How has Remote Work Self-Efficacy Changed After a Quarter Century?

Emmanuel Diplarakis

A Thesis

In the Department of Management

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of Science (Management)

At Concordia University

Montréal, Québec, Canada

March 2025

CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY

School of Graduate Studies

This is to certify that the thesis prepared

By: Emmanuel Diplarakis

Entitled: How has Remote Work Self-Efficacy Changed After a Quarter Century?

and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science (Management)

Complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Signed by the final examining committee:

_____ Chair

Dr. Linda Dyer

_____ Examiner

Dr. Seth Spain

_____ Thesis Supervisor

Dr. Yu-Shan Hsu

March 18, 2025

Approved by:

_____ Graduate Program Director

Dr. Linda Dyer

_____ Dean of Faculty

Dr. Anne-Marie Croteau

Abstract

How has Remote Work Self-Efficacy Changed After a Quarter Century?

Emmanuel Diplarakis

The purpose of this research was to replicate and extend Staples et al.'s (1999) study to determine if their findings are consistent relative to modern remote work models to provide contextually relevant suggestions for managers to enact policies that leverage remote work to benefit their employees and organization. The study consisted of assessing the mechanisms that lead remote workers to experience enhanced performance and improved well-being. In addition to the model illustrated in Staple et al.'s (1999) study, I also examined whether technology industries moderate the relationships between antecedents of remote work self-efficacy, and if remote work intensity, the degree an employee works from home, moderates the relationships between remote work self-efficacy and outcomes. Through a combination of using Prolific and convenience sampling, I obtained 434 valid responses. I then used SPSS to conduct regression analysis to test hypotheses. The results in general confirm Staples et al.'s (1999) findings. I found that modelling best practices by manager, IT experience and training, and general computer self-efficacy were positively associated with remote work self-efficacy; while computer anxiety had a negative association. Furthermore, remote work self-efficacy had positive associations with remote work performance, job satisfaction, affective commitment, ability to cope, and a negative association with job stress. In terms of moderation effects, there is a stronger, positive relationship between general computer self-efficacy and remote work self-efficacy for employees working in technology industries than those working in non-technology industries. Theoretical, practical contributions, and future research directions are discussed.

Acknowledgements

When I look back to my first day of graduate studies, I see someone who was ambiguous about the future. I had always wanted to attend higher education, but lacked the confidence that I would succeed. After having the opportunity to make new connections with colleagues and professors through the Master of Science in Management program, I am glad to say I have been successful. However, I could not have accomplished this alone.

I would like to begin by thanking my thesis supervisor Dr. Yu-Shan Hsu. The last 5 months have been very productive since she had agreed to supervise my thesis and her contributions to this work are invaluable. Dr. Yu-Shan Hsu's knowledge and insight were delivered through providing clear and concise guidance towards attaining deliverables, actively communicating through email answering my relentless and exhaustive bombardment of questions, providing me with helpful feedback, and creating resolutions whenever I hit a block in my work. To say the least, her involvement was essential to the success of my thesis.

I would like to thank my thesis co-supervisor Dr. Muhammad Jamal for endowing his knowledge and contributions to job stress literature that inspired several key facets of this study.

I would like to thank my committee Dr. Linda Dyer and Dr. Seth Spain for providing me with constructive feedback and affording me their knowledge through inspirational seminars.

I would like to also thank everyone from Prolific and my own personal network who took the time to answer questionnaires that would become the data necessary to complete this thesis.

Lastly, I would like to thank my family and my friends for supporting me through this journey and reminding me that although we may all come from different backgrounds, we all go through similar hardships and that tomorrow is always a day for opportunity.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Table of Figures

Introduction

Remote work, alternatively recognized as Work-from-Home (WFH), a workplace arrangement that consists of physically working away from a business full-time (fully remote) or part-time (hybrid), is a topical subject in contemporary management strategies (Manko, 2021). Prior to the outbreak of COVID-19 (pre-January, 2020), less than a fifth of Americans were working remotely, while in April 2020, during the onset of pandemic restrictions, more than half of Americans were displaced to remote workplaces (Sull, Sull, & Bersin, 2020). Although remote work is not a novel approach to work, it is evident that restrictions imposed during the pandemic catalyzed the movement from office to home, forcing businesses and managers alike to adapt and implement new strategies to remain competitive in the market (Howe & Menges, 2022; Sull et al., 2020). However, in 2024, two years after the alleviation of restrictions, several questions still remain: Should we continue to invest in remote workers or force employees to return to the office? More specifically, what policies can businesses and their human resource teams implement in order to enhance performance and improve the well-being of remote workers in order to legitimize the use of remote workers as a management strategy?

In practical applications, questions such as these have yet to be definitively answered. Businesses need to evaluate the outcomes of implementing different remote workplace models and how their decisions align with their core values and business model. Evidently, this decision will vary depending on industry and business, as can be seen in several changes made from major players in the market. In 2017, IBM, who was known as a large advocate for remote work, employing 40% of their marketing workers remotely (386,000) and saving 78,000,000 ft^2 ($100,000,000) annually in real estate capital since 2009, ultimately chose to return their workers to the offices at the expense of established productivity in an effort to improve creativity

(Kessler, 2017). In contrast, in June 2021, Google offered hybrid remote work to all of their employees who did not require in-person interaction in an effort to increase employee well-being (decreasing commutes) at the risk of potential consequences such as increased project lead times (Kelly, 2020; Schindler, 2016). On February 6th, 2024, GitHub announced that they would be implementing cost-saving measures, consisting of letting go of 10% of their staff and moving to a 100% remote workplace (Trueman, & Gold, 2024). The implications of the pandemic are having a lasting effect on businesses, both managerially and financially, with Morgan Stanley reporting that the shift to remote has plummeted the office real-estate market, with an all-time high of a 13.1% vacancy rate in 2023 (Sor, 2024).

There have been several notable works in the past that have elucidated the relationships between antecedents of remote work and behavioural outcomes such as performance, stress, and job satisfaction. Staples, Hulland, and Higgins' (1999) study, "A Self-Efficacy Theory Explanation for the Management of Remote Workers in Virtual Organizations", established that an individual's self-efficacy, the belief that they have the capabilities to execute tasks successfully, which are otherwise influenced by a collection of experiences, act as the underlying mechanism for achieving beneficial behaviour (outcomes) in a remote setting (Bandura, 1977, 1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Staples, Hulland, & Higgins, 1999). More specifically, Staples et al. (1999) developed their research model based on Bandura's self-efficacy theory, with the initial model (Appendix A) consisting of the following antecedents: remote work experience and training, IT experience and training, modelling best practices by manager, computer anxiety, physical conditions, and connectivity. These independent variables would then be associated with remote work self-efficacy and IT self-efficacy, leading to the respective outcomes of remote work performance, job satisfaction, ability to cope, organizational commitment, and job stress.

However, after initial testing, a refined model (Appendix B) was developed where the variables of connectivity, IT self-efficacy, and IT experience and training were combined into a new variable labeled IT capabilities due to being interrelated, and physical conditions was removed due to having a positive but non-significant relationship with remote work self-efficacy (Staples et al., 1999).

Research Goals

This thesis study consists of a replication and extension of Staples et al.'s (1999) work and addresses limitations that were identified while reading both therein and in more recent research. The justifications for conducting a replication and extension study are inspired by the topical subject of remote work and my own anecdotal experiences. As previously mentioned, remote work has become a relevant subject in the workplace, with its implications constituting valuable knowledge that can be applied to its management. Staples et al.'s (1999) article provided insightful implications on how outcomes of remote work may be interpreted through perceptions of self-efficacy. More specifically, the decision to replicate Staples et al.'s (1999) study rather than another is because it is an older example that comprehensively demonstrated the implications of remote work during a time when it was less prevalent while also providing a logical explanation for the consequences of remote work, with the evaluation of remote work self-efficacy being shown to be predictive of performance and efficiency. This study is interesting as self-efficacy is based on an individual's past experiences, while the contemporary shift from in-office to remote demonstrated during and post COVID-19 posit the question of what factors of an individual's past experiences resulted in their success or deficit while working remotely. Therefore, replication was necessary to determine if the findings of the original study

are generalizable and indicate that certain patterns in an individual's past experiences lead to desired performance outcomes (Kite & Whitley, 2018).

However, there are several concerns found in the original study that must be addressed, such as symptoms of the changing landscape of technology at the time of publication and the call for future research to measure the differences in remote work self-efficacy between workers in technology and non-technology-based industries (Staples et al., 1999). In order to account for the changes in the technological environment and to fulfill the gaps in the literature, definitions, variables, and samples are manipulated to determine if the findings are generalizable across different industries and constitute as an extension to the original study (Kite & Whitley, 2018). It is more accurate to state that this study is a conceptual replication and extension because it relies on the ideas of the original study while conceptually restating hypotheses to accommodate a contemporary interpretation of remote work. A direct replication was not executed as it may garner threats to validity as older definitions of remote work do not accurately conform to those that are currently found in businesses and differences are expected as it would be difficult to use the same original sample (Kite & Whitley, 2018).

