# Impact of employer monitoring on remote workers

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#### **Abstract**

Purpose: The COVID 19 crisis has brought forward the global adoption of remote work by at least ten years (Lister, 2020), and many organizations are doing it for the first time now. These organizations have been forced to adapt to this new working style, and this urgency left organizations with no time to develop strategies or time to reflect on whether remote working will advance their long-term sustainability and employee satisfaction (Conboy & Noel, 2020). Many managers are concerned about a loss of productivity when more of their employees work from home. Therefore, many firms have started using productivity management software to monitor their employees' activities while they work from home. This study aims to understand how the monitoring of employees affects employees' goal-oriented behaviour, productivity, and physical and mental well-being, as well as employers' trust in their staff.

**Design/Methodology/Approach:** This paper contributes to the growing body of literature on the rising trend of employees' surveillance during remote work and its effects on employees' productivity and well-being through a systematic literature review.

**Findings:** This study identifies three distinctive notions of employee monitoring and the issues surrounding it. First, it establishes the rationale behind the inclination of managers towards surveillance and why organizations are surveilling employees who are working remotely. Second, it shows how these practices reduce workforce productivity, create trust and privacy concerns, and negatively affect employees' mental and physical well-being. Finally, the findings highlight the legal and ethical implications of employee monitoring and provide recommendations for future workplace strategies to promote equity and fairness.

**Originality/Value:** The existing literature on employee surveillance and monitoring mainly focuses on the invasion of employees' privacy, its relationship with performance, data protection, employee sabotage, and burnout. This study provides insight to the less-explored perspective of the association between the increased use of employee monitoring with lower productivity levels, mental and physical exhaustion towards monitored tasks, and its ethical and legal aspects.

**Key Words:** COVID-19, remote working, employee surveillance, use of ICT for monitoring, productivity, motivation, well-being, ethical and legal implications

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**Attestation of Authorship** 

This is to certify that the research paper submitted is an outcome of my independent and original

research work and to the best of my knowledge and credence, does not contain any material published

or written previously by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgments). I

have duly accredited all the sources from which the ideas and extracts have been taken and have not

been submitted elsewhere for publication of any other university or institution of learning.

Signature:

Date: 15/07/2021

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#### **Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1 Problem Statement

The COVID19 pandemic that started in 2020 is one of the most acute crises we have witnessed in the past fifty years, and its implications are far-reaching (Conboy & Noel, 2020). This pandemic has transformed employees' and employers' relationships to work as they adjust to the 'new normal of remote working. Prior research on remote working has studied its impact on employee autonomy and productivity (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Spreitzer et al., 2017; Stanton & Weiss, 2000). Remote working is widely regarded as a competitive element that can help firms survive (Hislop et al., 2009) and become part of the new normal of work.

The COVID19 pandemic has led to a sharp increase in the number of individuals working remotely (Levy, 2020). A survey in the USA found that 77% of workers want to continue to work from home at least once a week when the coronavirus pandemic is over (Levy, 2020).

Although the employee surveillance software industry existed long before the global pandemic hit the world, the radical shift from office-work to the working from home model left many organizations unprepared and nervous regarding the expected loss of productivity and its impact on business performance. The pandemic led organizations to unprecedented levels of remote working and has been accompanied by a significant increase in employers using software to monitor their staff (Carroll & Conboy, 2020).

Many institutions put forward serious concerns over the increase in employees' surveillance post-pandemic, which was higher by 55% on average compared to the pre-pandemic average (Brown, 2020). Global demand for employee surveillance software increased by 108% in April 2020 and 70% in May 2020 compared to the preceding year (Migliano, 2020). Figure 1 below shows the increase in demand for surveillance software from employer's post-pandemic.

| Software Company | April Increase | May Increase |
|------------------|----------------|--------------|
| Time Doctor      | 202%           | 134%         |
| Hubstaff         | 70%            | 66%          |
| FlexiSPY         | 4%             | 28%          |
| ActivTrak        | 95%            | 61%          |
| Teramind         | 169%           | 122%         |
| DeskTime         | 333%           | 235%         |
| SPYERA           | 50%            | 82%          |
| WorkTime         | 30%            | 9%           |
| Crossover        | 41%            | 76%          |
| Kickidler        | 139%           | 140%         |

Top10VPN

Figure 1: Increase in demand for employee surveillance software post-pandemic Source: Brown, E. (Social Business, Nov 16, 2020)

Much of the existing literature advocates the use of monitoring and surveillance as a legitimate right of employers to track performance and employees' work behaviours, protect company assets, and control access to the organization (Ball, 2010). Monitoring and surveillance aim to produce measurable outcomes for service delivery levels, productivity, and compliance, as well as help develop future work strategies and business forecasts. Employee surveillance systems also help organizations in terms of loss prevention, reducing minor or major thefts, safeguarding confidential information, and securing evidence of any wrongdoings in case of legal obligations. Managers usually pay less attention to surveillance practices when they physically see their workforce performing the required tasks, since they can interact in real time to remedy any performance deficiencies.

#### 1.2 Rationale

The conflict between an employer's right to see what its workforce is doing and employees' rights to protect their privacy and autonomy is a long-running issue. With more people working remotely because of the global pandemic, the need to define clear boundaries between business and personal activities has become more critical. Prior research provides evidence about employer's legitimate reasons for workplace surveillance and sheds light on the growing controversy around the practice, in terms of the invasion of privacy and potential adverse effects on employee productivity and wellbeing. Thus, the jump in surveillance practices because of pandemic-induced remote work means that serious steps should be considered to address the long-term consequences of employee surveillance. Employee monitoring reduces employees' motivation and productivity and trust in their employers (Gerten, 2020). When employees have a trustworthy relationship with their employer and in their workplace and a high level of work autonomy, they have a high level of well-being (Carroll et al., 2020). Companies adapt and compete well when their employees have a high level of well-being (Spreitzer et al., 2017). Thus, while remote working may appear helpful to firms in helping them adapt to emergency situations like the pandemic, in the long run, remote working may reduce their performance if they engage in a high level of employee surveillance. Prior research on remote working has mainly focused on the influence of ICT on work practices and employee autonomy (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Spreitzer et al., 2017; Stanton & Weiss, 2000). This study's research question is whether and how monitoring affects the well-being, motivation, trust, and performance of remote workers.

# 1.3 Objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

- Examine the impacts of employee monitoring and surveillance on employee well-being, productivity, morale, performance, trust, and motivation
- Examine the alignment of employee monitoring with firms' ethical and legal responsibilities regarding the privacy of employees and 'good faith' dealings
- Develop guidelines to help organizations manage the undesirable outcomes of employee monitoring, while fulfilling organizational goals

#### **Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### 2.1 Remote Working

New technologies provide opportunities to organizations, and businesses must embrace flexibility and adaption for optimal utilization (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017). A growing trend is remote working, formerly more commonly known as 'telecommuting', which is defined as "the use of information and communications technologies for work that is performed outside the employer's premises" (Miele & Tirabeni, 2020, p.4). It offered employees the flexibility to work away from their office locations remotely, principally from home (part-time or full-time). While the concept of remote work became more popular due to the COVID19 pandemic, the concept of telecommuting is not new (Tammy et al., 2015). Remote working has become more common since 2020 because of the lockdowns worldwide brought about by the Covid19 pandemic (Carroll & Conboy, 2020). A survey in the USA found that 77% of workers want to continue to work from home at least once a week when the coronavirus pandemic is over (Levy, 2020).

Remote work has fundamentally changed how organizations do business and has implications for issues such as employee management, security risks, and employee productivity (Tammy et al., 2015). The subject of remote working and employee surveillance is a topic that has been addressed for quite some time now in the organizational behaviour literature. However, very few studies link the impact of employees' surveillance during remote working to employees' work behaviours and productivity. Remote working is arguably the biggest legacy of the COVID-19 pandemic, and some organizations and managers still struggle to adapt to this trend, seeking to use employee surveillance tools to make sure employees are working.

The demand from organizations to monitor employees and track their productivity while working remotely has grown tremendously. Figure 2 below highlights the massive increase in surveillance demands from employers from June through September 2020.

- · Global demand for employee monitoring software increased by:
  - 87% in April compared with monthly average prior to the pandemic, following an initial 7% bump in March
  - o 71% in May versus pre-pandemic levels
- Sustained demand: 51% higher over June-September than before pandemic
- Most popular surveillance tools: Hubstaff, Time Doctor, FlexiSPY
- Eight in 10 of the most in-demand companies incentivize long-term use

Figure 2: Increase in Employee Surveillance software demand post-pandemic

Source: Migliano, S. (TOP10VPN, Jun 25, 2020)

This raises questions about employer-employees trust and its implications for organizational goals. The COVID19 crisis, at least in the last 70 years, is unique for the multitude of challenges it poses. (Anderson et. al., 2014). The nature of the pandemic causes social and economic disruption and the labor market across the globe, and its impacts will be felt for well over a decade. These effects of the global pandemic on workers and the workplace have been dramatic and open a new school of thought for researchers on organizational psychology and related fields like work, workers, and organizations (Miele & Tirabeni, 2020). The broad overview points to the growing concern over employee's surveillance during remote work and its implications.

# 2.2 Advantages of remote work

Much of the literature has studied the positive impacts of remote working for employees. For example, remote working generally allows employees to maintain a good work-life balance and save the time spent commuting. (Miele & Tirabeni, 2020). Menezes and Kelliher (2017) indicate that flexible working arrangements lead to positive employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, greater loyalty to their organization, a sense of independence, enhanced employee autonomy, and a willingness to exercise greater effort in return for the flexibility extended to them. Employees may feel that their

organization has offered them a benefit and, therefore, reciprocate enhanced job performance and productivity (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017).

One vital topic within the work-family literature is work-family conflict. Remote working culture practices help working families better navigate between work and family challenges (Allen, 2012). Harrison (2017) associated job satisfaction as one of the critical aspects that come with remote work flexibility, lower work-role stress, higher productivity, schedule control, and loyalty (Gajendran et al., 2014; Martin and MacDonnell, 2012; Hunton and Norman, 2010; Menezes & Kelliher, 2017). This flexibility is essential because employees with a greater degree of work-family conflict might not produce required business outcomes and giving them the chance of remote working brings the best out of them (Allen, 2012).

