

Telecommuting and Leadership Style

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Abstract

Telecommuting is an increasingly popular organizational dynamic that presents unique challenges for workers, managers, and human resources departments regarding how employees relate to their organizations, as well as what telecommuters need from their managers to be satisfied, committed employees. Much is known about how employees in private companies relate to their organizations in a standard work setting. However, little is understood about how teleworkers in government organizations relate to their organizations, and how managerial leadership behaviors influence the organizationally related outcomes of telecommuters. This article reviews some of the challenges with telecommuting, focusing on telecommuting's impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The article then presents a prominent leadership style dichotomy and assesses the impact of the two leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The substitutes for leadership are included in this assessment. To synthesize these literatures, the final section of the article combines telecommuting challenges and leadership style to suggest the leadership style that best mediates the negative aspects of telecommuting and is, therefore, most important for employees in a telecommuting environment. Areas for further research are also considered.

Keywords

telecommuting, leadership, leadership substitutes, telework, virtual

Introduction

Telecommuting (also known as telework, virtual work, off-site work, or flexible workplace) is an increasingly popular organizational dynamic that presents unique challenges for workers, managers, and human resources departments. Whether working

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from a home office, an off-site office, or while on the road, the isolated nature of the work environment introduces distinctive issues in how employees relate to their organizations when compared with the standard office workplace setting, as well as what telecommuters need from their managers and leaders to be satisfied, productive employees.

The information technology and logistical challenges of telework are well understood and are primary considerations in designing a successful telework program. Similarly, much is known about employees' relationships to their organizations in a standard work setting. However, less is understood about how teleworkers relate to their organizations, and how this relationship affects organizationally related outcomes, such as employee commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational performance (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). This review focuses on the job satisfaction and organizational commitment components and attempts to identify which managerial leadership style may potentially have a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the telecommuter. Accordingly, the question for this article is, "What do you need most when you do not see your manager?" From an organizational view, the question could be framed as "What leadership style best mitigates the problems associated with telecommuting, so that telecommuters are satisfied and committed employees?"

As a general framework, the article first reviews the research related to telecommuting and identifies the negative aspects unique to the telecommuting environment, with emphasis on employee isolation and impediments to communication, as well as the associated by-products of these challenges. Second, the article identifies two important employee outcomes that may be particularly relevant to the telecommuting context; employee satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The third major section reviews leadership style and the dichotomy between task-related style and relationship-related style, and the substitutes for leadership concept will be discussed as well. The final section of the article attempts to bring the preceding sections together to determine which managerial leadership style best mediates the negative aspects of telecommuting and is, therefore, most important for employees in a telecommuting environment. This synthesis is also intended to catalyze further research on the nexus of telecommuting and leadership.

Background and Context

Telework involves work arrangements in which an employee performs officially assigned duties at home or other worksites geographically convenient to the residence of the employee (U.S. Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 2006). Telework is a formal, information technology mediated, fully functional work setting, and is, therefore, distinct from simply "taking work home." In the literature, telework may also be called telecommuting, virtual office, remote work, or similar terms, and the terms should be considered interchangeable.

The concept of telecommuting has been around since the 1970s when Jack Niles first coined the term (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). The terms telecommuting and virtual

office first appeared in articles in Martino and Giuliano and interest has grown significantly in recent years. Journal publications have addressed a broad array of issues related to telecommuting, including workforce issues, technological issues, organizational issues, and environmental issues (Siha & Monroe, 2006). This review focuses on a workforce issue.

There are a number of other factors that must be addressed in any study of telecommuting, such as location, time spent telecommuting, and whether the decision to telecommute was voluntary. To facilitate a long-term view of a fully developed telecommuting arrangement and for the purpose of brevity, this article will make a number of assumptions about the main factors after a short review of their scope.

Feldman and Gainey (1997) produce a four-dimensional taxonomy to understand telecommuting arrangements. The first dimension is whether the telecommuting is full time or part time, the second is those who work fixed hours versus flexible schedules, the third is employees who work at home versus those who work in satellite offices with other telecommuters, and the fourth is whether the telecommuting is voluntary or organizationally initiated. Following the Feldman and Gainey taxonomy, this study will assume that a fully developed telecommuting arrangement involves full-time telecommuting with a flexible schedule for an employee who works at home and telecommutes voluntarily.