Lastly, the inspiration for replicating Staples et al.'s (1999) study also came from my own anecdotal experiences. My background is in business technology management and the network that I developed throughout my academic career consists of individuals who work remote jobs; hence I have a vested interest in technology and its uses in the management of remote workers. Therefore, in accordance with literature read, the justifications for replication and extension, and influences from my own anecdotal experiences, the following paragraphs consist of changes made from the study being replicated.

First, the definition of remote work, also known as work-from-home (WFH), has been changed and limited to work that is conducted from a location separate from the organization, specifically from home, and completed through the means of technology on a full-time or part-time (hybrid) basis (Ferrara, Pansini, De Vincenzi, Buonomo, & Benevene, 2022; Gajendran, Ponnapalli, Wang, & Javalagi, 2024). This distinction was made because these two forms of remote work are the most prominent in the market, while the study being replicated considered remote workers as employees who physically worked in a different location (office) from their direct bosses, with only 17% of their sample actually working from home, making the study less relevant to the situation of businesses today (Manko, 2021; Staples et al., 1999; Sull, Sull, & Bersin, 2020). However, it is important to recognize that the reason why their study had a low percentage of employees working from home was conducive of a combination of older definitions of remote work not distinguishing between precise locations and the costs and sophistication of technology at the time. Staples et al.'s (1999) definition of remote work was that "If employees worked in a different building than their managers (which could be across the city, the state, the country, or even the globe), the employees were considered to be remote workers, since they were working remotely from their managers." Additionally, it is important to acknowledge that remote work does not solely constitute working from home. However, this study is interested in remote workers who specifically work from their homes (WFH). Therefore, the distinction being made is that the location separate from the organization is the home, and that for the purpose of this study, remote work and WFH are used interchangeably.

Second, the physical conditions variable was reintroduced into the theoretical model. The variable consists of evaluating whether an individual encounters distractions such as noise in their office (Staples et al., 1999). Due to the fact that no significance was found in Staples et al.'s

(1999) original model, they had decided to exclude it from their refined model. However, it has been reintroduced because work-family conflict distractions in recent studies have demonstrated pertinent consequences (Biju, Vijaya, & Akhil, 2022; Fan & Moen, 2022; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Hackney, Yung, Somasundram, Nowrouzi-Kia, Oakman, Yazdani, & Ebrahimi, 2020; Nuwer, 2016; Park, Shin, Kim, & Yazdani, 2023).

Third, as a means of extending this study, two samples from different industries are being recorded. Industry is introduced as a first level moderator to compare and determine if there are job contextual variables that influence remote workers' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, Manko, 2021). Staples et al.'s (1999) noted that there was a gap in their study, being that future studies should substantiate if there is a difference in remote work self-efficacy between workers who are employed in technology and non-technology-related industries. However, the use of the term high-technology firms in Staples et al.'s (1999) study was used ambiguously since they did not specify which professions they were recording in IT-related industries. Therefore, the first sample consists of individuals in a specific profession related to the technology industry to determine if similar findings may be replicated (Kite & Whitley, 2018; Staples et al., 1999).

The first sample is composed of software professionals who work remotely and meet the proposed definition for remote work. The definition of software professional in this context are individuals with computer and technology backgrounds and whose job consists of using programming to accomplish work tasks, such as software engineers, software developers, and programmers in general. The reason for distinguishing programmers is because their jobs are easily convertible to a remote setting and require a lot of autonomy, a key attribute that has been identified in the past as being beneficial towards remote work performance (Nuwer, 2016; Reisinger & Fetterer, 2021). Additionally, through literature review, programmers are

underutilized in research on self-efficacy and remote work while the facets of the job make it an industry that is well aligned with the use of remote work models. The second sample demographic consists of remote workers from any industry. This would accommodate for the gap that was identified, allowing for differences in remote work self-efficacy to be observed between workers in technology and non-technology-related industries, and to determine if findings are generalizable.

Fourth, remote work intensity, the amount of time an individual works remotely from home represented as a percentage, is introduced as a second stage moderator (Gajendran et al., 2024). This continuous moderating variable is utilized to determine if remote work intensity weakens the positive relationship between remote work self-efficacy and positive employee outcomes (i.e., job performance, job satisfaction, ability to cope with stress, and organizational commitment). The closer remote work intensity approaches to 100%, the more an individual conforms to a fully remote work model. This variable is introduced as previous literature has inferred that the flexibility offered by hybrid models, including autonomy and opportunities to learn through collegial collaboration and communication, produce better outcomes such as productivity compared to fully remote models that may induce feelings of isolation (Ferrara et al., 2022; Gajendran et al., 2024; Virick, DaSilva, & Arrington, 2010). Thus, the lower the remote work intensity, representing more of a hybrid work model in which employees work partially from home and partially in traditional office settings, the more likely there will be a stronger positive relationship between remote work self-efficacy and positive employee outcomes than when remote work intensity is high. If it is found that remote work intensity weakens the positive relationships between remote work self-efficacy and positive employee

outcomes, it may be possible to create policies that leverage remote workers by encouraging hybrid models in order to enhance performance and improve well-being.

Fifth, some measures have been updated or changed for other validated scales in order to keep up with innovations with measurement and analysis techniques. An example is that the measure for organizational commitment has been changed from Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) 4-item measure used by Staples et al. (1999), to a 6-item scale measuring affective organizational commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). The reason for changing the measure is because research in organizational commitment was further developed into a three-component model, identifying three forms of organizational commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Affective commitment is characterized as the desire to work in an organization, continuance commitment is the necessity to remain in an organization, and normative commitment is the obligation to remain in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993). The model consists of 16 questions, however, only 6 items concerning affective commitment are utilized. This is because Staples et al.'s (1999) measure for organizational commitment is similar to the measures of affective commitment and research has elucidated that remote workers who experience positive work environments and receive support from colleagues and supervisors exhibit affective commitment (Kortsch, Rehwaldt, Schwake, & Licari, 2022).

Another example of a measure that was changed is job satisfaction. Staples et al. (1999) measured job satisfaction using 10 items from Warr, Cook, and Wall's (1979) job satisfaction scale, however I propose the use of 3 items from Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey and 5 items from Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley's (1990) Career Satisfaction

questionnaire. These items address concerns of general satisfaction and promotion opportunities that will be discussed in proceeding sections.

Additionally, from a theoretical perspective, some measures, as well as the study in general, needed to be updated due to the changing technological landscape. Prior to the mid 2010's, research in remote work was not as prevalent (Coenen & Kok, 2014). Specifically, Staples et al. (1999) suggested that technology advanced too quickly in the past for research findings to remain relevant. However, businesses can now leverage technology and fast internet speeds to integrate remote work into their managerial strategies (Straus, Uhlig, Kühnel, & Korunka, 2023).

Therefore, there are several practical implications and theoretical contributions that can be garnered from executing this study. In regards to practical implications, determining the outcomes of remote work will aid managers and human resource management (HRM) in implementing competitive policies as well as identifying best practices to leverage and nurture remote workers (Ferrara et al., 2022; Hunter, 2019; Reisinger & Fetterer, 2021; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022; Straus et al., 2023; Sull et al, 2020). Various other practical benefits are discussed in the literature review covering remote work. Alternatively, for theoretical contributions, this research will be an extension of self-efficacy theory into the domain of remote work literature and will provide a modern insight into explaining possible mechanisms that lead to various consequences of remote work self-efficacy (Coenen & Kok, 2014; Staples et al., 1999).

Literature Review

Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy theory is defined as an individual's judgement that they possess the capabilities and incentive to execute tasks successfully (Bandura, 1977, 1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Staples et al., 1999). An individual's perceived self-efficacy judgements are derived from the intellection of whether an individual has the required knowledge (capability) to complete a given task and the attributions of whether their capabilities are sufficient to succeed (Bandura, 1977, 1978).

Although the concept of outcomes from self-efficacy are readily comprehensible, the variables that comprise how self-efficacy is developed are more intricate. In simple terms, self-efficacy judgements of capability and expected outcomes are developed through information that is ingrained through past experiences. Bandura (1977) identified 4 sources of information that develop a person's self-efficacy: performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasions, and physiological and emotional states. First, performance accomplishments consist of past experiences of successfully completing tasks. Through several studies, it was determined that successful completion of tasks aided in developing mastery, meaning that an individual who can associate with current tasks to those they have completed in the past will have developed higher self-efficacy and mastery to successfully accomplish the task (Bandura, 1977). Alternatively, frequent occurrences of past failures are more detrimental than those that are infrequent, and may decrease the development of self-efficacy, impeding the ability to attribute generalizable knowledge to changing circumstances and cope with stressors that may be inextricably linked to the situation (Bandura, 1977). However, Bandura (1977) has also observed that overcoming past failures improves self-efficacy and motivated individual persistent behaviour. An example is an experiment where adults with ophidiophobia (fear of snakes) were

exposed to a treatment plan where one group physically held a boa constrictor while another group was only exposed to observing (modelling) another person handle the snake. The findings were that those who had physical experience with the snakes had developed a greater ability to cope with snakes in the future as their expectations were stronger, a higher level, and more generalizable than those who were part of the modelling group (Bandura, 1977). This indicates that performance accomplishments are more significant than modelling for self-efficacy.