Anderson et. al., (2014) also supported the positive aspects of remote working to produce more meaningful, creative, thoughtful, and critical work that is difficult to manage due to continuous interruptions that fragment a workday into unfocused and unproductive segments. They also argued that working outside the office has challenges such as social and professional isolation, limits on developing workplace relationships, and reduced knowledge sharing. However, flexible remote working strategies can be designed to help employees perform at their best and achieve organizational goals (Anderson et. al., 2014).

# 2.3 Remote work and employee surveillance

The rapid dispersal of information and communication technology not only brings helps employees work remotely efficiently and effectively but also raises unique supervisory demands regarding manager-employee relationships, work assignments, and accountability (Schuster et al., 2020). One critical piece of this equation relates to work surveillance, which has been made possible because of technological advancements and potentially more tense with privacy concerns for employees (Schuster et al., 2020).

In the context of work, "surveillance alludes to management's ability to monitor, record and track employee performance, behaviours and personal characteristics in real-time" (Ball, 2010, p.1). The controversial debate of work surveillance started in the early 1980s. Since then, academics have attempted to measure the "impact" of monitoring and the processes it influences (Schuster et al., 2020). Usually, employees expect to have their performance reviewed, with objectives set for future development. However, controversies arise when an employer goes beyond what is reasonable using intrusive monitoring, demanding precise information on employees' physical whereabouts, and when the application of monitoring compromises working practices and affects existing levels of control, autonomy, and trust (Ball, 2010).

Stanton and Weiss (2000) indicated that while flexible and remote working is becoming more popular, there is still some resistance. Parker et al. (2020) highlighted those leaders require a different skill set in the era of remote management than face-to-face management. COVID19 thrust many organizations to opt for this transition very quickly but without training. Some managers who cannot see their employees do not trust that their subordinates are working, and much of the resistance to remote work boils down to trust or its lack from senior management (Stanton & Weiss, 2000). Many managers are concerned that remote workers are less productive than they would be in their workplace (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017).

The findings of a recent survey conducted by Parker et al., (2020), in which more than 1200 people in 24 countries participated, suggest that about 40% of supervisors expressed low self-confidence in managing a team remotely. This inability has led to employers' use of software to track their employees' activities (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017). As of June 2020, sales of such software increased significantly as more people worked at home (Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020). For example, Prodo Score, an employee tracking software company, saw a 600% increase in interest from prospective customers since the pandemic began, while another, Transparent Business, received a 500% increase in the number of companies using its employee tracking software (Golden & Chemi, 2020).

### 2.4 Issues around remote worker monitoring

Ball (2010) established that workplace surveillance affects employees' well-being, work culture, creativity, productivity, and motivation. Employees find these surveillance technologies quite intrusive and unreasonable, leading to lower employee morale (Charbonneau, & Doberstein, 2020). Such monitoring also diverts managerial attention and may strain organizational resources (Molino et al., 2020). At the same time, little is also known about the possible limits of employer surveillance. Also, it is difficult to tell whether any potential negative impacts on employees may offset the pursuit of productivity that employers claim as the reason for surveillance.

Gerten et al., (2019) highlighted that employee monitoring systems might not accomplish what they were expected to. The evidence in the literature is that they do not make people feel good about their work or happy and secure in their employment and tend to lead to burnout and lower morale (Ulrike, 2013). At the same time, the psychological pressures of being watched can impair employees' productivity (Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020). Implementing surveillance software for productivity tracking essentially masks the deeper issue of a lack of trust between managers and employees.

Ivan (2020) argued that the modern limitless use of digital surveillance and employee monitoring leads to a significant invasion of employee's privacy. Bodie et al., (2016) observed that the data gathered by employers on workers often extended to their health and fitness, aptitude and skills, and psychological disposition, which might lead to workplace discrimination regarding promotion, salary increases, bonuses, training, and career development opportunities. On the other hand, substantial attention has been gained on the relationship between employee monitoring and increased work intensity, which results in worker burnout, increased stress, and health-related problems (Ivan, 2020). Work surveillance mechanisms also adversely affect job satisfaction. The sense of being monitored intensely makes employees adopt communications and emotional attitudes to do their best, which often involve unseen and unpaid work, resulting in additional stress (Ivan, 2020; Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020; Gerten et al., 2019).

### 2.5 Implications of employee monitoring

Nowadays, a company has many opportunities to control and monitor its employees through digital technologies. Charbonneau and Doberstein (2020) have examined the legal perspectives surrounding employee surveillance and control and its related impacts on employees' privacy and human dignity. The law regarding privacy at the workplace revolves around 'reasonableness,' i.e., was the purpose of surveillance reasonable, was the search conducted reasonably, and is there a reasonable expectation of privacy in these settings (Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020). Employers must uphold the principle of proportionality, and the mutual agreement of employees and management is needed before any surveillance systems can be used (Hugl, 2013). Legally, employers reviewing employees' Internet usage might be perceived as being outside data privacy norms (Hugl, 2013). Charbonneau and Doberstein (2020) critiqued the illegal usage of surveillance instruments by corporations, which is becoming widely known, and argued that existing laws need to be improved and adjusted to protect employee privacy and confidentiality (Hugl, 2013).

Monitoring employee behaviour is related to potentially increased vulnerability to employee sabotage and resistance to or non-compliance with corporate regulations (Hugl, 2013). Employers are required to follow established policies and apply them consistently (Hugl, 2013). Allowing employee choice over their working arrangements may have a positive influence on their employment relationship, contributing to higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017). Promoting equity and fairness through formal processes may turn into reciprocal behaviours of benefit and performance gain to the organizations (Menezes & Kelliher, 2017). In other words, instead of using surveillance software, remote managers could instead focus on documenting metrics and objectives, fostering open communication, and emphasizing results (Hislop et al., 2009). Fundamentally, results should not be measured in terms of time spent but on milestones, due dates, and reminders to keep employee performance on track. Employees are empathetic beings, making this approach especially relevant in a remote work setting, as it may improve their morale and make them feel connected to their colleagues (Hislop et al., 2009).

The above discussion shows the range of outcomes that employee monitoring and surveillance affects.

This study will attempt to integrate the literature to assess how these outcomes interact with each other and how organizations can align their employee monitoring practices with their ethical and legal responsibilities.

#### **Chapter 3: METHODOLOGY**

This chapter explains how a systematic literature review can help acquire deeper understanding of the topic. Through a comprehensive integration and synthesis of existing literature, the method will:

- Examine the impacts of employee monitoring and surveillance on employee well-being,
   productivity, morale, performance, trust, and motivation
- Examine the alignment of employee monitoring with firms' ethical and legal responsibilities
   regarding the privacy of employees and 'good faith' dealings
- Develop guidelines to help organizations manage the undesirable outcomes of employee monitoring, while fulfilling organizational goals

#### 3.1 Guidelines for Systematic Literature Reviews:

The subject of remote working and employee surveillance is a topic that has been addressed for quite some time now in the organizational behaviour literature. However, very few studies link employee surveillance during remote work with employees' work behaviours and productivity. Teleworking is not new, but remote working has become an enormous legacy of COVID19 and drastically changed the world of work. Remote working raises questions about employer-employee trust, which has implications for organizational performance. Thus, a comprehensive integration and synthesis of the existing literature is required to acquire a deeper understanding of the topic.

The tremendous increase in the amount of information available means that it is very challenging for researchers to remain knowledgeable of historical and ongoing research (Toronto and Remington, 2020). It is, therefore, essential to consolidate research traditions to help researchers overcome the obstacle of uncovering prior knowledge and offer foundations for future research, which will help any field's development (Templier & Pare, 2015).

As per Fisher et al., (2020), a review examines, scrutinizes, analyses, and investigates. It undertakes a systematic process that is generally divided into building background knowledge, studying methods, analysing results, methodological critique, review results, and finally writing up (Toronto &

Remington, 2020). A researcher needs to critically appraise, evaluate, and assess the existing literature's inaccuracies, strengths and weaknesses, data quality, omissions, and ultimately produce the results concerning the level of evidence for future research (Fisher et al., 2020).

Toronto and Remington (2020) also highlight one of the significant challenges in scientific progress: researchers are limited in their ability to retain, collect, organize, and synthesize earlier data while staying abreast of new-fangled innovative contributions. Also, the time constraint is an important factor in dealing with this challenge. Templier and Pare (2015) highlight the importance of individual, interdependent studies that incrementally contribute to a more extensive understanding of a phenomenon of interest essential to any development area.

A literature review can either serve as the background for an empirical study or be used as a standalone piece of research (Watson & Webster, 2002). It will help readers contextualize and understand what has been done already, how it has been researched, and the key issues (Watson & Webster, 2002). In addition, it will justify different approaches, research methods, tools, questions, outcomes, fallouts and identify the domains where further research is needed (Templier & Pare, 2015). Moreover, with the increased use of evidence-based management (Templier & Pare, 2015; Toronto & Remington, 2020; Fisher et al., 2020; Randolph, 2009 & Watson & Webster, 2002), review papers have become essential tools for summarizing and synthesizing extant literature (Watson & Webster, 2002).

One of the critical purposes of this analysis is to make the familiar strange and shed light on the research questions by keeping in mind what we have set out to do (Ryan, 2006). Data in its raw state will not speak for itself, so we have to surface meanings from the data as per each research topic through an analysis process (Ryan, 2006). Researchers need to handle the data and take out the embedded meaning into keywords and themes, which will help them reveal certain pieces to readers (Hyden, 2005). Hyden (2005) also highlighted the importance of the analysis process as a tool to convince readers of the existence of specific knowledge by providing literature evidence.

#### 3.2 Data Collection Process

#### 3.2.1 Planning Phase

The initial phase of the systematic literature review will be focusing on reviewing historical research on remote working and alternate work arrangements. This exercise will generate the keywords for the literature search. Keyword searches will then be made on academic databases to uncover material related to the subject in the form of research articles. The literature search results will be analyzed to uncover patterns and trends, and qualitative and quantitative data will be used to report the findings.

Once the articles have been collected, they will be analyzed to find codes related to these three

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domains:

- 1) How are organizations adopting remote working after the COVID19 pandemic?
- 2) How has the increase in employee surveillance during remote work influenced employee morale and productivity?
- 3) How can organizations manage the implications of employee surveillance and the context of remote working to maximize their performance?

The codes that have been extracted will then be categorised into themes and reported.

