Miller A (2012) Predicting work–family conflict and life satisfaction among professional psychologists. Prof Psychol Res Pr 43:341–348. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026675

Schermelleh-Engel K, Moosbrugger H, Müller H (2003) Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. Psychol Methods 8:23–74

Solís MS (2016) Telework: conditions that have a positive and negative impact on the work-family conflict. Acad Rev Latinoam De Adm 29:435–449. https://doi.org/10.1108/arl-a-2015-0289

Sonntag S (2018) The recovery paradox: portraying the complex interplay between job stressors, lack of recovery, and poor well-being. Res Organ Behav 38:169–185. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2018.11.002

Sonntag S, Fritz C (2007) The Recovery Experience Questionnaire: development and validation of a measure for assessing recuperation and unwinding from work. J Occup Health Psychol 12:204–221. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.3.204

Syrek CJ, Weigelt O, Peifer C, Antoni CH (2017) Zeigarnik’s sleepless nights: How unfinished tasks at the end of the week impair employee sleep on the weekend through rumination. J Occup Health Psychol. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000031

Vahdatpour B, Bozorgi M, Taheri MR (2019) Investigating musculoskeletal discomforts and their relation to workplace ergonomic conditions among computer office workers at Alzahra Hospital Isfahan Iran. Phys Med Rehabil Clin N Am 1:52–58. https://doi.org/10.22122/pmre.v1i2.19

Vieira DA, Meirinhos V (2021) COVID-19 Lockdown in Portugal: Challenges, strategies and effects on mental health. Trends Psychol 29:354–374

Vischer JC (2007) The effects of the physical environment on job performance: towards a theoretical model of workplace stress. Stress Health 23:175–184. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.1134

Vischer JC, Wifi M (2017) The effect of workplace design on quality of life at work. Handbook of environmental psychology and quality of life research. Springer, Cham, pp 387–400

Wang B, Liu Y, Qian J, Parker SK (2020) Achieving effective remote working during the COVID-19 pandemic: a work design perspective. Appl Psychol 70:16–59. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12290

Wapshott R, Mallett O (2011) The spatial implications of homeworking: A Lefebvrian approach to the rewards and challenges of home-based work. Organization 19:63–79. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350508411405376

Wohlers C, Hertel G (2017) Choosing where to work at work - towards a theoretical model of benefits and risks of activity-based flexible offices. Ergonomics 60:467–486. https://doi.org/10.1080/00140139.2016.1188220

Wütschert MS, Romano-Pereira D, Suter L, Schulze H, Elfering A (2021) A systematic review of working conditions and occupational health in home office. Work 17:1–14. https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-205239