Taskin and Devos (2005) describe a commonly used typology in which telework is distinguished between permanent, alternative, and occasional arrangements. For this article, the fully developed telecommuting arrangement will be viewed as a permanent arrangement. Moreover, Reinsch documents that employee affect and trust vary with the duration of the telecommuting experience. Affect and trust initially drop on initiation of telecommuting, but slowly increase and stabilize after a duration of 13 months or more telecommuting (Reinsch, 1997). The long-term view of telecommuting used here assumes the arrangement has been in existence for greater than 13 months.

In sum, the analysis in this article takes the view that the telecommuting arrangement is voluntary, full time, and permanent, with a flexible schedule, and that the telecommuter works from home and has done so for more than 13 months.

Telecommuting Challenges

Ting explains that not only individuals' jobs should be considered but also the broader organizational context, such as coworkers and supervisory relationships, must be taken into account to find how individuals feel about their jobs. In summary, Ting states studies have shown that much of individuals' job satisfaction may derive from interactions within the broader job context, and not simply from the fulfillment of personal needs (Ting, 1997). The theoretical underpinning of this review is that telecommuting is likely to be related to affective job responses and work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It should be noted that there is often multicollinearity among these factors as well as other antecedents of job satisfaction, and the direction of causation is ambiguous (Park, 2004).

Manochehri and Pinkerton (2003) describe a number of challenges unique to the telecommuting context, including the nature of jobs, company culture, employee selection, providing the required infrastructure, awareness of legal considerations, monitoring and performance measurement, and employee isolation and communication. This review concentrates on the last two challenges, employee isolation, and communication. These challenges are likely to impact affective job responses, and can be influenced by managerial leadership behavior.

Isolation

According to Crandall and Gao (2005), a problem that many telecommuters report is isolation from the work culture. They are separated from both the work environment and, to some extent, their social environment. Some express concern that on-line relationships will substitute for face-to-face contact, thus disrupting normal hierarchical and interpersonal relationships. Telecommuters report concerns about the quality of peer relationships and may feel lonely and frustrated.

As I will detail in the following section, the problems with isolation (perceived and actual) appear in the relationship between telecommuters and their organizations, which rely primarily on psychological dimensions (rather than physical) to represent this relationship. These problems present themselves in the telecommuter's self-view and self-verification, concerns about being out-of-sight/out-of-mind and thereby missing opportunities for promotion and organizational reward, as well as concerns about being treated fairly. Telecommuter isolation also results in missing informal work interactions and informal learning.

Porter and McLaughlin (2006) argue that spatial distances between individuals and groups, the types of technologies in use, the types of organizational culture, the demographic variability within the organization, the degree of centralization, as well as the size, shape and type of organization are all major components of organizational context. Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, and Garud (2001) explain that a central theoretical and practical issue in the context of virtual work is whether the distance and dispersion it creates will weaken the relationship between virtual employees and their organizations. Furthermore, they state that by its nature, virtual work diminishes emphasis on the visible, tangible dimensions of organizations (e.g., offices, colocated employees), instead relying primarily on psychological dimensions (e.g., the perceptions of employees and others) to represent the organization. If an organization is to have meaning to individuals in a virtual work context, it will be because members *feel* that they are part of the organization (emphasis added).

Telecommuting isolation may also affect an employee's communication of his or her work-related identity, or self-view. Thatcher and Zhu (2006) argue that the altered work environment of telecommuting disrupts certain social-psychological processes underlying identification, identity enactment, and verification in the workplace. In a traditional work environment, one's identity communication processes are mainly face to face, through a variety of social and task involvement. In contrast, the telecommuting environment typically involves no face-to-face contact and may include little

or no social and task involvement. When telecommuting, employees mainly use mediated communication. Thus, they may find it more difficult to effectively communicate their organization-related identities. In addition, they have little physical visibility in the organization and may have accentuated concern over self-verification (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). O'Connell (1988) also notes that satellites (offices) could reduce the dimensions of trust to which we are accustomed, the computer imposes linear thinking, and expectations of work performance may be machine driven and therefore perceived as dehumanizing by some employees.