#### 3.2.2 Search Resources

Several databases are available for finding scholarly articles and literature across various publishers and journals. We started our search using *Scopus* (www.scopus.com), which has widely accepted literature mapping and co-citation links and provides an extensive pool of articles related to our research topic. The collection of peer-reviewed articles then followed by using different platforms such as *Emerald Insight, Springer, Science Direct, Google Scholar, SAGE Publications,* and journals which are closely related to the topic of research: *Journal of Business Management, Journal of Human Resource Management, Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* and *Journal of Business Ethics.* 

The time frame selected was 2010 to 2020 to study the evolution of remote work, advantages, disadvantages, and employers' and employees' perspectives on remote working, followed by the recent literature on remote work after the COVID19 pandemic and its effects. A backward search from the reference list of selected articles also contributed significantly to collecting relevant data and the path. Furthermore, secondary data resources were also considered, such as the latest media reports, openly published surveys, and questionnaires, analysis reports from government bodies and media agencies like Forbes, Wall Street Journal, Statistics New Zealand, newspaper articles, and conference papers to study more recent trends, disruptions, and transitions that have not been introduced to journals yet.

#### 3.3 Keywords used

The keywords that were used were grouped into three categories:

- <u>Category 1:</u> The first category focused on: teleworking, remote working after COVID19 pandemic, remote working trends, organizational response on remote working, leadership intake on remote work, COVID19 and the workplace, employee surveillance, use of ICT for surveillance, employee management and employees monitoring software.
- <u>Category 2:</u> The first category included search words like: remote work-life balance, employee productivity during remote work, effects of surveillance on employees work behaviour, adverse effects of employees monitoring, employer/employees trust relationship, surveillance and privacy concerns, potential trust breakdowns, employee discrimination, employee burnout, employee's morale decline, employee's productivity levels, employee's autonomy, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.
- <u>Category 3:</u> The final set of data included keywords like: leadership expectations during remote work, employee productivity optimization, setting employees surveillance boundaries, building processes and scaling during remote work, company policies for employee surveillance, legal implications of remote work, ethical expectations during remote work, equity, and fairness among employees.

# 3.4 Summary of Literature Search process

The research process was broken down into four stages: the identification of the research objectives, the development of the research design, data collection, and reporting the findings. Many articles were found by searching with the keywords in the databases mentioned. As literature reviews can, amongst other things, build bridges between related topic areas, this research resonates strongly with two reasons for reviewing the literature:

- 1. To synthesise and gain a new perspective
- 2. To identify relationships between ideas and practices.

My initial literature search revealed a large body of different types of literature, including many quantitative studies which can be summarized in the table below. Tables 1 and 2 below summarizes the articles and their sources.

|                          | Keywords   | Springer | Emerald | Sage<br>Public<br>ations | Elsevier | Science<br>Direct | Wiley<br>Online<br>Library | ACM<br>Digital<br>Library | Total |
|--------------------------|--|----------|---------|--------------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|-------|
| First<br>set of<br>data  | Covid 19 and remote working                            | 62       | 38      | 12                       | 21       | 36                | 42                         | 0                         | 211   |
| Second<br>set of<br>data | Remote work trends and advantages                      | 112      | 64      | 165                      | 47       | 158               | 21                         | 21                        | 588   |
|                          | Remote work and employees monitoring                   | 166      | 86      | 139                      | 102      | 151               | 16                         | 2                         | 662   |
|                          | Effects/disadvant ages of employee monitoring          | 138      | 225     | 154                      | 68       | 75                | 27                         | 16                        | 703   |
| Third<br>set of<br>data  | Ethical and legal implications for employee monitoring | 39       | 138     | 201                      | 79       | 62                | 42                         | 28                        | 589   |
|                          | Company policies for remote work & monitoring          | 46       | 34      | 112                      | 46       | 42                | 18                         | 3                         | 301   |
|                          | Total  | 563      | 585     | 783                      | 363      | 524               | 183                        | 70                        | 1216  |

Table 1: Summary of literature search from databases

|                          | Keywords   | Journal of<br>Business<br>Management | Journal of<br>Human<br>Resource<br>Management | Journal of Occupational<br>and Organizational<br>Psychology | Journal of Business<br>Ethics | Total |
|--------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------|-------|
| First set<br>of data     | COVID19<br>and remote<br>working                         | 12                                   | 2   | 23  | 0                             | 37    |
| Second<br>set of<br>data | Remote<br>work trends<br>and<br>advantages               | 0                                    | 6   | 36  | 12                            | 54    |
|                          | Remote<br>work and<br>employees<br>monitoring            | 7                                    | 0   | 24  | 8                             | 39    |
|                          | Effects/disad<br>vantages of<br>employees'<br>monitoring | 21                                   | 19  | 31  | 21                            | 92    |
| Third set<br>of data     | Ethical and legal implications for employees monitoring  | 8                                    | 23  | 5   | 18                            | 54    |
|                          | Company policies for remote work & monitoring            | 19                                   | 45  | 2   | 23                            | 89    |
|                          | Total  | 67                                   | 95  | 121   | 82                            | 298   |

Table 2: Summary of literature search from journals

**Inclusion and exclusion criteria:** In conducting a literature search, clear inclusion and exclusion criteria are critical to identify which literature will and will not address the research question. My initial research gives the total number of articles found as 3,436. Further refining of search articles was done by searching the keywords only in title or keywords by authors that significantly reduce the number of articles by 60% to 1,374 articles. After removing duplicate articles using Endnotes, a manual check for duplicates was done using the full text citation in case of any doubts. The remaining articles were then screened for relevance. The inclusion criteria for considered the topic, representativeness, and comprehensiveness of the articles (Elise et al., 2013). Screening is

an iterative process, and after reviewing abstracts from each paper, skimming multiple sources, identifying technical and non-technical case studies to examine claims, and eliminating duplicate sources, the final data selection is made (Elise et al., 2013). The filtering process resulted in a total of 89 articles.

In terms of exclusion criteria, the searches revealed studies on many more specific targets and industries than anticipated. In order to impose a reasonable limit on the scope of the review, I excluded literature relating to specific workstream, industry, geographic based surveillance, and quantitative research initially.

The most relevant references were identified by reading the title and then the abstract. Although, title alone is not sufficient to determine relevance, however, I found that it can clearly indicate irrelevance. As some of the articles revealed by the search were not available in full text through the four databases, I used the AUT library service to access them. Figure 3 below highlights the article search process using keywords for each area of scope.

#### 1) How are organizations adopting the culture of remote working after the covid19 pandemic?

A search of articles using keywords (teleworking, remote working after the COVID19 pandemic, remote working trends, organizational response on remote working, leadership intake on remote work, covid-19 and the workplace, employee's surveillance, use of ICT for surveillance, employees' management, and employees monitoring software)

Results: 248 articles found (Period: 2010-2021) - 20 were considered relevant to the topic



# 2) How has the increase in employee surveillance during remote work influenced employee morale and productivity?

A search of articles using keywords like (remote work-life balance, employees' productivity during remote work, effects of surveillance on employees work behaviour, adverse effects of employees monitoring, employer/employees trust relationship, surveillance and privacy concerns, potential trust breakdowns, employees' discrimination, employees' burnout, employees' morale decline, employee's productivity levels, employee's autonomy, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction).

Results: 142 articles found (Period: 2010-2021) - 41 were considered relevant to the topic



# 3) How can organizations manage the implications of employee surveillance and the context of remote working to maximize their performance?

A search of articles using keywords like (leadership expectations during remote work, employee's productivity optimization, setting employees surveillance boundaries, building processes and scaling during remote work, company policies for employees' surveillance, legal implications of remote work, ethical expectations during remote work, equity, and fairness among employees) has been made.

Results: 135 articles found (Period: 2010-2021) – 28 were considered relevant to the topic

Figure 3: Summary of literature search process using keywords

The 89 articles were reviewed to check their relevance with the research topic to narrow down the total number of articles to work with. The next step was to become familiar with the literature in order to determine its relevance and assess its quality .This involved reading and re-reading the literature with my research interest in mind. My focus became clearer as I became more familiar with the literature and the sets and sub-sets of topics emerged. The critical foci taken into consideration are:

- 1. Research outcomes
- 2. Research methods
- 3. Theories

#### 4. Practices or applications

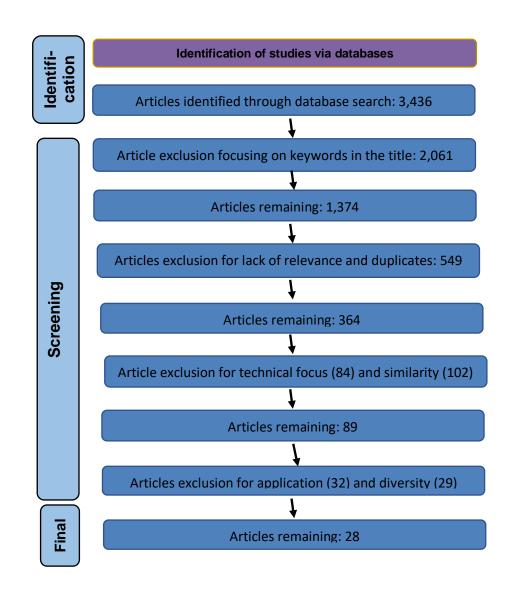
**Bringing the literature together:** In order to review and critique the research literature, I prepared a paragraph summarizing each study. This helped me continued to deepen my understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of each study at this stage of the process.

This involved looking at whether the articles were conceptual or empirical and whether they had a technical or managerial perspective; for example, articles that dealt with the technical aspects of the monitoring process were not included. Many articles in the search results were related to the application of employees' monitoring in different sectors, and another significant portion was categorized based on a specific context or industry, such as education or healthcare. I focused on articles that highlighted aspects of employees' monitoring and its effects that were applicable to a broad context. Many of the articles that were found during the search process were related to specific industries and therefore covered a broad spectrum of different issues. These were excluded from the final set of articles because including them would have greatly expanded the scope of this exercise. After this assessment process, I have identified 28 articles for my final consideration.

The key stages that were involved in the thematic analysis are as follows:

- reading, selecting, and condensing data
- assigning relevant data abstracts to initial codes
- categorising initial codes into prospective themes
- evaluating, interpreting, and naming themes
- making the final analysed report in consideration of the research data and question

Figure 4 below describes the article selection process from start to end.