Second, vicarious experiences, or otherwise labeled as modelling, are information garnered from observing others succeed (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). More accurately, vicarious experiences consist of individuals observing others perform tasks successfully in order to integrate strategic knowledge into future behaviour, thereby increasing mastery and capabilities to succeed at future tasks and increasing self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The reason why it has become known as modelling is because an individual will "model" their behaviour based on what they have observed in the past. Although simply observing another does not guarantee an improvement of competency, it does provide a guide towards building the knowledge to succeed. In 2015 (Han, Lee, Shin, Son, Choi, Oh, Lee, & Choi, 2018), a quasi-experimental study consisting of enacting an educational program utilizing lectures and a simulation for 36 nurses at Tertiary hospital in Seoul, South Korea found results of increased self-efficacy (3.40 to 3.98) and clinical performance (3.90 to 4.23), consistent with previous studies that the combination of lectures as well as "real-world" simulations would increase clinical performance (Kovacs, Law, Ross, Tallon, MacQuarrie, Petrie, Campbell, & Soder, 2004). Additionally, Saks (1995) conducted a longitudinal field investigation on 112 new entrants to 10 medium and large accounting firms, collecting and measuring self-efficacy levels at entry, 6 months, and 10 months after entry to determine if

training influenced ability to cope, job satisfaction, organizational and professional commitment, and intention to quit. The findings were interesting in the fact that the initial levels of self-efficacy moderated the influences of training on new entrant's adjustments, where those with low initial levels of self-efficacy benefitted most from training, garnering higher levels of post-training self-efficacy and performing better or similarly to their counterparts that started with high initial self-efficacy levels (Jones, 1986; Saks, 1995). Therefore, modelling is an effective method of increasing self-efficacy and desired behavioural outcomes, with the combination of both performance accomplishments (physical experiences) and vicarious experiences (training) being more effective (Gist, 1989; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Schwoerer, & Rosen, 1989), as was experienced with the experiment with individuals who had snake phobias (Bandura, 1977).

Third, verbal persuasion is positive affirmation of having the capabilities to accomplish a task (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). This consists of others, such as managers, supervisors, or colleagues, leading someone to believe that they have the capabilities, such as coaching, to overcome and cope with situations that were previously overwhelming. However, as with modelling, this form of information is less effective, as simply telling someone that they have the competence to execute a task successfully is not compelling; they need to be proven otherwise through training. In 1995, a study consisting of two different experiments was conducted to determine how failure is attributed at different levels of self-efficacy. In the first experiment, 68 undergraduate business students had to undergo answering GMAT questions, with one pretest of 3 questions, and a 10-question test that measures self-efficacy. The second study consisted of 103 students with the same format but the pretest consisted of 6 questions and the final test allowed for students to choose in which order questions may be answered (Silver, Mitchell, & Gist, 1995). The findings were similar for both studies: Those with high self-efficacy

who performed better and attributed their failures to bad luck (low locus of control) persisted to improve more, while those who attributed their failures to their own lack of capabilities (high locus of control) and had low-self efficacy performed worse and were at risk of interpreting feedback negatively and falling into a loop of self-loathing and substandard performance (Silver et al., 1995). Therefore, Silver et al. (1995) advises that low-efficacy individuals should be provided with positive feedback when they succeed while also identifying the behaviour that led to success to be attributed to their capabilities in order to increase their perceived self-efficacy. While destructive criticism should be avoided to reduce negative attributions that may lower their self-efficacy as people tend to base their skills on the opinions of those who they have relationships with (Barron, 1990, 1988; Burkhardt, 1994; Silver et al., 1995; Spreitzer, 1995).

Fourth, physiological and emotional arousal are the emotions that inhibit success, such as stress and fear in accomplishing a task (Bandura, 1977). Where emotional states are the negative emotions attributed towards a stressful situation, the physiological arousal is the physical response to said stress, where greater fear will garner expectations of stress, and leads to low self-efficacy and poor performance (Bandura, 1977). A study in 1997 consisting of evaluating 77 nurses at a midwestern United States rehabilitation hospital provided insight as to the role of self-efficacy with coping with stress. The findings were that self-efficacy moderated the relationship between stressful job demands and health consequences, where low self-efficacy negatively moderated the relationship when there was high control and job demand leading to poor health (Litt, 1988), while a lack of control in combination with high job demands may lead those with high self-efficacy to question their capabilities (Schaubroeck & Merritt, 1997). Silver et al. (1995) provided a suggestion for improving expectations of low performance induced by stressful tasks. Instead of only providing feedback that an employee is inaccurately attributing

their failures due to their lack of competency, it is better to explain to them what they are doing wrong and that they do have the skills to be successful. However, it is also constructive to advise them that every time they are inaccurately attributing their failures to a lack of capabilities, they are unnecessarily increasing their anxiety, deteriorating their motivation, and negatively impacting their performance (Silver et al., 1995).

There are several practical implications of self-efficacy on outcome metrics of organizational behaviour that may be of interest to managers and HRM. Several studies have produced evidence that self-efficacy can predict performance (Gist, 1989; Han et al., 2018; Saks, 1995; Silver et al., 1995; Staples et al., 1999), job satisfaction (Saks, 1995; Staples et al., 1999), job stress (Han et al., 2018; Staples et al., 1999), ability to cope (Han et al., 2018; Saks, 1995; Staples et al., 1999), and organizational commitment (Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Saks, 1995; Staples et al., 1999). Therefore, knowing this information, managers and HRM can put into place policies that will promote greater self-efficacy to produce better results, and human resource (HR) practices such as seeking high self-efficacy individuals during the recruitment process will promote greater expected behaviour. However, recommendations can only be made after research and may be tailored to specific job contexts and organizational cultures.

The leadership style a manager chooses to integrate is also important towards the development of employee self-efficacy and performance. Through studying 302 sales workers with a commercial survey panel over a 10-day period, it was determined that servant leadership styles increased self-efficacy through psychological empowerment and improved performance and job satisfaction (Westbrook & Peterson, 2022). Alternatively, goal setting in some situations is more predictive of performance than self-efficacy. A study examining MBA students' performance during and after a 4-week excel bootcamp produced results that suggest that,

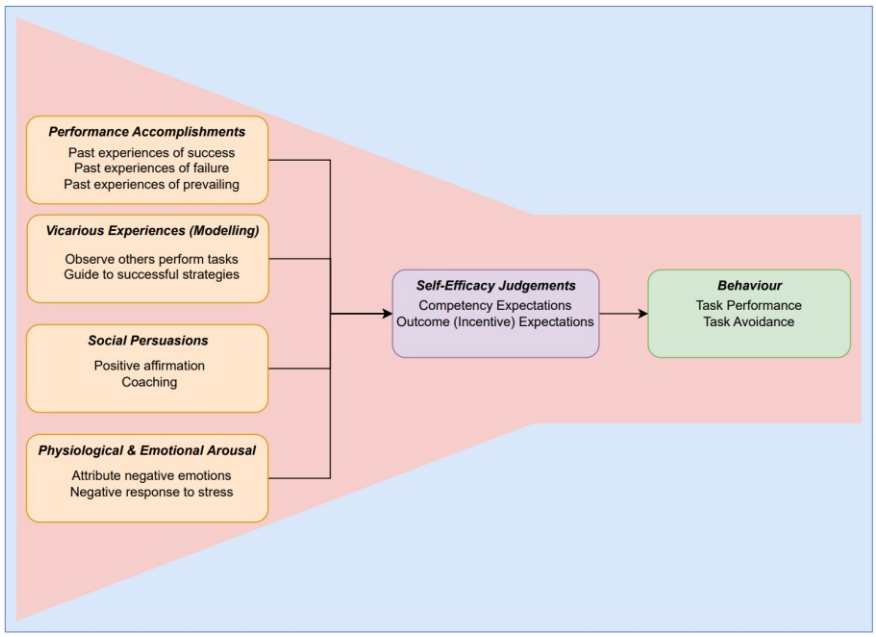
although positive, goal-setting was more predictive of performance than self-efficacy, with the possible explanation being that computer self-efficacy (CSE) is better suited for basic tasks while goal setting is appropriate for complex tasks (Yi & Im, 2004). Therefore, it may be important to distinguish which contexts require self-efficacy assessments.

Additionally, culture has been shown to moderate self-efficacy, with characteristics found in different countries influencing performance outcomes when prescribed the same situations (G. Hofstede, G. J. Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Through evaluating 265 junior bankers in Hong Kong and 288 junior bankers in the United States, it was determined that performance was moderated by cultural differences in participative decision making and self-efficacy (Simon, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002). The findings suggested that, because Americans are individualistic, their self-efficacy is more predictive of their performance, while the Chinese are collectivist and emphasize group efficacy, therefore their self-efficacy is a less important predictor of performance, meaning that managers may need to promote self-efficacy accordingly to where they are geographically or culturally situated (Simon et al., 2002).