Furthermore, telecommuting employees fear that being off-site and out-of-sight will limit opportunities for promotion and organizational reward (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Many workers are afraid that telecommuting will have a detrimental effect on their career, and telecommuters may not be "kept in the loop" with regard to promotions, company announcements, team issues, and so on. Telecommuters also report that there is an attitude with coworkers and bosses that, "If they can't see you, you aren't working" (Abdel-Wahab, 2007).

Another issue associated with the out-of-site/out-of-mind concern is that of fairness, as perceived by the telecommuter. Fairness is important in determining how satisfied and how committed employees are to their organizations (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). Numerous studies have shown that fairness has positive effects on organizations (Diekmann, Barsness, & Sondak, 2004). For example, it is an important factor in determining whether employees accept assigned tasks and goals and voluntarily comply with supervisor instructions (Earley & Lind, 1987). The isolated nature of telework may make the employee's perception of fairness more critical, since managers are not physically present to ensure acceptance of assigned tasks or compliance with instructions.

The final problem stemming from telecommuting isolation is that the employee misses informal interaction and learning. Socially, employees miss the informal interaction they garner by being around colleagues and friends (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). They also miss the learning that occurs informally and spontaneous learning that cannot be scheduled.

In sum, the physical and cultural isolation of telecommuting creates social, psychological, and organizational problems for the telecommuter. Teleworkers may feel that they are treated differently by managers because they are not on-site, and may have anxiety regarding job security, promotion potential, and other issues important to the employee. These feelings may alter the sense of connectedness of the employee to the organization, and affect the employee's commitment to the organization. The related organizational outcomes may present themselves in higher turnover rates and lower job satisfaction ratings (Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998).

Communication

Communication serves four major functions within a group or organization: control, motivation, emotional expression, and information (Scott & Mitchell, 1976). The medium of the message, as well as the channel through which it is delivered can cause

communication distortion (Robbins, 1989/1998). In the virtual work environment, messages are often limited to writing and speech, and the channels are electronically mediated through the use of information technology. Consequently, telecommuting changes patterns of communication and complicates social and task dynamics (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006).

The positive effects of new forms of electronic communication include the increased speed of the communication, permitting asynchronous communication, and communicating among geographically dispersed people (Denhardt, Denhardt, & Aristigueta, 2002). However, when employees work off-site, they miss informal interactions that occur in the workplace. Potential problems with electronic communication include diminished information from nonverbal cues, reduced opportunities for random and spontaneous information sharing, formal information flow will be redefined, messages of affect and value will decrease, and ambiguity in interpreting information will increase (O'Connell, 1988). Moreover, it can be more difficult to explain (or receive explanations) by telephone or email than to be shown how to do something physically (Abdel-Wahab, 2007).

Certain dynamics of the marketing communication process may be relevant to organizational communications for telecommuters. Kotler (1980/1997) states that they (marketers) must transmit the message through efficient media that reach the target audience and develop feedback channels to monitor the receiver's response to the message. Similarly, Robbins (1989/1998) explains that some communication channels are "rich" in that they have the ability to (a) handle multiple cues simultaneously, (b) facilitate rapid feedback, and (c) be very personal. The availability and selection of communication channels is important, because competent communication styles and channel selection considerations are related to key outcomes in the virtual team, such as trust, identification, and communication satisfaction (Timmerman & Scott, 2006).

However, telecommuters may not have all the rich and efficient communication channels available. Some virtual teams only interact via a range of computer-mediated communication systems (Timmerman & Scott, 2006). U.S. government employees identify email, phone, and remote access to an organization's IT infrastructure as minimum requirements (*PA Times*, 2008). However, these may be the maximum modes of communication available. In some countries, broadband lines are not widely used, and the employee must log off every time he or she needs to make a phone call (Abdel-Wahab, 2007). These factors significantly impede communication.