#### 3.5 Data Analysis

This stage involves critically analysing the documents, highlighting the relevance of data and events, establishing meaning, contributing to the issues being explored, and generating appropriate codes and themes using thematic analysis (Elise et al., 2013). As per Johnston (2017), critical areas and codes are analyzed to reflect the methodology chosen. Altheide and Schneider (2017) explain that, once two-thirds of the analysis is completed, a revised check should be carried out to ensure the consistency and fluidity of the process. These sources were coded based on the above-cited three categories of our search. The inclusions were based on convergence and corroboration using different ideologies and perspectives, with a diversified variance of knowledge and information. According to David and Christopher (2017), documents provide a means of tracking change and development. Accessible various drafts on the same topic also helped to identify the latest trends, and some additional data resources from different industries were included in the search.

This research explores and investigates the values and characteristics of leadership in an environment of remote working situations. In addition, this research is concerned with human action and social impacts in a dynamic situation. Therefore, a qualitative approach has been selected as the most appropriate methodology in order to understand and interpret leadership characteristics required for remote work situations through the examination and review of secondary data. The interpretation of secondary data is a critical part of the research process and allows the researcher to make analytical conclusions.

Based on this extensive collection of secondary information, thematic analysis was carried out to evaluate the data and make analytical conclusions. This method is suitable for research which attempts to identify opinions, knowledge, experiences, or values from a set of qualitative data (Templier & Pare, 2015). The researcher is expected to convert raw material into usable data resulting in identifying themes. In this procedure, the researcher reviewed that information gathered several

times in order to classify similarities and discern differences. These similarities and differences then resulted in several sub-themes. This kind of thematical analysis is one of the most commonly used approaches in qualitative research (Templier & Pare, 2015).

# **Chapter 4: RESULTS**

This chapter entails the reasons why organizations are investing in employees' surveillance management systems and their impacts on employees' work behaviours and productivity studied in the selected reviewed articles. Next, it will review the various aspect of surveillance implications and how it affects organizational goals. Finally, it highlights the association and advantages of leader-employee trust relationship and optimization of business goals.

#### 4.1 Key Themes and Codes

Based on this extensive collection of secondary information, thematic analysis was carried out to evaluate the data and make analytical conclusions. This method is suitable for research which attempts to identify opinions, knowledge, experiences, or values from a set of qualitative data (Templier & Pare, 2015). The researcher is expected to convert raw material into usable data resulting in identifying themes. In this procedure, the researcher reviewed that information gathered several times in order to classify similarities and discern differences. These similarities and differences then resulted in several sub-themes. This kind of thematical analysis is one of the most commonly used approaches in qualitative research (Templier & Pare, 2015). Initial search was made to jot down key concepts and points to develop codes.

Table 3 below lists the initial concepts that were extracted from the articles.

| Domains   | Codes   |
|---|---|
| 1) How are organizations adopting the culture of remote working after the covid19 pandemic? | - remote working - advantages of remote work - lowered business expensive - increased productivity - increased employees' satisfaction and retention - schedule control and loyalty - remote work challenges such as social and professional isolation and lack of knowledge sharing - covid19 and remote working - settling of employees and organizations into the new norm of remote work - organization's response on remote working - leadership resistance for remote work - employees management issues during remote work |

|  | - lack of trusting relationship between managers and employees - employees surveillance to track performance - increase in the use of employees monitoring software - reasons for employee surveillance - organizational and employees' perspectives of surveillance - leadership motive to use employees monitoring software   |
|--|---|
| 2) How has the increase in employee surveillance during remote work influenced employee morale and productivity?                           | <ul> <li>how monitoring impacts employees' motivation and productivity levels</li> <li>poor trust between employees and organizations</li> <li>Lower productivity levels</li> <li>sacrifice on employees' autonomy</li> <li>monitoring and work- behaviours patterns</li> <li>privacy concerns for employees</li> <li>privacy intrusion and work stress</li> <li>workplace surveillance and its consequences</li> <li>diverts managerial attention and strain organizational resources</li> <li>increase work-related-stress and health problems</li> <li>monitoring and employee's sabotage</li> </ul>   |
| 3) How can organizations manage the implications of employee surveillance and the context of remote working to maximize their performance? | - legal and ethical implications of employee's surveillance - need of clean and transparent policies in place for performance management - leadership training to manage a remote workforce - mutual consents for tracking of information for business purposes -data should be used fairly, lawfully, and transparently - legal regulations to improve employee's privacy and confidentiality - Flexible work hours by default -No bias or discrimination based on tracked data - promote equity and fairness - formalizing processes - set objectives and goals - open communications and emphasis on results - milestones to keep track of employee's productivity - Accountability for progress - setting boundaries and scaling - Defining managers expectations with a remote workforce - focus on output over hours - communicate ethical expectations -Provide a protective mechanism |

Table 3: Results of thematic analysis of the articles found in the search process

To convert raw material into usable data, I firstly reorganized and coded data systematically by labelling the actions, behaviors, decisions, and policies. Coding assists to provide a logical interpretation of the content (Fisher et al., 2020). About 39 initial codes, relating to research questions emerged in the first observation of the raw data. These codes were derived based on each category of research analysis.

Table 3a, 3b and 3c below demonstrate the development of 39 codes altogether for each category.

| Category 1                      | Codes   | Articles                                    |
|---------------------------------|---------|---|
| Teleworking/remote working      | Code 1  | Schuster et al., 2020; Parker et al., 2020; |
| Remote working flexibility      | Code 2  | Golden & Chemi, 2020; Ivan, 2020            |
| Leadership's perception on      | Code 3  | Parker et al., 2020; Michael et al., 2021;  |
| remote work                     |         | Menezes & Kelliher, 2017                    |
| Asset Protection                | Code 4  | Michael et al., 2021; Gerten et al., 2019   |
| Risk management                 | Code 5  | Gelder & Vries, 2015; Ivan, 2020; Hugl,     |
|                                 |         | 2013  |
| Remote work surveillance        | Code 6  | Ball, 2010; Charbonneau & Doberstein,       |
|                                 |         | 2020; Menezes & Kelliher, 2017              |
| ICT and surveillance            | Code 7  | Golden & Chemi, 2020; Gerten et al.,        |
|                                 |         | 2019  |
| Increase in remote work         | Code 8  | Parker et al., 2020; Charbonneau &          |
| surveillance after Covid19      |         | Doberstein, 2020                            |
| Intrusive Employee monitoring   | Code 9  | Schuster et al., 2020; Ivan, 2020; Hugl,    |
|                                 |         | 2013  |
| Leadership resistance on remote | Code 10 | Ball, 2010; Golden & Chemi, 2020            |
| work                            |         |   |
| Lack of managerial training and | Code 11 | Hugl, 2013; Parker et al., 2020             |
| trust                           |         |   |

Table 3a: Codes derived from search articles for category 1

| Category 2                         | Codes   | Articles                                 |
|------------------------------------|---------|--|
| Advantages of remote working       | Code 1  | Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Bodie et al.,  |
|                                    | 0 1 0   | 2016; Santuzzi, 2015                     |
| Work-life balance                  | Code 2  | Ball, 2010; Charbonneau & Doberstein,    |
|                                    |         | 2020; Ivan, 2020                         |
| Employee productivity during       | Code 3  | Gerten et al., 2019; Gandini, 2016;      |
| remote work                        |         | Bhave,2014                               |
| Lower intertest and productivity   | Code 4  | Ivan, 2020; Rosenblat, 2018; Alampay &   |
| levels                             |         | Hechanova, 2017                          |
| Leadership trust with surveillance | Code 5  | Rosenblat, 2018; Gandini, 2016;          |
|                                    |         | Manokha, 2020                            |
| Employee monitoring and privacy    | Code 6  | Ball, 2010; Menezes & Kelliher, 2017     |
| Employees' surveillance and its    | Code 7  | Gerten et al., 2019; Ulrike, 2013;       |
| effects                            |         | Millman, 2018                            |
| Employee burnout                   | Code 8  | Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020; Ulrike,  |
|                                    |         | 2013; Ivan, 2020                         |
| Morale decline                     | Code 9  | Rosenblat, 2018; Indiparambil, 2017;     |
|                                    |         | Bhave, 2014; Bodie et al., 2016          |
| Work autonomy                      | Code 10 | Ivan, 2020; Molino et al., 2020; Alampay |
|                                    |         | & Hechanova, 2017                        |
| Work stress and health issues      | Code 11 | Ball, 2010; Gerten et al., 2019; Ivan,   |
|                                    |         | 2020; Manokha, 2020                      |
| Organizational commitment          | Code 12 | Gandini, 2016; Molino et al., 2020;      |
|                                    |         | Millman, 2018; Santuzzi, 2015            |
| Job satisfaction                   | Code 13 | Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Gerten et al., |
|                                    |         | 2019; Bodie et al., 2016                 |
| Discrimination                     | Code 14 | Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020;          |
|                                    |         | Rosenblat, 2018; Manokha, 2020           |

Table 3b: Codes derived from search articles for category 2

| Category 3                       | Codes  | Articles                                  |
|----------------------------------|--------|---|
| Leadership expectation during    | Code 1 | Kaupins & Minch, 2016; Lohr, 2014;        |
| remote work                      |        | Indiparambil, 2017                        |
| Accountability for progress      | Code 2 | Kaupins & Minch, 2016; Bhave, 2014        |
| Setting up employees' monitoring | Code 3 | Bhave, 2014; Dougherty & Hardy, 2015;     |
| boundaries                       |        | Whillans & Wilmot, 2020                   |
| Transparent company policies for | Code 4 | Dougherty & Hardy ,2015; Delgado,         |
| surveillance                     |        | 2018; Kaplan, 2015                        |
| Pre-defined objective and goals  | Code 5 | Friedman et al., 2016; Delgado, 2018;     |
| during remote work               |        | Walker, 2017                              |
| Disciplinary process             | Code 6 | Friedman et al., 2016; Indiparambil, 2017 |
| Legal implications               | Code 7 | Hugl,2013; Dougherty & Hardy ,2015;       |
|                                  |        | Kashdan, 2015                             |
| Ethical implications             | Code 8 | Hugl,2013; Lohr, 2014; Schumacher,        |
|                                  |        | 2011                                      |
| Equity and fairness among        | Code 9 | Friedman et al., 2016; Dougherty &        |
| employees                        |        | Hardy, 2015                               |

| Mutual consents for surveillance   | Code 10 | Kaupins & Minch, 2016; Walker, 2017    |
|------------------------------------|---------|--|
| Surveillance process formalization | Code 11 | Bhave, 2014; Lohr, 2014                |
| Protective mechanism for           | Code 12 | Friedman et al., 2016; Bhave, 2014;    |
| employees                          |         | Whillans & Wilmot, 2020                |
| Well-define leadership             | Code 13 | Dougherty & Hardy ,2015; Delgado,      |
| expectation during remote work     |         | 2018; Kashdan, 2015                    |
| Right of privacy                   | Code 14 | Hugl,2013; Bhave, 2014; Delgado, 2018; |
|                                    |         | Schumacher, 2011                       |