Lastly, self-efficacy is not only an important metric for employees, but also managers in order to properly leverage their staff's opinions. A 2014 study consisting of two empirical studies, one with 41 managers and their 148 associated employees, and another with 131 adults enacting different scenarios, provided beneficial insight into how managers interpret employee opinions (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). The findings suggested that managers with low self-efficacy are more likely to be less receptive and more dismissive of employee opinions, which may be interpreted as questioning their responsibilities (Fast et al., 2014). Alternatively, managers with high self-efficacy are more receptive and effective managers, and the author notes

that coping strategies for managers with low self-efficacy is to speak with them in private as to not disgruntle their egos (Fast et al., 2014).

Figure 1: Recreation of Bandura's (1977) Theoretical Model for Self-Efficacy



The preceding figure is a recreation of Bandura's (1977) theoretical model for self-efficacy as it had been previously illustrated by Staples et al. (1999) and can be referenced in Appendix C. The figure now includes additional information for each variable and the inclusion of a funnel to symbolize how information and experiences are funneled into a person's self-efficacy judgements, leading to observable behaviour.

The Potential of Remote Work

Remote work has been defined under several catch-all terms, such as teleworking, working-from-home (WFH), and e-commerce (Ferrara et al., 2022; Manko, 2021; Morikawa, 2021). However, for the purpose of this study, remote work and WFH are used synonymously and is defined under Ferrara et al.'s (2022) definition of remote work, being that work has to be physically displaced from the place of business and must be accomplished with technology.

Additionally, WFH is limited to work that is conducted from an individual's home on a full-time basis (fully remote) or part-time basis (hybrid) (Manko, 2021). As mentioned previously, remote work is not a novel invention, with Staples et al.'s (1999) demonstrating an older reference to remote work. According to U.S. Census Bureau reports, there has been a 35% increase, 9.2 million to 13.2 million, of people working at least a single day from their homes between 1997 and 2010 (Newer, 2016). Additionally, as of 2023, IT, healthcare, sales, marketing, and financial sectors are employing the most remote workers (Virtual Vocations Inc, 2023). With over 50% of Americans having experienced remote work during the pandemic (Sull et al., 2020), and the availability of fast internet, video chatting, and the technology to facilitate work from home, it is imperative that outcomes are evaluated to determine if the implications are worth future integration (Newer, 2016; Straus et al., 2023).

There are an abundance of reasons why organizations and their employees may opt for remote workplaces. Organizations can benefit through increased savings from the absence of capital expenditure on office spaces and employing talented individuals who they would otherwise not be able to leverage due to geographical limitations (Bloom, 2014; English, 2022; Ferrara et al., 2022; Hunter, 2019; Kessler, 2017; Sor, 2024). Employees benefit from saving time and money in reduced commutes to work that lead to generating less pollution and more time allocated to spending with family. (Biju et al., 2022; Brodt & Verburg, 2007; Elshaiekh, Hassan, & Abdallah, 2018; Ferrara et al., 2022; Kelly, 2020; Schindler, 2016; Sull et al., 2020). Although remote work has become a buzzword synonymous within the workforce, its use is also apparent in academia. An example is that of Open University in the United Kingdom where remote programs are readily administered (Hunter, 2019). The university benefits from remote work by employing talented staff that would otherwise be unreachable due to geographical

limitations, while professors benefit from finding remote employment in other countries without the consequences of displacing their families (Hunter, 2019). Additionally, scientific equipment is accessed and shared remotely between different institutions across Europe, allowing for cost savings and the facilitation of collaboration. An example is that Open University has remote access to the telescope at Observatori Astronomic de Mallorca (OAM) in Spain, where students and staff alike can take advantage of the better weather to observe the universe, thereby enriching their academic experiences through remote work (Hunter, 2019).

In the current business climate, in addition to the previously mentioned benefits, remote work is being endorsed as a flexible option offered by organizations to provide their employees with the autonomy to conduct their work at their own leisure and domicile in order to draw better performance metrics (Pierce & Newstrom, 1983; Reisinger & Fetter, 2021; Virick et al., 2010). However, what are the implications of integrating remote work into a business? After analyzing data from 2,811 surveys administered across 14 European countries, a study determined there was an association between remote work and greater performance and lower turnover outcomes, while providing alternative flexibility models such as overtime and working on the weekend was associated with increased turnover (Stavrou, 2005). Another example that may provide an explanation for these results is a study that reviewed how flexible work schedules impacted U.S. federal agencies. The study reviewed survey data from the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) and Federal Scope (FS) over a 5-year period, with results suggesting that, according to social exchange theory, workers felt that the flexible arrangement of working remotely was meaningful, and as a result reciprocated with lower turnover (Caillier, 2018). These results are promising; however, all outcomes of remote work must be evaluated to make proper inferences.

First, performance metrics are prevalent in remote literature. A study enacted on Ctrip, a Chinese travel agency, found through surveys that employees who volunteered to work remotely experienced 13.5% greater productivity in the form of received calls, 50% less turnover, and overall greater job satisfaction (Bloom, 2014). In another study analyzing the differences between outcomes of 184 global software professionals prior and during COVID-19, results indicated that, while working from home, professionals were more productive by spending more time learning and less time in meetings, taking breaks, or fixing bugs (Russo, Hanel, Altnickel, & van Berkel, 2021). It is important to mention that although reducing breaks may be related to greater performance, this cannot be prescribed on an organizational level as there are laws and policies requiring minimum time allocated to breaks (Russo et al., 2021). Alternatively, another study evaluating team productivity of employees at a U.S. software company found from two samples (2,276 & 608) that productivity had decreased by 23% (Miller, Rodeghero, Storey, Ford, & Zimmermann, 2021). Additionally, a study consisting of 5,105 participants in Japan found that productivity had decreased by up to 30% (Morikawa, 2021). However, it is important to note that these results may be indicative of the stressful situation imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic rather than a direct consequence of remote work, or that the arrangement is moderated by culture (Miller et al., 2021; Morikawa, 2021). Therefore, there is a need to definitively determine if productivity is solely an outcome of remote work or is differentiated by situational contexts.

Second, there is evidence that remote workers experience job satisfaction as a consequence of the flexibility provided by WFH. Statistics Canada has surveyed adults between the ages of 16 and 64 in 2014 and recorded results that suggest job flexibility is positively associated with job satisfaction, with having control over hours worked being the most important facet expressed by those between the ages of 18 and 33, which may be indicative of how values

change as people age (Warr, 2008; Martin, 2018). Supporting these results, Felstead and Henseke (2017) determined that, through analyzing 45,000 workers in the United Kingdom through the Labor Survey, as well as 15,500 through the Skills and Employment Survey (2001, 2006, 2012), remote work is associated with increased job satisfaction. However, the results of this study also bring into question a detrimental consequence of remote work.

Third, remote work is known for creating unfavorable situations that lead to isolation, stress, and the inability to cope. Felstead and Henseke's (2017) study also identifies that remote workers are incapable of separating their work from home life. Specifically, border theory stipulates that there is a negative-spillover occurring for remote workers, where employees are allowing their work to intrude into their family life (work-life conflicts) or their family intrude into their work (family-work conflicts) (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). While remote workers have many benefits, they feel that due to the nature of the job being connected to technology, they are always connected to their job and are not able to disengage from their work (Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). This was a concern during Shirmohammadi and Beigi's (2022) review of 40 empirical studies that took place during COVID-19 restrictions (2020-2021), where information and communication technology (ICT) was observed as being a stressful component for those who were inexperienced or were not accustomed to being connected to work 24/7. Alternatively, family life may intrude into work, with an example being that women are typically caretakers and may have difficulty balancing their work and life responsibilities (Fan & Moen, 2022). The conditions of the home office may also contribute towards these conflicts between balancing work and life, where if office space is shared or converted from family space, it may create distractions for employees compared to those who would work in an office (Bartel et al., 2012; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). The nature of how

remote work is conducted is also conducive of social isolation. A study surveying 265 Italian employees through Qualtrics found that the shift from a social setting to that of remote work during the pandemic produced a sense of isolation from their peers, garnering a stressful situation that led to a perception of decreased productivity and job satisfaction (Toscano & Zappalà, 2020). Therefore, it is imperative that individuals set boundaries and create forms of communication to cope with stressors that come with working remotely.

Fourth, remote work is known for work intensification and increased organizational commitment. As explained previously, remote workers are incapable of disengaging from work, leading to the consequence of work intensification. Kelliher and Anderson (2010) studied 2,066 employees from 3 private sector organizations in the United Kingdom and identified that remote workers experienced work intensification. The researchers suggested that greater productivity is produced by this work intensification and could be explained by the fact that employees feel they have more time to work; they felt that they needed to reciprocate through commitment, or that their contributions would otherwise not be recognized in the remote setting (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). These feelings were not unique to this study, as studies such as Barsness, Diekmann and Seidel (2005) found that employees would use impression management depending on who they were speaking with to attain recognition, and other studies found that promotions were less obtainable due to the decreased visual presence (Bloom, 2014; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Sull et al., 2020). The findings from Fan and Moen's (2022) article support these claims, indicating that women worked 10% more than their male counterparts due to their perception of being lower in the business hierarchy and their work being less recognized when their supervisors don't see them in-person. In order to circumvent negative consequences of remote work, several authors provided suggestions. Specifically,

Shirmohammadi and Beigi (2022) suggested that human resources should advise remote workers of the possibility of isolation and provide opportunities to socialize and build team relationships, train managers and supervisors on how to interact with their remote employees, as well as enact organizational policies that limit working hours through scheduling to promote well-being.