Important Outcomes

Studies suggest that certain employee beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors are related to organizational outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. These beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, known as individual-level factors, include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational identification, and (for government employees) public service motivation (Kim, 2005). This section will focus on job satisfaction and organizational commitment

as representative of the attitudes that are important to telecommuters and their organizations.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an important variable in organizational studies. It is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response toward various facets of one's job and is positively correlated with motivation, job involvement, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, life satisfaction, mental health and job performance (Kim, 2005).

Among the many satisfaction measures that exist, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is used more frequently than any other. The JDI was designed to measure the construct of job satisfaction, defined by P.C. Smith as "the feelings a worker has about his job." The final version of the JDI was designed around five subdimensions: satisfaction with work, supervision, coworkers, pay, and promotion (Kinicki, Schriesheim, McKee-Ryan, & Carson, 2002). However, job satisfaction can also be measured by a single global rating (Robbins, 1989/1998).

Popular press touts increased job satisfaction as one of the benefits of telecommuting. The academic literature, however, is less consistent than this strongly positive view. For example, the decreased social interactions and feelings of isolation when telecommuting can have a negative impact on job satisfaction (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Golden and Veiga found a curvilinear relation between the extent of telecommuting and job satisfaction (an inverted U-shaped relationship) that suggests job satisfaction is highest at moderate levels of telecommuting (Virick, DaSilva, & Arrington, 2010). A meta-analysis of telecommuter job satisfaction by Gajendran and Harrison (2007) showed an overall small positive relationship between telecommuting and job satisfaction.

Kinicki et al. (2002) identify four broad categories of antecedents to job satisfaction: job characteristics, role states, group and organizational characteristics, and, notably, leader relations. They affirm that the leadership style is a precursor of job satisfaction, and confirm that organizational commitment is positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has to do with an employee's belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a desire to maintain membership in the organization (Park, 2004). Organizational commitment relates to the strength of one's identification with and involvement in an organization, and is lower for public sector employees than for private sector employees (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006). In general, the common thread in the commitment research is that when employers provide employees with a

rewarding job and supportive work environment, employees reciprocate by becoming committed to the organization (Knudsen, Johnson, Martin, & Roman, 2003).

Meyer and Allen (1990) conceptualized three forms of commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. They note that employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, and employees who are affectively committed to the organization tend to perform at a higher level than those who are not. Kim (2005) states that affective commitment is the only form of commitment associated with desirable organizational performance, and is important for the public organization. Affective commitment may be especially important in job performance and turnover for public employee telecommuters who feel the effects of physical and cultural isolation and because of its connection to job satisfaction and, by extension, leadership style.

A related factor of import for teleworkers is known as organizational identification. Organizational identification has been defined as members' perception of belonging to the organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This is the employee's psychological link to the organization. Organizational identification may be important in shaping employee behavior, and thus in organizational outcomes (Wiesenfeld et al., 2001). Some studies group organizational identification as an important factor in organizational commitment, and this review follows that model.

A few predictors of organizational identification have been identified, including (a) the extent of contact between the individual and the organization, (b) the visibility of organizational membership, and (c) the attractiveness of the organizational identity (Battacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995). Because of the isolated nature of the work environment, the first two predictors (extent of contact and visibility of organizational membership) may be particularly germane to teleworkers as distinct from traditional workers. As Wiesenfeld et al. (2001) also note, organizational identification is primarily cognitive, and therefore may be one of the best descriptors of individual/organizational linkages in the information age—when direct contact between the individual and the social unit is diminished.

Leadership Style Background

The development of the leadership study in the 20th century has been characterized by increasing levels of sophistication, beginning with the simplistic study of leader traits and progressing to the study of leader behaviors (Wren, 1995). The study of traits is not relevant to the telecommuting environment. However, as Malhotra, Majchrzak, and Rosen (2007) explain, there are effective leadership practices (behaviors) for virtual teams. Following the behavioral focus, this article considers a commonly used leadership behavior dichotomy, and views this as managerial leadership behavior to put it in the context of telecommuting.