Table 3c: Codes derived from search articles for category 3

Each article is then considered based on codes derived and categorised to start analysis within given frame of research parameters. Table 3d below explains how each individual article contributed to the analysis section based on its code value. Table 3d below summarize the codes altogether.

| Articles                       | Codes                           |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Category 1                     |                                 |
| Schuster et al., 2020          | Code 1, Code 9                  |
| Ball, 2010                     | Code 6, Code 10                 |
| Menezes & Kelliher, 2017       | Code 3, Code 6                  |
| Parker et al., 2020            | Code 1, Code 8, Code 11         |
| Golden & Chemi, 2020           | Code 2, Code 7                  |
| Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020 | Code 6, Code 8                  |
| Gerten et al., 2019            | Code 4, Code 7                  |
| Ivan, 2020                     | Code 2, Code 5, Code 9          |
| Gelder & Vries, 2015           | Code 4, Code 7                  |
| Michael et al., 2021           | Code 3, Code 4                  |
| Hugl, 2013                     | Code 5, Code 9, Code 11         |
| Category 2                     |                                 |
| Bodie et al., 2016             | Code 1, Code 9 , Code 13        |
| Rosenblat, 2018                | Code 4, Code 5, Code 9, Code 14 |
| Gandini, 2016                  | Code 3, Code 5, Code 12         |
| Molino et al., 2020            | Code 10, Code 12                |
| Ulrike, 2013                   | Code 7, Code 8                  |
| Santuzzi, 2015                 | Code 1, Code 12                 |
| Millman, 2018                  | Code 7, Code 12                 |
| Manokha, 2020                  | Code 5, Code 11, Code 14        |
| Alampay & Hechanova, 2017      | Code 4, Code 10                 |
| Category 3                     |                                 |

| Bhave, 2014             | Code 2, Code 3, Code 11, Code 12, Code 14 |
|-------------------------|---|
| Indiparambil, 2017      | Code 1, Code 6                            |
| Whillans & Wilmot, 2020 | Code 3, Code 12                           |
| Kaplan, 2015            | Code 4                                    |
| Schumacher, 2011        | Code 8, Code 14                           |
| Dougherty & Hardy, 2015 | Code 3, Code 4, Code 7, Code 9, Code 13   |
| Lohr, 2014              | Code 1, Code 11                           |
| Walker, 2017            | Code 5, Code 10                           |
| Hugl, 2013              | Code 7, Code 8, Code 14                   |
| Kashdan, 2015           | Code 7, Code 13                           |
| Delgado, 2018           | Code 4, Code 5, Code 13, Code 14          |

Table 3d: Codes derived from search article for Analysis

Those initial codes helped group those similar data and further identify sub-themes. Based on this extensive collection of secondary information, data interpretation was required to answer the research questions because "data do not speak for themselves" (Fisher et al., 2020). The interpretation stage in the research process critically involves carrying on deep analytical thinking from underlying sub-themes. I then combined the codes into main themes which can describe the overall meaning of the data.

Below Table 3e demonstrate themes extracted from codes for final consideration

| Category 1                |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| Relevant Codes            | Extracted Themes                                   |
| Code 1, Code 2            | Remote working                                     |
| Code 9, Code 10           | Remote working and surveillance                    |
| Code 6, Code 8            | Increase in remote work surveillance after Covid19 |
| Code 7                    | Use of ICT in employees' monitoring                |
| Code 3, Code 4, Code 5    | Organizational behaviour towards remote            |
|                           | work surveillance                                  |
| Category 2                |  |
| Relevant Codes            | Extracted Themes                                   |
| Code 1, Code 2, Code 3,   | Remote working and its advantages                  |
| Code 4, Code 7, Code 8,   | Impact of employees' surveillance on               |
| Code 10, Code 12          | productivity and autonomy                          |
| Code 9, Code 11, Code 13, | Impact of surveillance on employees'               |
| Code 14                   | well-being and morale                              |

| Code 5, Code 6             | Leadership trust with remote work staff |
|----------------------------|---|
| Category 3                 |   |
| Relevant Codes             | Extracted Themes                        |
| Code 3, Code 6, Code 7,    | Legal Implications                      |
| Code 14                    |   |
| Code 1, Code 2 , Code 8,   | Ethical Implications                    |
| Code 9                     |   |
| Coe 4, Code 5, Code 10,    | Fixing the gap                          |
| Code 11, Code 12 , Code 13 |   |

Table 3e: Themes extracted from codes for each category

The codes above were then categorised into themes, as per Table 4 below.

| Themes | Remote Working   | Employee<br>Monitoring                                  | Impact of<br>employee<br>surveillance | Legal & ethical compliances and implications                  | Fixing the gap        |
|--------|--|---|---------------------------------------|---|-----------------------|
| Codes  | Remote working as a new norm after COVID19 pandemic                  | Incapability to manage a team remotely.                 | Lower morale and productivity levels  | Employees<br>awareness about<br>monitoring and<br>fairness    | Government<br>level   |
|        | Organizational<br>behaviour towards<br>remote work and<br>resistance | Use of ICT for employees monitoring                     | Employee burnout and well-being       | Goal-oriented productivity scaling                            | Organization<br>level |
|        | Employees<br>surveillance for<br>remote workforce<br>management      | The recent growth of the surveillance software industry | Work stress and health issues         | Regulations to improve employees' privacy and confidentiality | Employee level        |
|        |  |   | Decrease in motivation and loyalty    | mutual<br>agreement of<br>employees and<br>management         |                       |

Table 4: Final themes and codes

# 4.2 Findings

This section review summarizes the findings from the literature review in three sections:

- (a) Employee surveillance when remote working during and after the COVID19 pandemic
- (b) Impacts of employee monitoring on productivity and well-being
- (c) Ethical and legal implications and future considerations.

#### 4.2.1 Management uptake of employee surveillance

COVID19 is considered not only a global health crisis but also an international economic threat, with a wide array of unique challenges for employees and employers. Entire workforces were transformed overnight from not "working from home" employees and organizations into virtual workplaces (Hugl, 2013). The literature provides evidence that the concept of employee monitoring is not new (Hugl, 2013). Clocking in and out, counting, and weighing the workforce's output and wages based on hourly rates are all traditional forms of employees' monitoring (Ball, 2010). The word 'supervisor' in the earliest management histories referred to controlling and monitoring as a central part of each task (Ball, 2010).

On the other hand, the notion of privacy at the workplace can be observed as "fundamentally linked to the individual's sense of self, disclosure of self to others and his or her right to exert some level of control over the process" (Simms, 1994, p.316). Ball and Daniel (2013) reviewed the literature (DeCew, 1997; Westin, 2003; Burgoon et al., 1989; Altman, 1975; Zureik, 2004; Solove, 2002) and found that the concept of privacy was clustered around six dimensions: the right of solitude, information privacy, limitation of access, anonymity, bodily integrity, and intimacy.

Ball (2010) categorized the increasing use of the internet as a primary reason for employee monitoring in the last five years. He also argued that it is not the monitoring phenomenon itself that is of concern, but instead how the monitoring data is being used. Monitoring employees' productivity and work behaviours can be considered a part of the ongoing administrative process of controlling access to the

organization. However, the conclusion drawn by employers about the lifestyle of their employees using the data gathered from monitoring personal characterizes raises concerns. Figure 5 below depicts different forms of employee monitoring at the workplace.

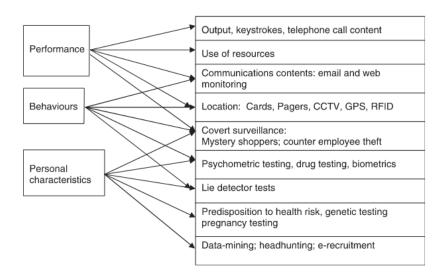


Figure 5: Employee surveillance techniques used by organizations (Adopted from Ball, 2010)

On a very pragmatic level, many organizations are being forced to work with a remote workforce after the COVID19 pandemic. The loss of face-to-face interaction led to the growth of new surveillance technologies that provide availability for collaborative purposes to overcome the barriers of distance. To achieve the goal, organizations now use a raft of surveillance techniques embedded within day-to-day operations tools and within the social processes of managing their staff.

Table 5 below highlights the summary of themes included in the articles that were reviewed to better understand this research area.

# Author, Year

Schuster et al., 2020; Ball, 2010; Stanton & Weiss, 2000; Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Parker et al., 2020; Golden & Chemi, 2020; Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020; Gerten et al., 2019; Ivan, 2020; Golden & Chemi, 2020; Gelder & Vries, 2015; Michael et al., 2021; Hugl, 2013

| Golden & Chemi, 2020; Gelder & Vries, 2015; Michael et al., 2021; Hugl, 2013 |   |  |
|--|---|--|
| Aim  | Management rationale for using surveillance and resistance towards allowing remote work   |  |
| Themes   | Outcome   |  |
| Asset Protection   | Much of the literature advocates workplace surveillance as a means for  |  |
| Asset Flotection   | organizations to protect their assets and safeguard work resources utilization. They also rely on surveillance systems to maintain the quality and productivity of the task force, protecting organizational values and limiting cost and risk.   |  |
| Risk management  | Organizations are investing in employee surveillance software for three main reasons. First, employers are keen to maintain employee's productivity levels to achieve business goals. Second, to protect corporate interests and trade secrets by monitoring the resources used by employees to minimize the risk of defamation, data theft, and sabotage. Third, for risk management, i.e., monitoring can help organizations deal with legal liabilities and provide evidence in legal actions. |  |
| Lack of trust  | Trust issue between leadership and employees contributes significantly towards these ever-rising surveillance industry through digital technologies. Managing a workforce of teleworkers has its unique obstacles, and many managers are sceptical of whether remote workers can maintain their level of motivation in the long run while working remotely. Many consider the performance of remote workers lower than those of sitting in an office setting.                                     |  |
| Lack of managers'<br>training to manage a<br>remote workforce                | The uncertainty and breadth of the pandemic shock do not allow organizations to consult and apply the proper strategy and training for supervisors to manage remote task force. This leads to the lack of unique supervisory controls to help individuals and businesses to respond to abrupt changes of work from home culture after pandemic and contribute significantly towards employees' monitoring.  |  |
| Intrusive Monitoring   | In the modern era, a combination of rapidly growing technological advancements and management culture has enabled organizations to opt for an extension and intensification of individual monitoring compared to a group or business unit and changed the whole algorithm on employees' monitoring industry.  |  |
| Use of ICT to track employees  | Several monitoring techniques, including email communications, use of active badges for tracking and locating employees, internet usage, web browsing, collection of personal information by employers, turned workers into a digital dataset which the companies use to understand how their workforce operates.   |  |
| Designing dashboards to enhance productivity                                 | By leveraging the historical data, companies can better understand the taskforce engagement and productivity throughout the year and develop valuable dashboards to measure performance outputs. It also helps comprehend the trends and patterns to improve their existing processes and work strategies.  |  |

| To practice self- | Surveillance techniques lend rationality to management systems for     |
|-------------------|--|
| discipline among  | empowering and encouraging their staff to practice self-discipline and |
| employees.        | bring out their creative, enterprising, and innovative behaviours.     |
|                   |  |