Research has indicated that remote workers experience affective commitment. An example is a study on the German banking sector where it was found that transitioning to a remote setting improved bankers' affective commitment for their organization, job, and team as a consequence of their newly gained autonomy and flexibility (Kortsch et al., 2022). This indicates that remote models as a flexible work arrangement provides individuals with autonomy for how they conduct their work, and if they desire to work for and align with their organization, they will exhibit affective commitment. Alternatively, another study found that the remote component of hybrid work may increase isolation, diminishing affective commitment experienced by newly hired hybrid employees, with supervisor support improving affective commitment (Mazzei, Ravazzani, Butera, Conti, & Fisichella, 2022). These findings demonstrate the need for support in a remote setting, such as Wang, Albert, and Sun's (2020) study where it is found that isolation may influence a shift to normative commitment and that emotional support is required to nurture affective commitment. Therefore, it is imperative that HR teams ensure that support is provided to their remote workers, be they hybrid or fully remote, in order to mitigate the effects of social isolation and improve their well-being in order to foster affective commitment.

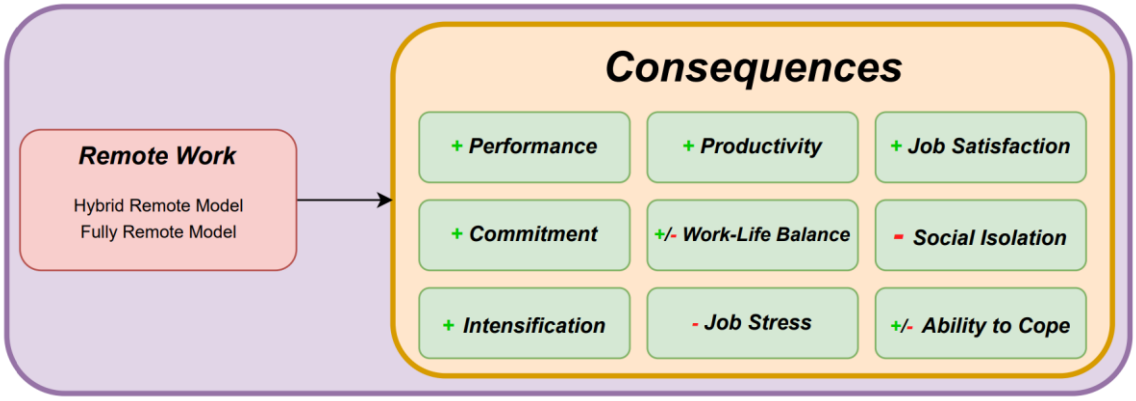
Through reviewing the literature on remote work and relevant outcomes, there are theoretically direct associations that may occur between the variables. Therefore, there are several implications for managers. First, if there is an association between remote work self-efficacy and performance, it may be in the best interest of the organization to invest in remote

strategies. Second, there is literature indicating that hybrid models are better than fully remote (Ferrara et al., 2022; Virick, DaSilva, & Arrington, 2010). If these findings are supported, managers would have an inclination of which direction may be beneficial for their specific business. Third, there is a difference between the outcomes when implementing voluntary and involuntary remote measures, where voluntary is an employee preference and involuntary is forced upon, with voluntary adhesion garnering results of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, lower levels of stress as there is less obligation to be continuously connected, and reduced turnover (Kaduk, Genadek, Kelly & Moen, 2019). Therefore, it may be imperative that managers know when to enforce remote workplace strategies, such as if the candidate is comfortable with the arrangement. Fourth, it is important that employees are satisfied with their jobs as it has been shown to reduce turnover by up to 17% and discourage absenteeism (Clark, 2001; Martin, 2018), while also being associated with the life satisfaction and quality of life of their staff (Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt, 1984). Fifth, if affective commitment is associated with remote work, it may encourage its use in more business contexts.

Lastly, if remote work is associated with intensification and stress, there are real-world implications. Stress and work intensifications have shown to have negative consequences on health, with Schaubroeck, Ganster, & Kemmerer's (1994) study evaluating the moderating factor of Type A behaviour between stress and cardiovascular health in firefighters and police officers indicating that the characteristic increases the likelihood of heart disease due to the method Type A individuals cope with stress. Another extreme example is the work intensification of Japanese workers and their commitment to their work, leading them to push through stressful situation at the expense of their health, with some cases of death that have coined the term "karoshi", which translates to "death from overwork" (Nishiyama & Johnson, 1997; Yamauchi, Sasaki,

Yoshikawa, Matsumoto, & Takahashi, 2018). However, although these are extreme examples, there are other benefits to stress. In one study, it was found in 270 National Bank employees that stress could produce greater performance if they are experienced and highly committed (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007). Alternatively, although higher levels of isolation are consistent with working more hours from home, the negative repercussions of remote work models may be mitigated by the exposure to increased autonomy (Gajendran et al., 2024). This finding was deduced from a meta-analysis consisting of 108 studies that evaluated a dual pathway model where remote work intensification had indirectly opposed relation to isolation and autonomy. It was determined that increased exposure to remote work led to greater isolation and autonomy, producing small beneficial outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and reduced turnover (Gajendran et al., 2024). If managers allow employees to have autonomy and provide them with resources when they are stressed, and the employees are experienced and are committed to their occupation, they may perform better and reduce turnover (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Keller, 1984; Parasuraman & Alutto, 1981, 1984; Van Yperen & Hagedoorn, 2003).

Figure 2: List of Consequences for Remote Work



The preceding figure lists out all of the consequences of remote work and directionality sourced from the literature review.

Hypotheses

The following section consists of hypotheses based on the study conducted by Staples et al. (1999). As the study being proposed is a replication, the same variables are tested with the inclusion of two new moderating variables, being industry and remote work intensity, of which are tested for their effects on the relationships being hypothesized in hypothesis 1 to 6 and 7 to 11 respectively. Additionally, modern support is attributed to all of the variables to indicate their relevancy.

Remote work experience and training was identified as a positive contributor to remote work self-efficacy by Staples et al. (1999). Self-efficacy is significantly influenced by successful past accomplishments, where frequent successful experiences contribute to competency development and high levels of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). There are both modern and past examples of experience and training contributing to self-efficacy, such as the previously mentioned study where nurses improved their self-efficacy through lectures and simulated emergency airway management programs (Han et al., 2018) or the findings from Silver et al.'s (1995) study that determined past performances on tests predicted future performance in undergraduate business students depending on outcome attribution. These findings are also supported in remote work literature, where Strause et al. (2023) determined that outcomes were ameliorated for individuals who worked longer in a remote setting, suggesting that longer exposure is a significant experience that affect outcomes. These examples indicate that individuals who have experience working remotely or have received remote training will base their future competency and judgements on these sources of past accomplishments, subsequently improving their remote work self-efficacy. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Remote Work Experience & Training will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

Modelling best practices by manager was identified as a positive contributor to remote work self-efficacy by Staples et al. (1999). Modelling is an effective measure enforced by organizations, consisting of having employees observe others who are competent at completing a task in order to learn effective strategies (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). There have been studies on remote work supporting these inferences such as Straus et al. (2023) that recommend management should provide support to improve outcomes of remote work. This indicates that individuals who are exposed to modelling best practices by manager will base their future competency and judgements on these sources of vicarious experiences and social persuasion, subsequently improving their remote work self-efficacy. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Modelling Best Practices by Manager will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

Computer anxiety was identified as a negative contributor to remote work self-efficacy by Staples et al. (1999). Although the study took place over 20 years before COVID-19, the variable is still relevant today and finds support in a few studies where individuals who lack experience with working remotely having difficulty adjusting (Ferrara et al., 2024; Morikawa, 2021). Additionally, Shirmohammadi and Beigi (2022) identified information and communication technology (ICT) as a possible stressor for new remote workers. Computer anxiety is an example of emotional arousal, induced by the perceived incapability of effectively utilizing technology to accomplish work, which is explained in self-efficacy theory as detrimental to an individual's perception of competency and expectations, decreasing self-

efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). This indicates that individuals who experience computer anxiety will base their future competency and judgements on these sources of emotional and physiological states, subsequently degrading their remote work self-efficacy. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Computer Anxiety will be negatively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

IT capabilities, defined as the combination of the experience and training received for using IT, connectivity, and the capability to use a computer, was an antecedent identified by Staples et al. (1999) as a positive contributor to remote work self-efficacy and remains relevant to this research. As the requirements for successful integration of remote work has evolved since the publication of Staples et al.'s (1999) article, two components of IT connectivity, IT experience and training, and general computer self-efficacy (GCSE), will be observed separately. The original paper utilized IT self-efficacy instead of GCSE, along with the connectivity and IT experience, however concerns about measurement produced the necessity to observe the model differently, meaning the removal of connectivity and changing the measure for IT-self-efficacy, of which will be addressed in the measurement section of this paper.