The two major types of leadership behavior are task orientation and relationship orientation. In this behavioral dichotomy, a leader emphasizes either tasks, focusing on maintaining standards, meeting deadlines, and so on, or relationships, emphasizing the importance of job satisfaction, putting employees at ease and other relationship-oriented behaviors. Other researchers have studied this same dichotomy from slightly

different perspectives, but the primary distinction remains between whether the leader focuses on the task to be accomplished or the people who are accomplishing the task. It should be noted, however, that these behavioral orientations are not mutually exclusive. Later studies suggested that leaders can be attentive to tasks and relationships (Denhardt et al., 2002).

In the contingency model of leadership developed by Fiedler, position power and task structure are determined by the organization, and the leader has little influence through these. However, the leader does have influence via a third factor, that leader's personal relationship with the group. The contingency model posits that certain leadership styles are more effective in certain situations (Denhardt et al., 2002), which suggests that there is a style that will be more effective in the case of telecommuting.

The path-goal theory of leadership by House and Mitchell proposes that a leader should use a style that matches the needs of subordinates. As previously described, the telecommuter has unique needs that may dictate the leader's best style. The styles outlined are directive (similar to task oriented), supporting (similar to relationship oriented), participative (conferring with subordinates before deciding), and achievement oriented (leader sets challenging goals and expects achievement). These styles are matched with subordinate attitudes, acceptance of the leader, and their expectations that their contributions will be valued (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1969/1996). One of the key points of the path-goal theory is that a leader's behavior is acceptable to subordinates to the degree that it is viewed by them as an immediate source of satisfaction or as a means of future satisfaction (Robbins, 1989/1998).

Substitutes for Leadership

The substitutes for the leadership model was, according to Gordon, developed in response to the fact that existing leadership models did not account for situations in which leadership was not necessary (Gordon, 1994). Nahavandi (2008) explains that in certain circumstances, various situational factors replace the leader's functions of providing structure, guidelines, and support to subordinates.

Kerr and Jermier (1978), in their seminal work on the concept, explain that data from numerous studies collectively demonstrate that in many situations leader behaviors are irrelevant. They propose that certain individual, task, and organizational variables act as "substitutes for leadership," negating the hierarchical superior's ability to exert either a positive or negative influence over subordinate attitudes and effectiveness. In their analysis, they separate leadership behavior into the two common dichotomies: task oriented (aka instrumental, job-centered, or structuring) and relationship oriented (aka supporting, people-centered, or consideration). Using these two behavioral dichotomies, they broadly outline certain personal, task and organizational characteristics that neutralize either the task-oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior, or both.

Kerr and Jermier (1978) also make a distinction between leadership substitutes and leadership neutralizers. The distinction is that substitutes do, but neutralizers do not, provide a 'person or thing acting or used in place of' the formal leader's negated influence. The result is that neutralizers create what they call an "influence vacuum," whereas substitutes replace the negated influence with some other influence.

Table 1. Leadership Substitutes and Neutralizers.

Substitutes or neutralizers	Consideration	Structuring
Follower characteristics		
1. Experience and training		Substitute
2. Professionalism	Substitute	Substitute
3. Lack of value for goals	Neutralizer	Neutralizer
Task characteristics		
1. Unambiguous tasks		Substitute
2. Direct feedback from task		Substitute
3. Challenging task	Substitute	
Organizational characteristics		
1. Cohesive team	Substitute	Substitute
2. Leader's lack of power	Neutralizer	Neutralizer
3. Standardization and formalization		Substitute
4. Organizational rigidity		Neutralizer
5. Physical distance between leader and follower	Neutralizer	Neutralizer

Source. Nahavandi (1997/2000).

Nahavandi (2008) provides a slightly abbreviated matrix of the Kerr and Jermier variables. Table 1 distills and reduces the substitutes or neutralizers to 10 from the original 14, and details whether task-oriented behavior (structuring) or relationship-oriented behavior (consideration) is being substituted or neutralized by certain characteristics of the follower, the task, or the organization.