Table 5: Review of articles focused on rationale for using surveillance and resistance towards allowing remote work

### 4.2.2 Employee monitoring and its effects

Anderson et. al., (2014) endorsed that workplace surveillance produces quantifiable outcomes for attaining services levels or meeting targets and cultivating cultures to regulate performance, work behaviours, and personal physiognomies. However, on the other hand, organizations cannot use these reasons to justify excessive monitoring and intrusive surveillance practices, which can be detrimental to employees for numerous reasons (Stanton, 2007). First, employee privacy can be compromised if the information disclosed is transported to third parties without employee authorization. Second, like all other surveillance technologies, excessive monitoring can exhibit 'function creep', i.e., it sometimes harvests more information than required and temptation for management to extend monitoring practices without consulting employees. Third, employees' innovative and creative behaviour will be reduced upon realization of being monitored by their actions and communication. Fourth, by setting up employees' surveillance, organizations send a solid message to the workforce of what is expected by choosing a task to monitor (Spitzmüller & Stanton, 2006). The research highlighted that the monitored task has greater outcomes, and workers' pay more attention to the set target, which automatically reduces the amount of commitment and motivation towards other tasks. Finally, excessive monitoring results in verboten behaviours by employees if they consider surveillance as an intensification and extension of control over them. It will decrease their morale and productivity and increase resistance, sabotage, and non-compliance with management by manipulating the boundaries of when, where, and how they measure.

Table 6 below demonstrates the negative cognitive aspects of employees' predispositions towards monitoring based on the articles found.

# Author, Year

Ball, 2010; Stanton & Weiss, 2000; Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Charbonneau & Doberstein, 2020; Gerten et al., 2019; Ivan, 2020; Bodie et al., 2016; Rosenblat, 2018; Gandini, 2016; Molino et al., 2020; Ulrike, 2013; Electronic Privacy Information Centre, 2008; Santuzzi, 2015; Millman, 2018; Manokha, 2020; Gelder & Vries, 2015; Alampay & Hechanova, 2010; Indiparambil, 2017; Bhave, 2014

| Aim  | How the increase in employee monitoring negatively affects the workforce   |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|
| Themes   | Outcome  |  |  |
| Privacy concerns                                   | Research highlights employees' right to exhibit resistance to guard the freedom of his anonymity, information privacy, access, and share confidential data with others. With the surveillance practices conducted by employers, information collected can be used in multiple ways, which could have some critical implications on employees' professional work patterns inside the organization and might affect their lifestyle outside. |  |  |
| Trust breakdown                                    | Controversies arrive in situations when employees' monitoring goes beyond a reasonable and justifiable limit and probe into employees' lifestyle outside work, compromises work practices, and sacrifices employees' autonomy, control, and trust.   |  |  |
| Employee burnout and low morale                    | Data collected monitoring sources are widely used to judge employees' aptitude and skills, health and fitness, and emotional characteristics that lead to work discrimination and rendered worker morale.  |  |  |
| Lower interest and productivity                    | Excessive surveillance activities send a message to employees that they are not to be trusted to do their job and create adverse working conditions such as fear of job loss, reduced peer social support, lack of motivation and involvement towards the task, paced work, less control over tasks, abridged task variety and clarity, lack of supervisory support and routinized work activities.  |  |  |
| Work stress and well-<br>being                     | Research advocates that monitored employees reported higher pressure levels, work stress, and foregone quality over quantity. In order to get good feedback from customers, workers often involve themselves in additional- often unseen and unpaid- labor results in stress.  |  |  |
| Employees' sabotage                                | Another aspect of employee monitoring is work intensity, which results in employee burnout, stress, and health-related issues. The feeling of being watched and work under the monitoring radar is accompanied by permanent worker stress and frequent breakdowns. It results in intensified controlling mechanism and adversely affect job satisfaction.  |  |  |
| Low organizational commitment and job satisfaction | Studies firmly believed that electronic monitoring is a great cause of tension between employees and managers and creates unnecessary pressure and a negative impact on their relationship results in loss of employees' commitment and job satisfaction.  |  |  |

Table 6: Review of Articles focused on the negative impacts of the increase in employee monitoring

### 4.2.2.1 Case studies regarding employee surveillance and well-being:

Several studies have been conducted on employee monitoring and its adverse effects on workforce productivity, especially mental and physical health, and well-being (Table 7). I have considered 3 case studies from my selected articles to cross reference the results.

| Reference                    | Participants   | Results   |
|------------------------------|--|---|
| Bhave, 2014                  | 461 monitored participants and 283 non-monitored workers             | Monitored workers experienced decline in the relationship with peers, supervisors, and senior leadership which results in social isolation and fatigue.  Employees under electronic surveillance experienced less job satisfaction and a decline in the quality of work compared to peer workers. They complained of higher stress levels and physical health issues. |
| Indiparambil, 2017           | 50 electronically monitored workers and 94 non-monitored employees   | Monitored employees reported higher workload and work pressure levels   |
| Alampay & Hechanova,<br>2010 | 148 electronically monitored workers and 225 non-monitored employees | Monitored staff considered quantity as the most crucial factor while non-monitored staff reported work quality is more important  |

Table 7: Studies of monitored vs unmonitored employees' productivity and well-being

The studies above promote strong social pressure concerning peers scrutinization without considering the thought of distinctiveness and uniqueness of each individual and how each of them will respond to one particular scenario with different psychological and physical attributes.

### 4.2.2.2 Future Advancements in Surveillance Technologies

With the success of RFID technology, many companies like Ford are introducing body-tracking technology using sensors to guide their workforce in real-time about their targets to achieve and avoid slipping timelines to maximize productivity (Millman, 2018). A manufacturing company in the US deployed the same technology with the use of sensors on workers bodysuits to improve their posture and enhance productivity and claimed it also improved employees' safety. However, in reality, it increases employee monitoring (Millman, 2018).

Another common area of surveillance is a warehouse environment like Amazon, where workers carry devices that tell them the shortest distance to shelves and allow managers to send real-time messages to meet targets. Data from remote sensors and GPS devices is also transmitted to computers for analysis (Kaplan, 2015). Some companies are also implementing tracking devices that help analyse social dynamics at work to examine how employees' interactions affect performance (Delgado, 2018). Another example of specialized digital platform surveillance concerns Uber and similar organizations where surveillance and evaluation algorithms act like 'black box' (Pasquale, 2015). All these companies are indulged in a rapid-fire round of developing technology advancements to map such practices onto the emerging culture of remote working, and recent substantial hike of monitoring and employees' surveillance industry openly endorsed this reality.

#### 4.2.3 Implications- Legal and Ethical Perspective:

The implications of new employees' monitoring and workers' right to privacy invasion are widely discussed quite recently in academics literature (Ball, 2010; Lane 2003, Anderson et. al., 2014; Schumacher, 2011; Gelder and Vries, 2015). This attention was then augmented by debates in the mass media, among organizations such as the New York Times (Dougherty and Hardy 2015; Lohr 2014; Walker, 2017), BBC (Derousseau, 2017; Penarredonda, 2018), CBS (Kashdan 2015; Delgado, 2018) and many others (Manokha, 2020). All these channels raised critical concerns about modern technology's invasive potential to access employees' sensitive information, mask discrimination and biases for

promotion, salary raise, bonuses, and career progression, and be controlled under legal and ethical boundaries by employers.

Figure 6 below depicts the ethical issued raised in organizations by employee's surveillance

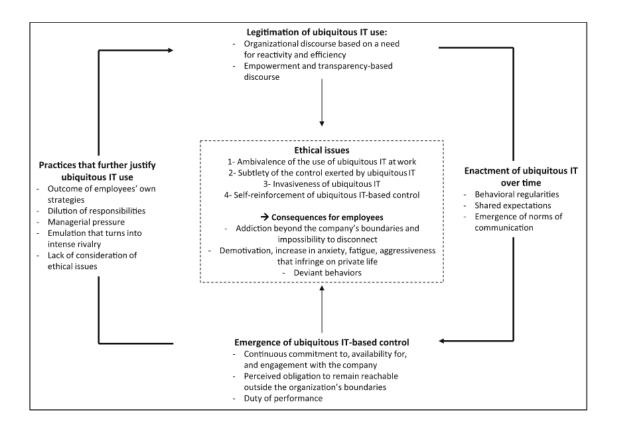


Figure 6: Overview of ethical issues raised by employee monitoring (Adapted from Vandelannoitte, 2014)

Generally, ethical, and legal principles are closely aligned, but both are different and have different objectives. Law involves the asset of rules to stabilize social institutions and injustice, whereas ethics involve how and why individuals ought to act (Kaupins and Minch, 2006), but the irony of the modern world is the prescribed professional codes of ethics which are perfectly legal to ignore.