Self-efficacy consists of judgements of capabilities based on past experiences of success, whereby IT experience and training, and GSCE are logical assumptions for determining remote work self-efficacy as remote work requires the use of technology to accomplish work (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Ferrara et al., 2022; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Specifically, since remote work requires the proficient use of technology, and self-efficacy is bolstered by the successful actions leading to past accomplishments (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992), the knowledge attained from IT experience and training, and the general capability of using computers (GCSE) should improve remote work self-efficacy. This indicates that

individuals who judge themselves capable of executing IT related remote tasks will base their future competency and judgements on these sources of information, subsequently improving their remote work self-efficacy. Therefore, the following are proposed:

Hypothesis 4: IT Experience & Training will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

Hypothesis 5: General Computer Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

Staples et al. (1999) did not find support for the influence of physical conditions, being the distractions found in the office, at the time of their study. I would suggest that their findings may be a result of their sample only consisting of 17% working from their homes, leaving the rest of their sample in a homogenous setting that did not change from their regular office setting. However, several recent articles have identified that employees who work from home on a full-time or part-time basis face distraction in the form of noise or interruptions. Employees sometimes must make compromises with their home offices, sharing with family spaces that otherwise may not be as productive as a business office when family responsibilities spill into work time (Biju et al., 2022; Bartel et al., 2012; Elshaiekh et al., 2018; Park et al., 2023; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). These distractions may impede opportunities for experiences that could improve an individual's self-efficacy. This indicates that individuals who encounter distractions as a consequence of their remote setting will base their future competency and judgements on these sources of information, subsequently degrading their remote work self-efficacy. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Physical Conditions will be negatively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

The literature on remote work and self-efficacy has shown some promise for employee performance. Remote work has been shown to increase efficiency and performance in professions such as software engineering, reducing time spent in meetings and fixing programming errors and allocating their time to learning (Russo et al., 2021). These results are replicated in other studies and may be a symptom of remote workers leveraging their extra time afforded by the reduced commutes to work in combination with technology facilitating work and accelerating communication channels (Biju et al., 2022; Brodt & Verburg, 2007; Elshaiekh, Hassan, & Abdallah, 2018; Ferrara et al., 2022; Kelly, 2020; Schindler, 2016; Sull et al., 2020). The tenets of self-efficacy are that judgements are based on the assessments of competency, making a logical inference that high self-efficacy leads to performance, as was seen with nurses that improved their self-efficacy through simulations resulting in increased clinical performance (Han et al., 2018; Kovacs et al., 2004). This indicates that remote work self-efficacy will have a direct effect on remote work performance, such that high levels of remote work self-efficacy will garner beliefs of adept competency and subsequently improve remote work performance. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 7: Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Remote Work Performance.

Job satisfaction has been highlighted in both self-efficacy and remote work literature. In Westbrook and Peterson's (2022) study, their findings suggested that greater self-efficacy in sales workers was positively associated with job satisfaction. Kaduk et al.'s (2019) study indicated, through evaluating 758 IT employees in 207 teams from a U.S. work, family, and health network survey, that employees who voluntarily participate in remote work programs experience greater job satisfaction, while a substantial amount of the literature reviewed provided similar findings

(Biju et al., 2022; Bloom, 2014; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010; Virick et al., 2010). Additionally, a study conducted on 373 technical-administrative staff from an Italian university indicated that high levels of remote work self-efficacy could predict greater job satisfaction (Capone, Schettino, Marino, Camerlingo, Smith, & Depolo, 2024). These studies demonstrate that individuals who rate high in self-efficacy will have the capabilities to execute tasks successfully, leading to more outcomes of success rather than failures, such as those who receive training to increase their competency, thereby increasing job satisfaction (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Saks, 1995). This indicates that remote work self-efficacy will have a direct effect on job satisfaction, such that high levels of remote work self-efficacy will subsequently improve job satisfaction. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 8: Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Job Satisfaction.

Coping is an outcome that has conflicting results for remote workers. Whereby some remote workers thrive in their home offices, others experience feelings of social isolation due to the lack of physical interactions and social support from colleagues within their organizations, subsequently resulting in difficulties with coping with stress (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Hobfoll, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Toscano & Zappalà, 2020). Some authors have suggested that human resources (HR) intervention is necessary to decrease these occurrences through spreading awareness and providing support such as organizing social events (English, 2022; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022; Straus et al., 2023). However, high levels of self-efficacy have been shown to increase the quality of coping, where high levels of self-efficacy would suggest that an individual is confident in their abilities and should be capable of persevering (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). An example is that of Saks' (1995) longitudinal study on new entrants that provided findings that post-training self-efficacy

increased their ability to cope. This indicates that remote work self-efficacy will have a direct effect on the ability to cope, such that high levels of remote work self-efficacy will provide the necessary resources to persevere, subsequently improving the ability to cope. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 9: Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with the Ability to Cope.

Organizational commitment is observed in remote work literature and self-efficacy literature for different reasons. In regards to remote workers, their organizational commitment has been shown to be a symptom of their work environments. Specifically, some remote workers may show their commitment by working more hours as an attempt to gain recognition for their work (Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Sull et al., 2020), while others act in a reciprocal manner to show their managers that they value their flexible work arrangement (Callier, 2018; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Self-efficacy shows commitment through perseverance over difficult tasks, as can be seen in Bandura and Cervone (1986) study where they found that students from an introduction to psychology course were more likely to be committed to overcoming shortcomings if they believed they had the competency to persevere. It is important to note that affective commitment is measured in this study, and therefore will be used instead of the term organizational commitment when referring to my model. Remote workers who value their work and feel an emotional and personal association with their organization experience affective commitment (Ali, Narine, Hill, & Bria, 2023). This indicates that remote work self-efficacy will have a direct effect on affective commitment, such that high levels of remote work self-efficacy will garner beliefs of remote arrangements being meaningful, subsequently resulting in reciprocal affective commitment. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 10: Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Affective Commitment.

Remote work has several deficiencies with regards to job stress. Primarily, remote workers may experience job stress as a consequence of social isolation and negative spillovers from sharing home workspaces with family or an inability to disengage from work through online connectivity (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Toscano & Zappalà, 2020). However, there are several policies that managers can implement to decrease job stress, such as creating opportunities to socialize, creating awareness of the symptoms of social isolation, and providing additional psychological support (Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). Additionally, self-efficacy theory provides an explanation for how job stressors are perceived. The logical inferences are that high self-efficacy indicates an individual has the competency to complete a task successfully, while also applying generalizable knowledge to different situations, decreasing the appraisal of tasks as being stressors for emotional arousal, increasing perseverance through difficult tasks, and subsequently decreasing perceived job stress (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Han et al, 2018; Westbrook & Peterson, 2022). This indicates that remote work self-efficacy will have a direct effect on job stress, such that high levels of remote work self-efficacy will result in individuals appraising tasks as less stressful, subsequently decreasing job stress. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 11: Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be negatively associated with Job Stress.

As previously mentioned, this study also aims to answer one of Staples et al.'s (1999) calls for future research, determining whether there are differences in remote work self-efficacy between workers in technology and non-technology-related industries. There are not many studies consisting of evaluating whether different industries may influence the relationships that develop

into remote work self-efficacy. However, utilizing assumptions made during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is logical that workers in technology-related industries would have greater remote work self-efficacy than those in non-technology-related industries as they had more experience and training utilizing remote models. In Capone et al.'s, (2024) study on technical-administrative staff in academia, they identified as a practical implication that the complexity of integrating new technologies without appropriate preparation is detrimental to performance and well-being of employees. Using new technology requires the acquisition of new skills that need to be addressed as complexity could influence an employee's perception of competency. They recommend that universities should provide training to avoid unnecessary stress and increase performance and well-being (Capone et al.'s, 2024). Taking this example of the education industry, it is assumed that different industries have had to deal with different but similar circumstances with regard to the implementation of remote work technology. Unlike technology-related industries where it may be assumed that employees are adept to using technology, it may be assumed that workers from other industries may not have many past experiences working remotely, received adequate training for working in a remote setting, have had the chance to shadow another worker to gain the understanding of how work may be successfully be completed remotely, or even the required IT capabilities or environment to base their remote work self-efficacy (Sull et al., 2020). These assumptions are being made under the pretext of COVID-19 in order to logically substantiate if there is a difference in remote work self-efficacy. However, if no difference is found, it may be that enough time has elapsed in order for remote work to become an effective means of conducting business.

This indicates that workers in technology-related industries will have the appropriate resources, such as remote training and experiences, in order to develop greater remote work self-

efficacy and reduce the negative attribution of failures. This would posit an increase in positive relationships and a decrease in negative relationships for those in technology-related industries as they may have better strategies for remote work and the development of their own self-efficacy. Alternatively, those in non-technology-related industries would expect to be at a disadvantage and experience the opposite. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H12: Industry will moderate the relationships between (a) Remote Work Experience & Training, (b) Modelling Best Practices by Manager, (c) Computer Anxiety, (d) IT Experience & Training, (e) General Computer Self-Efficacy, (f) Physical Conditions, and Remote Work Self- Efficacy, such that technology industries will strengthen the positive relationships between (a) Remote Work Experience & Training, (b) Modelling Best Practices by Manager, (d) IT Experience & Training, (e) General Computer Self-Efficacy, and Remote Work Self-Efficacy. Technology industries will weaken the negative relationships between (c) Computer Anxiety, (f) Physical Condition, and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.