Summarizing the model, Nahavandi (2008) states that in general,

If information about the task and its requirement is clear and available to the subordinates through various means, such as their own experience, their team, or through the organization, they are not likely to need the leader's structuring behaviors. Similarly, when support and empathy are not needed or are available through other sources such as coworkers, the subordinates will not seek the leader's consideration behaviors. (p. 85)

In the telecommuting environment, direct coworker support and empathy may not be available, so that the subordinate may have a greater need to seek the leader's consideration behavior. What the leadership substitutes framework shows more broadly is that a great deal of structuring behavior is substituted for or neutralized, and there is more opportunity for leader influence by way of consideration behavior. However, strong conclusions should be avoided because the leadership substitutes framework is not well understood within the context of telecommuting.

What Do You Need Most?

The original question posed for this review was, "What do you need most when you do not see your manager?" More specifically, the article was to attempt to identify which managerial leadership behaviors are most important for telecommuters' job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The literature suggests that the cognitive-psychological dimensions of leadership play the key role in employee satisfaction and commitment in the telecommuting environment. Kowalski and Swanson (2005) confirm that the critical success factors for telework include support, communication, and trust. Relationship-oriented leadership behavior also appears more significant when the question is viewed from a communication perspective. Hackman and Johnson (1991) make the point that leadership is best understood from a communication standpoint. In fact they define leadership as human (symbolic) communication that modifies the attitudes and behaviors of others in order to meet group goals and needs. Moreover, Timmerman and Scott (2006) show that responsiveness and thoroughness (of the leader), and communication channel selection to maintain connectedness, have solid correlation with virtual team outcomes, such as identification, trust, and communication satisfaction. Baker, Avery, and Crawford (2006) also make the point that a manager's trust (a nontechnical support and type of relationship-oriented behavior) had broad impact on employees' reactions to home based telecommuting.

However, the focus on relationship-oriented leader behavior cannot be exclusive. The structuring of jobs and organizational processes play a role in the telecommuting context. Feldman and Gainey (1997) argue that the implementation of telecommuting without attention to individual-level and group-level job redesign is unlikely to proceed smoothly. Similarly, Jermier and Kerr (1997) argue that, in spite of a move toward "post-bureaucratic organizations," over the last two decades, a stronger case can be made that the more trenchant pattern is the "McDonaldization of Society" complete with well-specified procedures and processes leaving little room for formal managers. Fortunately for telecommuters, structure and control, including habitual daily routines, have positive effects on identity enactment and may counteract the negative aspects of telecommuting associated with increased autonomy and work dislocation (Thatcher & Zhu, 2006).

For public employees, the effects of structure may be more significant in the telecommuting context, when compared with private sector employees. Cooper and Kurland (2002) explain that the formalized processes in the public sector are generally greater, and these shielded telecommuters from the negative effects of telecommuting, particularly with regard to career development, informal learning and interpersonal networking. Such standardization and formalization substitute for much of the leader's task-oriented behavior, leaving relationship-oriented behavior as the most needed and most efficacious for telecommuter job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In practice, the balance between task and relationship-oriented behavior remains, with the weight toward relationship-oriented leadership behavior, particularly communication. Pearlson and Saunders (2001) suggest that success factors for telecommuting

can be summarized as clear business objectives and measures, frequent and multiple communications, and well-supported infrastructure. Similarly, Ting (1997) maintains it is imperative that organizations develop trustworthy relationships with telecommuting employees by focusing on communication and teaching managers to communicate effectively with employees. In the final analysis, the bulk of research suggests that after formal work structures have been put into place, the most important leadership behaviors in the telecommuting environment are relationship-oriented behaviors, with an emphasis on effective leader communication.

The nexus of telecommuting and leadership presents a great deal of opportunity for empirical research. Details about the dynamics of this relationship need to be clarified in light of the variety of telecommuting arrangements and job types. Moreover, the substitutes for leadership framework needs be understood with specific reference to the telecommuting environment. This article provides a starting point for greater understanding of the challenges and opportunities of leading those unseen, or "invisible" public employees, such as telecommuters (Dahlstrom, 2010).

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