Psychological studies have widely acknowledged the inevitable effects (Friedman et al., 2006) of monitoring employees, which are shaped by multiple factors. These factors hinge on the relationship

between supervisors and the task force regarding how they work in collaboration. Table 8 below provides an overview of the articles included in this section.

| Aut | hor, | Year |
|-----|------|------|
|-----|------|------|

Hugl, 2013; Menezes & Kelliher, 2017; Hislop et al., 2009; Whillans & Wilmot, 2020; Spitzmüller & Stanton, 2006; Alampay & Hechanova, 2010; Indiparambil, 2017; Bhave, 2014; Kaplan, 2015; Schumacher 2011; Dougherty & Hardy 2015; Lohr 2014; Walker, 2017; Kashdan, 2015; Delgado, 2018; Manokha, 2020; Gelder & Vries, 2015

| 2018; Manokha, 2020; G                                 | 2018; Manokha, 2020; Gelder & Vries, 2015  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| Aim  | Legal and Ethical considerations and contextual factors of employees' monitoring to maximize business performance  |  |  |  |
| Themes   | Outcomes   |  |  |  |
| Ethical and legal implications                         | Further aspects of employees' surveillance as 'function creep', i.e., how one specific surveillance technique can reveal multiple aspects of information about employees. Also, using these data is not made clear to employees, and employees' privacy is violated through such invasive practices.  Due to a lack of awareness by employees, and policies outlined above   |  |  |  |
|  | are not subject to any audits or ethical checks. Also, the increasing use of new modern consented or non-consented 'limitless' digital analytical technologies by employers to measure their workforce output, performance, work pattern, and psychological behaviours need to be questioned.  |  |  |  |
|  | Ethically, supervisors need to be considerate about their subordinates, and monitoring should be balanced by other broader factors feedback procedures such as appraisals and coaching. Leadership also needs to communicate the set goals and monitoring practices and their expected outcomes to employees. Another promising approach is to involve employees while making processes that will safeguard the chances of acceptance and make the process clear and transparent on how information goes in the system and analyzed. An introductory level of trust with the supervisor also makes it easier and less stressful for system acceptability.  |  |  |  |
| Organizational policies for remote work and monitoring | To set up the boundaries for such intrusiveness make it a challenge to identify what is legit and what crosses the limit. This also alarms the bell towards employers' lack of specific monitoring policy and dearth of audit to how information is used. Due to employers' insufficient ethical and legal considerations and unclear policies to address the issue, employees are not fully aware of their rights to resist and limit surveillance practices by employers.  Moreover, often, managers and workers intake the same phenomena in different contexts at different times; therefore, senior leadership must step forward and act as neutral to maintain the integrity and transparency of the processes by fair chance. |  |  |  |

# Equity and fairness

Leadership should encourage the 'trust' relationship among the workforce to cultivate accountability and responsibility and collaborate with the team to ensure that the staff is adequately trained for such systems and have a fair chance in performance shortfalls.

| Mobilizing the monitoring cultures by task design, group of people, and work ethos will boost the affordability to make monitoring practices more legitimize and distinctive within any social setting. |
|---|
| more legitimize and distinctive within any social setting.  |

Table 8: Review of Articles focused on Ethical and legal issues around employees' monitoring

### 4.2.4 Policies and Recommendations:

Table 9 below provides an overview of the articles that discussed company polices and recommendations for promoting fairness and equality.

| Categories            | Recommendations   | Reference                   |
|-----------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| Organizational Level  | Differentiate monitoring task on individual / group level           | Friedman et al., 2016       |
|                       | Leadership outlining the characteristics of monitoring              | Spitzmüller & Stanton, 2006 |
|                       | Clearly mentioning the outcome expectations                         | Kaupins & Minch, 2016       |
|                       | Guidelines for managers for surveillance practices                  | Kaupins & Minch, 2016       |
|                       | Equity of rewards   | Bhave, 2014                 |
|                       | Clear and accessible company policies                               | Dougherty & Hardy, 2015     |
|                       | Policies/guidelines regarding whistleblowing and making complaints  | Gelder & Vries, 2015        |
|                       | Hybrid working model  | Gelder and Vries, 2015      |
| Ethical Consideration | Employee voice, involvement, and mutual responsibility              | Hugl,2013                   |
|                       | Open communication and administration                               | Bhave, 2014                 |
|                       | Fair chance of consideration in case of performance fluctuations    | Hugl, 2013                  |
|                       | Balance between business interests and employee's privacy interests | Dougherty & Hardy., 2015    |
| Legal Aspects         | Adequate and responsible consultation                               | Sprague, 2017               |
|                       | Accountability and Intensity of control                             | Hugl, 2013                  |
|                       | Disciplinary procedures   | Hugl, 2013                  |
|                       | Right of privacy and mutual agreement                               | Gelder & Vries, 2015        |

Table 9: Review of articles on policies and recommendations for equity and fairness

To limit or balance the emphasis on task monitoring, issues to consider include: if monitoring is designed on an individual basis or for a group of people, if performance and productivity are a measure of combined efforts or if individuals are given sole responsibility and accountability, how management

designs the tasks, what will be the controlling style and how employees' cognition of the monitoring process will work (Bhave,2014). More importantly, there should also be consideration as to whether the person doing the monitoring considers employees' physiological and emotional state or passes blanket judgments based on expected figures. How leadership outlines the characteristics of monitoring is related to an organization's values. All these factors contribute significantly to building up stress levels, resulting in performance fluctuations and resistance, and retaliation from employees. These dynamics result in potentially critical organizational consequences and lead to low morale, productivity levels, and burnout (Spitzmüller & Stanton, 2006; Gelder and Vries, 2015; Electronic Privacy Information Centre, 2008; Bhave, 2014).

Furthermore, open communication and administration, employees' expectations, and the organization's paralanguage of surveillance create guidelines that can help managers manage surveillance practices in a less harmful and more decent manner. The hot stove rule of the primary discipline principle is to enhance fairness, and it should be consistent, immediate, and impartial (Gelder & Vries, 2015). For example, concerning location monitoring may include revealing the data to the employee and confirming the location route. This will not only enable management to make a better judgment call but also helps employees know locations outside work are off-limits during working hours- hence a win-win situation for both parties. It is also important to consider ethical implications of monitoring practices using the notions of distributive (equity of reward) and procedural (employee voice, involvement, and mutual responsibility) justice (Hugl,2013). This is directly related to the employees' attitude and motivation to work, ensuring adequate and responsible consultation. It will also balance the employer's business interests with the employee's privacy interests.

From the legal perspective, in general, the employer has the right to control his employees during working hours but with gentle and appropriate surveillance instruments and s/he should be held accountable about the intensity of control; however, the legal meaning and legitimacy of control have to be evaluated on a case-by-case basis. Although business needs to keep track of employees' working

hours (Hugl, 2013), further analysis would violate the employees' right to privacy and require a mutual agreement. Also, monitoring practices such as computer surveillance using keylogging and screenshots, recording employees' personal internet usage, keeping track of communications using modern systems with preinstalled listening and recording functions, and location monitoring, need mutual agreement between workers and management.

Furthermore, it has to be evaluated what statistics are explicitly allowed or not allowed to be obtained from such data; privacy protocols and data protection rights are appropriately taken care of. The intensity of surveillance practices requires legal-oriented appraisals, and the employer has to put visible information's signs for any data breach (Hugl, 2013). However, illegal corporate usage of surveillance instruments is quite common, and the rapid occurrence of such incidents is becoming publicly known. Rebhan (2009) critically criticized the flawed legal system where such illegal acts are prosecuted in sporadic instances.

Unfortunately, most employees are not well-versed in their rights, or appropriate guidance is provided by any means. Employers primarily do not invest much effort to create user-friendly, transparent policies, which can help in disagreements. To apply these policy recommendations, organizations should establish clear monitoring policies, including employee handbook, ethics codebook, legal research sources, and government directives and laws to incorporate awareness and acceptance. These should be readily available on the company intranet and should require employees' acknowledgment that they have read and complied with the codebook in case of any policy disputes (Kaupins & Minch, 2006).

# **Chapter 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

### 5.1 Discussion

Although much of the preceding literature advocates and acknowledged the relationship between management control and employee's motivation in relation to employees monitoring and its impacts on productivity levels, the topic of excessive monitoring creating a controversial debate of privacy invasion and emerged as a new focal point for researchers in organizational and psychological studies. With the increase in technological advancements and a new standard of remote working resulting from a global pandemic, employees' monitoring has become more protuberant. Managers struggle to trust their employees without their physical presence and invest more time and effort in micromanaging employees' behaviour to craft future strategies. These technologies are exacerbated when work is performed in employees' own homes and have bloomed into a full-fledged trend of stooping down in employees' private bubbles.

As mentioned previously, the aims of the study are to:

- Examine the impacts of employee monitoring and surveillance on employee well-being,
   productivity, morale, performance, trust, and motivation
- Examine the alignment of employee monitoring with firms' ethical and legal responsibilities
   regarding the privacy of employees and 'good faith' dealings
- Develop guidelines to help organizations manage the undesirable outcomes of employee monitoring, while fulfilling organizational goals

The global pandemic has accelerated the adoption of workforce surveillance technologies across the globe and has thrust many organizations to use surveillance software to keep track of employees' everyday productivity and output (Anderson et. al., 2014). Workplace surveillance includes social and technological aspects (Anderson et. al., 2014), where personal data gathering, location tracking, internet, email tracking, biometrics, or covert surveillance are all in the development zone (Ball, 2010). A recent spike in surveillance software industry prevalence raises many arguments and controversial issues surrounding the topic (Leonardi, 2014).

This study agrees that monitoring and supervision are required for accountability and smooth sailing of process running. We cannot deny that organizations and surveillance must go hand in hand (Ball, 2010). Organizations put in place surveillance practices to control different business hierarchy levels and the organization itself (Ball, 2010). They have legitimate business reasons to implement surveillance practices to protect their assets, prevent cybercrimes, and ensure their workforce is committed and performing during office time to achieve organizational goals. These are also helpful for self-disciplinary practices for the employee (Ball, 2010). While management controls are always considered for the benefits of the organizational goals, it is not considered politically neutral and involves various contextual factors. Previously, workplace surveillance was limited to supervisors only, but now employees are under the constant radar even when working remotely because all the operations and movements are recorded and analyzed through digital technology (Rosenblat, 2018). Organizations are turned into a field of visibility that can watch, observe, analyse, and control the behaviour of each employee.