The use of remote work has shown to be related to many beneficial metrics for management, such as performance and job satisfaction, which otherwise also may reduce absenteeism and turnover (Bloom, 2014; Caillier, 2018; Clark, 2001; Martin, 2018; Russo et al., 2021; Stavrou, 2005). However, several studies have provided evidence as to why hybrid structures are more beneficial than fully remote structures (Capone et al., 2024; Ferrara et al., 2022; Reisinger & Fetterer, 2021). Hybrid models by nature expose remote workers to greater opportunities to physically interact with their colleagues and promote creativity (Kessler, 2017). As was mentioned previously, positive social relationships and support from peers was found to aid in coping with stress while high self-efficacy is present (Capone et al., 2024). Additionally, social support as a resource has been found in some cases to be beneficial towards diminishing

the effects of job stress and improving job performance and satisfaction (Hobfoll, 2001). While fully remote models do have access to instant communication, some firms experience greater lead times for projects and conflict resolution (Kelly, 2020). In a hybrid model, conflict resolution can be accomplished quicker through the aid of colleagues while also providing the opportunity to learn new transferable skills from being physically present. Hybrid models exhibit the benefits of fully remote models while providing more social resources that aids in promoting positive outcomes and mitigating negative outcomes. Gajendran et al. (2024) have created the precedent through their meta-analysis that greater remote work intensity, or rather, the closer you get to a fully remote model, the more an individual may experience social isolation, thereby degrading the ability to cope and increasing perceived job stress. However, they determined that the autonomy gained through working remotely improved job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while also mitigating the effects of social isolation (Gajendran et al., 2024).

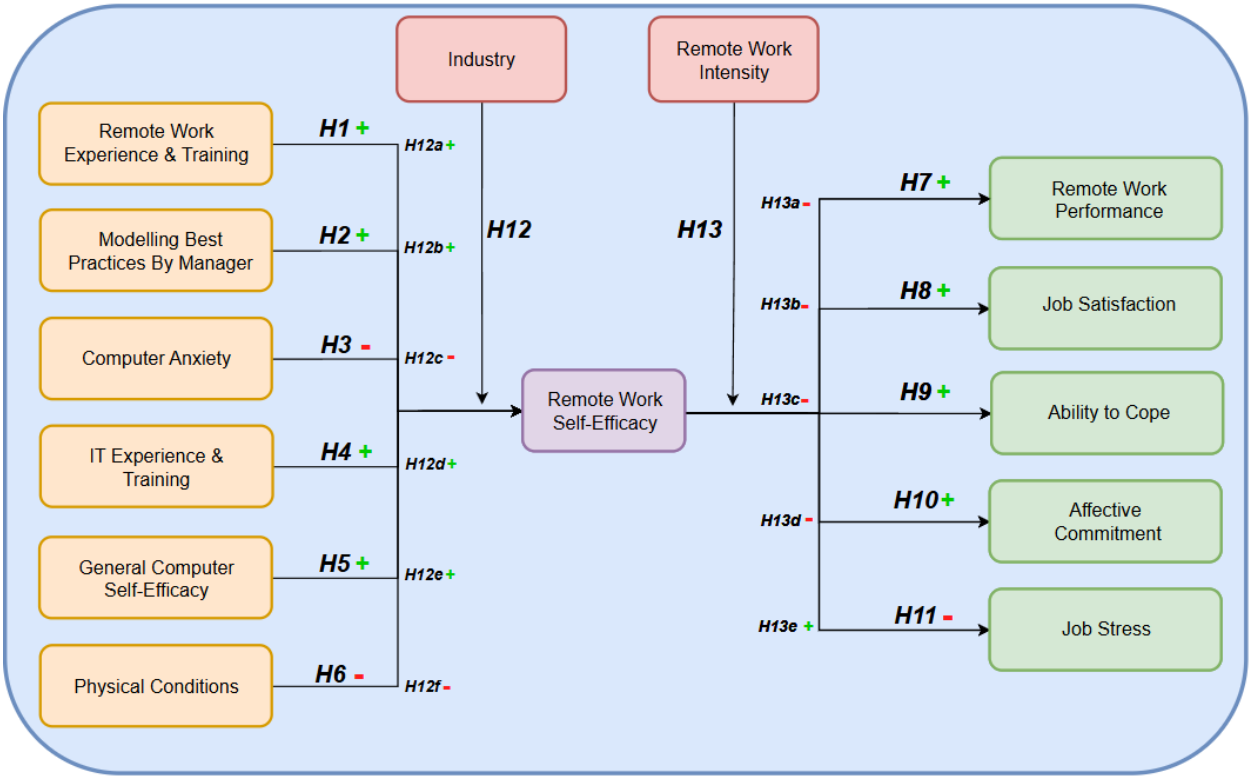
In Staples et al.'s (1999) study, remote work self-efficacy was determined to have increased remote work performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and the ability to cope, while also decreasing job stress. Through Silver et al.'s (1995) studies, it was shown that individuals scoring high in self-efficacy attributed their success differently than those that had low self-efficacy. Primarily, high self-efficacy was a predictor of performance due to attributing success based on past experiences, while also attributing failures to sources that are not related to competency, thereby increasing persistence to persevere (ability to cope) with stress (Bandura, 1977, 1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Silver et al., 1995). Additionally, Saks's (1995) longitudinal study found that self-efficacy is enhanced through training, which subsequently improved the ability to cope, with training being a large contributor for individuals with low self-efficacy.

The findings in the literature review indicate that self-efficacy tends to have a positive relation with performance, organizational commitment (reduced turnover), job satisfaction, the ability to cope, and a reduction in perceived job stress. Alternatively, different remote models have shown to provide different consequences depending on the intensity of the model. Specifically, as mentioned previously, high remote work intensity increases social isolation, decreasing the ability to cope and increasing job stress, while autonomy provided by the arrangement mitigates its consequences on said outcomes (Gajendran et al., 2024). Other studies have indicated that hybrid models, those that exhibit remote work intensity below 100%, mitigate isolation by providing facets such as social interactions and opportunities to learn, while fully remote models may promote the inability to disconnect from work (Capone et al., 2024; Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Reisinger & Fetterer, 2021; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

This would indicate that remote work intensity could moderate the relationship between remote work self-efficacy and outcomes. Hybrid work models mitigate exposure to isolation that is typically associated with remote work, while also providing autonomy and opportunities to learn, thereby increasing the positive relationships between remote work self-efficacy and remote work performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and ability to cope and decreasing the negative relationship with job stress. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 13: Remote Work Intensity will moderate the relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and employee outcomes, such that Remote Work Intensity will weaken the positive relationships between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and (a) Remote Work Performance, (b) Job Satisfaction, (c) Ability to Cope, and (d) Affective Commitment. Remote Work Intensity will strengthen the negative relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and (e) Job Stress.

Figure 3: Theoretical Model (Extension of Staples et al., 1999)



The preceding figure is an illustration of the proposed theoretical model, based on Staples et al.'s (1999) model, with the inclusion of the direction of hypothesized relationships.

Methodology

Prior Study Research Design and Methods Used by Staples et al. (1999)

Staples et al.'s (1999) study consisted of a quantitative cross-sectional design, collecting self-reported surveys from a sample of remote workers in North America. At the time of their study, remote work was defined as any person that worked in a different physical location from their managers. Therefore, their study only required a physical intermediary between management and their employees, such as a separate office building. Their sample consisted of sending 1,343 questionnaires to 18 North American organizations of which 631 participants responded, but due to many respondents not meeting the definition of remote work, the sample was reduced to 376 participants (Staples et al., 1999). Their sample consisted of individuals that were remotely managed from private financial firms (22%), private technology firms (47%), and public sector firms (31%), of which only 17% of the sample worked from their homes (Staples et al., 1999).

In order to verify the construct validity of their measures, they conducted a pretest study with graduate students, school faculty, and professionals to refine items in their survey, and a pilot study consisting of 64 remote insurance workers to finalize the questionnaire (Staples et al., 1999). After the two tests, IT experience and training, connectivity, and IT self-efficacy were combined into a single variable labeled IT capabilities due to the variables being interrelated, and the physical conditions variable was dropped from the model due to no significance being found. The changes that Staple et al. (1999) made in their theoretical model can be observed in Appendix A, Appendix B, and their questionnaire may be referred to in Appendix D.

Sample & Procedures

Data collection was conducted over a period of 3 weeks, consisting of distributing online questionnaires (96 Questions) assembled on Qualtrics and may be referred to in Appendix E. The questionnaires were distributed in Canada and the United States through two different outlets where participants answered anonymously. The conditions for participating were limited to individuals who were at least 18 years old, employed full-time to work remotely (fully remote or hybrid), and a minimum of 1 year of experience working remotely. The first outlet utilized was the research platform Prolific. Prolific was used because past studies have indicated that the platform provides better quality data compared to other services such as Amazon Mechanical Turk, and it facilitated and accelerated data collection (Peer, Rothschild, Gordon, Evernden, & Damer, 2022). Through the Prolific dashboard, filters were set to ensure that half of the sample would be answered by software professionals and that the distribution of remote work arrangements (fully remote & hybrid) were equally distributed. Participants from Prolific (485) were provided with a renumeration of 2$ once they completed the questionnaire and their responses were verified. The second outlet consisted of a convenience sample from people in my personal network (45), where an attempt to use the snowball method was made to increase the sample size. These individuals did not receive any renumeration under the assumption that most professionals could empathize with the situation and would be happy to accommodate.