The disagreement starts when workplace surveillance takes social and technological forms in recent times and 'excessive' monitoring practices invade employees' privacy and autonomy. As a result of recent events of the global pandemic and rush to adopt remote working environment, organizations forego to consider its contradictory effects on employees' well-being, loyalty, motivation, and job satisfaction. Routinized algorithms of surveillance systems limit employees' creativity and constructive

ideas to perform any task and create psychological and emotional barriers. It may also perpetuate the existing inequalities in the workplace and create new ones.

This study emphasized how the occurrence of above-mentioned arguments makes it better and does it better, making it challenging to radicalise. Companies are only following the approach in favour of employers making their own pockets full without considering that good management practices will provide the ease for implementation and benefit both parties if conducted more humane and balanced.

The virtual workplace is a reality where employees operate remotely and will be more common in the future. For effective remote work cultures, leadership should be focusing on two things. First, shift their focus from time to results, and second, instead of needing more managers occupied with surveillance data and mapping that onto current strategies, better supervisory skills among existing managers are required who can engage both the business and the employees for stunning improvements, productivity, profits, and customer service.

It is also essential to accept that the new digital surveillance technologies reviewed in this study are still premature and not universally implemented. It depends upon the nature of business and varies from organization to organization. The further adoption is dependent upon the legal framework and labour laws of each terrain. However, lack of any evocative resistance from employees or work unions facilitates these widespread digital surveillance practices transforming the workforce into objective indicators. Unfortunately, this intensification of employees' surveillance primarily benefits employers but relatively little benefits to employees and causes power asymmetries.

This study agrees that digital technologies and surveillance systems are here to stay despite all the emerging evidence about privacy concerns. In fact, more technological advancements such as palm computing, Time tracker, biometric terminals, cell phones sensors, live views of employees' PCs to screen recording, from keystrokes to zoom meetings, will be converged in existing systems for more

monitoring controls (Zweig & Webster, 2020). Despite the physical distance, businesses are keeping closer tabs on employees than ever before.

The use of performance monitoring tools has jumped significantly over the past year, as managers try to improve team visibility and track output. Even before the crisis, 62% of organizations were using monitoring tools to collect data on employees' behaviour during work hours (Zweig & Webster, 2020). After a year of remote work, those tools have become securely integrated into companies' day-to-day. Although a return to offices is approaching, managers are unlikely to roll back software that's provided insight, especially as many businesses will continue to offer work from home as an option(Zweig & Webster, 2020). Thus, it is important to accept those systems, but what this study disagrees with is to give complete authority to the employer to practice its rights to exercise those systems on employees. What is recommended is to study and pay attention to these technologies and educate employers and development authorities about how to do it better depend upon case-by-case, organization-to-organization basis. It is important to understand that surveillance penetrates into the bodies and minds of employees, and not their performance. It is also important to recognize that how these technologies are changing the shape of future workforce and how we identify limits around acceptable versus unacceptable claims.

## 5.2. Future Study

This study aims to address the void by examining the short-term and long-term impacts of increasingly trendy employees' monitoring and surveillance during the new norm of remote working after the COVID19 pandemic on employees' productivity and performance.

This study makes at least two contributions to the literature. The first contribution is about the debate and role of electronic surveillance of employees and their productivity levels. The findings advocate that employer can use different controls that can enhance employee motivation and performance without sacrificing their autonomy, morale, and efficiency. Second, earlier research treated remote

working and employees' monitoring in isolation and as two different domains, and not much prior research concluded the effect of one onto the other. This study adds to the literature a 'cross-level study, connecting two ends for future researchers to explore more good relations that can fulfill broader needs.

The data search process found several current descriptive studies focused on different industries with similar outcomes. In contrast, literature on similar industries also shaped dissimilar results of workplace surveillance and its consequences. A more comprehensive assessment of relationship between employee monitoring and its effects on productivity is required which may enable researchers to identify certain variables which may change the role of workplace surveillance.

This study also extends research towards the need for multiple monitoring tools and controls to enhance employees' motivation compared to intrusive and invasive means of surveillance. The finding can be organized into a framework that will lead to a series of guidelines for employers to act more responsible, accountable, and answerable towards monitoring practices in a translucent manner to keep up the excellent relationship and enthusiasm of employees.

This study will open several new avenues of research to enhance employees' understanding and awareness about surveillance practices and their ethical, legal, and employment policies. I believe that existing laws and ethical considerations should be strong enough that employers provide a consistent evaluation of monitoring effectiveness.

This study also provides a path for human resource management professionals to investigate and design the processes that has no problems justifying the use of workplace monitoring. They should work in collaboration with leadership and technology companies to avoid the temptation of using monitoring data, influencing employer to cross the privacy and ethical boundaries.

One of the critical outcomes of employee surveillance which is greatly neglected in the existing literature is employee mental health and well-being. To work under electronic monitoring exerts

greater pressure and stress among employees and adversely affect physical and mental well-being. The combination of stress and surveillance harmfully impact employees' health and push workforce beyond reasonable tolerance levels. Further research should emphases on employee health and well-being above all.

We all live in an era where remote working and all these technologies will not go away- these epitomize the next wave of monitoring techniques and require our diligence and research attention. Since technology-based control is exerted almost anytime and everywhere, this has become the most subtle, indirect, and invisible form of surveillance and framed as an ethical issue in organizational ethical literature. Thus, a more comprehensive inquiry is required to improve understanding and its ethical consequences.

Moreover, being on the business side, the development companies are just acting as evaluators for organizations with minimal percent of consideration on employees' behalf for the adverse effects these systems offered. So, by paying attention to such barriers, like mentioned in this study, further research can be done to better society.

This study also attempts to extend employees' understanding concerning the technological advancement and surveillance systems that are already embedded in our day-to-day work life. It will broaden the knowledge and acceptance of employees and give them a better interpretation of related domains in a diversified sphere. It will also help create awareness for employers and tech companies about the psychological barriers to accepting such systems and elements of fairness and respect by maintaining personal boundaries. The results put forward the evidence that technology alone is not the only solution for the successful implementation of such systems; however, it is of utmost importance to balance the perceived benefits of monitoring and the psychological implications of employees' monitoring.

## 5.3. Limitations

No study can be concluded as perfect and with no limitations. Perhaps, there are extensive gaps in the current literature and provides a concrete foundation to conduct future research in many aspects. In particular, this study also does not shed reasonable light on employers' perspectives regarding employees' surveillance and its necessity concerning business outcomes and productivity. Further research needs to draw conclusions based on the electronic surveillance methods, which are less intrusive and evoke less resistance by employees with well-defined implementation purposes to achieve greater employees' productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational goals.

One of the more important limitations is that this study discussed productivity instead of actually measuring productivity since some of the referenced studies exhibited that employees' monitoring increases productivity, even negatively impacting employees' autonomy and emotional state. Thus, further investigation must study the relationship between actual productivity and acceptance of surveillance methods by employees.

Because the current study is exploratory in nature, future confirmatory studies with more detailed and robust analyses based on a larger sample could usefully explore some newer domains. It would be beneficial for all to set the definitions of workplace surveillance and its boundaries.

The sample used in this study is purely based on qualitative analysis of given scope and doesn't consider arguments and results interpreted through quantitative methods. It is, therefore, open for future researchers to balance and support the conclusion with quantitative findings. In addition, this research is limited to the number of articles and databases included in this study to make it more acquiescent for analysis as discussed under methodology chapter. Moreover, there are various databases which are not employed in this study due to limited or no access. A further investigation might reflect additional themes and codes related to the current scope.

Another crucial limitation is that our findings do not support any hypothesized relationship between control actions and employees' productivity and motivation. Although several studies advocate direct

association of high use of controls produced higher productivity, further research is required to validate that path. While this study authenticates negative outcomes of employees' surveillance over productivity, a possible elucidation for the positive outcomes would be needed to make a more comprehensive claim.

It is important to consider the demographic characteristics, organizational norms, emergent technology advancements and targeted industry for considering the implications of employees' monitoring and surveillance. This study is limited to the generic integrated approach and focusing particular sector might identify disparate effects.

This study reports a comparison between excessive surveillance and its negative impacts, which is concluded to a specific context based on employees' psychological and emotional needs; it may, however, comes at the expense of other factors that we did not focus on during this study. More meaningful conclusions can still be drawn from our data in a cross-sectional setting of consented surveillance options and job performance.

Certain observations cannot be adequately addressed under the scope of this study, such as all the assumptions that have been made under the traditional way of employment, and monitoring outcomes may differ within the confined workplace and have different settings for measuring and analysing productivity. Second, the increasing rise in monitoring during remote work must be placed in a broader socio-economic context to explain why this is happening. Considering it beyond the scope of this paper, it may be recommended for future researchers to dig down more evidence pertaining to digital surveillance and its implications in the broader horizon.

In addition, future research is required to find out how crucial management control is in motivating employees to perform better and how important it is for employees to be well aware of surveillance practices and their implementation results. Better understanding will aid senior management and organizations prepare their workforce to avoid alienation from electronic monitoring and craft it more transparent, appropriate, and suitable.

#### 5.4 Conclusion

decomposing the whole study process into more manageable and less complex tasks, this research will serve as an essential educational purpose to introduce new structural approaches to advocate both employees' and employers' outlooks. Likewise, this study will improve the pathway of research and ease researchers to propose strategies practices to comply with the new norm of remote working. Further research could test the applicability by exploring the current practices and what needs to be done in future perspectives. The proposed guidelines might contribute to rigor, but simply reporting a procedure does not necessarily grant its aptness and efficacy, but it will help further mature the research community's framework.

Fisher et al., (2020) highlight literature review method as a tool to produce new knowledge. By

Historical research mainly emphasizes how flexibility and remote work arrangements improve employees' productivity; however, there is a lack of study on the impacts of the overuse of employees' surveillance during remote work obliterating their productivity, morale, and well-being. In such challenging times of pandemic where people are already on a hard ride of a physiological and emotional roller-coaster, the lack of empirical evidence for guiding business executives and policymakers on the road ahead can create critical consequences. Since this side of the mirror remains a comparatively uncharted avenue of scholarly investigation, this study will seek to bridge this gap and add knowledge to the existing literature. The research will target a current dilemma and contribute knowledge and provide new research angles of remote working and trust relationship between employees and organizations.

To conclude, we expect this research to contribute to the growing interest in standalone literature reviews and the recent trends of evidence-based management to help society grow positively. The enhanced framework and series of detailed guidelines used in this study will serve as a valuable asset for those interested in the subject area for evaluating and conducting further research both within and outside our field.

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