A total of 530 responses were recorded from both outlets. The responses were filtered through excel before being imported into SPSS to determine if participants adhered to the participation requirements listed in the consent form of the questionnaire or if there were any careless responses. This study is interested in individuals who were employed full-time to work remotely. According to Statistics Canada (2023), a schedule of 30 hours minimum per week is

considered as full-time employment, therefore 42 responses were omitted. Careless responses occur when participants do not base their responses on the contents of items, misunderstand questions, answer too quickly, or lack the motivation to provide a quality response (Ward & Meade, 2023). It is imperative that careless responses are dealt with accordingly as they diminish the reliability of the study by introducing random error, and individuals who answer carelessly are more likely to continue (Bowling, Huang, Bragg, Khazon, Liu, & Blackmore, 2016; Ward & Meade, 2023). For the purpose of this study, careless responses were discarded from the data. Therefore, an additional 21 timed-out, 5 incomplete, and 22 erroneous responses were omitted. Lastly, it is recommended that 2 seconds per question should be the minimum answering time (Bowling et al., 2016; Ward & Meade, 2023). Since there are 96 questions, the minimum time taken should be 192 seconds, however I opted for a minimum of 3 minutes (180 seconds) to be more conservative of sample size. Therefore, 6 responses were omitted for being completed under 3 minutes, making a total of 96 discarded responses and a final sample size of 434.

In order to determine if the sample size would be large enough, a power analysis for a linear multiple regression (f-test) was calculated using G*Power software and can be referenced in Appendix F (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The minimum sample size required to achieve a statistical power of at least 0.80 with an alpha (α) of 0.05, a medium effective size ($f^2 = 0.15$), and 9 predictors (7 independent, and 2 moderating variables) was 114. As there are two demographics being sampled, the minimum sample size was doubled to 228. Therefore, with a final sample size of 434, this study theoretically attained the minimum sample size necessary to achieve statistical power.

The sociodemographic characteristics found in Table 1 indicate that the average age of participants was 36.96, gender distribution was 53.92% male and 45.39% female, 76.73% had an

undergraduate degree or greater, 54.84% earned a salary greater than $75,000, 51.84% are employed in computer and technology industries, average employment seniority was 6.95 years, and average scheduled hours was 39.86, but the average hours actually worked was 40.18.

Table 1

Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants (Frequency, Percentage, Mean, and Standard Deviation)

Sample Characteristics	*N*	%	*M*	*SD*
Age			36.96	11.40
Employment Seniority			6.95	6.34
Hours Scheduled (Weekly)			39.86	4.64
Hours Worked (Weekly)			40.18	7.73
Gender				
Male	234	53.92		
Female	197	45.39		
Other	3	0.69		
Industry (Employment)				
Computer & Technology	225	51.84		
Pharmaceutical	6	1.38		
Transportation	20	4.61		
Telecommunications	19	4.38		
Manufacturing	27	6.22		
Mining	1	0.23		
Hospitality	3	0.69		
Finance & Economics	35	8.06		
Media	4	0.92		
Education	19	4.38		
Healthcare	33	7.60		
Agriculture	12	2.76		
Other	29	6.68		
Prefer not to say	1	0.23		
Education				
High School	50	11.52		
College	38	8.76		
Trade School	13	3.00		
Bachelor	226	52.07		
Master	90	20.74		
PhD	15	3.46		
Prefer not to say	2	0.46		
Salary				
$0-$9,999	4	0.92		
$10,000-$24,999	9	2.07		
$25,000-$49,999	64	14.75		
$50,000-$74,999	119	27.42		
$75,000-$99,999	98	22.58		
$100,000-$124,999	46	10.60		
$125,000-$149,999	41	9.45		
$150,000 and greater	50	11.52		
Prefer not to say	3	0.69		

Note: N = 434

Table 1 (Continued)

Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants (Frequency, Percentage, Mean, and Standard Deviation)

Sample Characteristics	*N*	%	*M*	*SD*
Industry (Relation)				
Technology	327	75.35		
Non-Technology	107	24.65		
Remote Work Intensity				
1 Percent	2	0.46		
3 Percent	1	0.23		
5 Percent	5	1.15		
10 Percent	11	2.53		
12 Percent	1	0.23		
15 Percent	4	0.92		
20 Percent	27	6.22		
25 Percent	9	2.07		
30 Percent	20	4.61		
33 Percent	2	0.46		
38 Percent	1	0.23		
39 Percent	1	0.23		
40 Percent	34	7.83		
45 Percent	2	0.46		
50 Percent	24	5.53		
55 Percent	3	0.69		
60 Percent	24	5.53		
65 Percent	3	0.69		
66 Percent	2	0.46		
70 Percent	11	2.53		
75 Percent	9	2.07		
80 Percent	28	6.45		
90 Percent	12	2.76		
95 Percent	5	1.15		
97 Percent	2	0.46		
99 Percent	7	1.61		
100 Percent	184	42.40		

Note: N = 434

Following Table 1, participants were asked whether the industry they are employed in is related to technology. The distribution is 75.35% (327) of the sample work in a technology industry, and 24.65% (107) do not. Furthermore, when observing responses, participants who indicated they work between 90-99% from home expressed that they occasionally attend in-person meetings once or twice a month, but mostly choose to just work from home. Therefore, participants who entered 90-100% work fully remote, indicating that 48.38% (210) of the sample works fully remote from home and 51.62% (224) work a hybrid schedule.

Measures

This section consists of specifying the measurement methods for each variable that is tested in the proposed theoretical model. As this is a conceptual replication and extension of Staples et al.'s (1999) study, the measures remain mostly the same with alterations being specified and justified if they are outdated in terms of technology or technique.

Remote Work Experience & Training. This variable measured how much experience an individual has working remotely and how much training on working remotely they have received. Staples et al. (1999) included this measure as previous accomplishments and training are known for influencing competency and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The original measure consisted of 3 items that are not specific to any job, recording relevant information regarding training and experience in a remote setting with an internal consistency of 0.85 ($\alpha = 0.78$) (Staples et al., 1999). Therefore, the same items were used to measure remote work experience and training. The original study did not mention how the items are scored, hence a 5-point Likert scale was used to remain consistent with other measures and be less exhaustive than answering a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .93 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Modelling Best Practices by Manager. This variable evaluated which practices by managers improved employee competency through modelling. Staples et al. (1999) originally measured this variable using 14 items that were assembled from a previous study by Staples (1996), where best practices for managing remote workers through the use of information technology were identified and validated through interviews with employees who were managed remotely. The construct was originally found to have an internal consistency of 0.95 ($\alpha = 0.94$).

The same items were asked as they are still relevant to businesses today. However, the item that asks "Uses and runs teleconference calls effectively (e.g., sets objectives and format, encourages participation)" was modified to have the words "teleconference calls" changed for "online meetings" as they are more prevalent in modern remote work. Additionally, any question that specified a gender was changed for the word "them." The original study did not mention how the items are scored, hence a 5-point Likert scale was used to remain consistent with other measures, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .94 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Computer Anxiety. This variable captures an individual's anxiety while using computers. Four items were originally used in Staples et al.'s (1999) study and are derived from a short form of the Computer Anxiety Rating Scale (Compeau, 1992; Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987) and constructs were originally found to have internal consistency of 0.94 (α = 0.90) (Staples et al., 1999). The same items were used to remain consistent and the items are still relevant due to no outdated software or hardware being mentioned. Heinssen et al. (1987) specified that the items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .83 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Physical Conditions. This variable measured the distractions in the workplace. In Staples et al.'s (1999) study, two items were used to measure physical conditions and originally produced an internal consistency of 0.92 (α = 0.83). Due to Staples et al. (1999) not finding significance at the time of their study, they chose to exclude the variable from their refined model. However, as the items test a relevant subject for contemporary remote workers, being the distractions that occur from working at home, this measure was included in this study (Biju et al., 2022; Bandura,

1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Bartel et al., 2012; Elshaiekh et al., 2018; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Park et al., 2023; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). The original study did not mention how the items are scored, hence a 5-point Likert scale was used to remain consistent with other measures, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .83 and may be referred to in Table 2.

IT Experience & Training. This variable measured how much experience an individual has using IT and how much training they have received on using IT. The original study utilized 6 items with an original internal consistency of 0.85 ($\alpha = 0.80$) (Staples et al., 1999). The same items were utilized as they are still relevant. The original study did not mention how the items are scored, hence a 5-point Likert scale was used, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .84 and may be referred to in Table 2.

General Computer Self-Efficacy. Staples et al. (1999) used the variable IT self-efficacy to measure the perceived competency of employees using information technology, consisting of 4 items with IT-related subscales developed from Staples' (1996) previous study. Each subscale asked respondents questions related to performing tasks with several types of IT, consisting of asking if they are capable of utilizing the medium and rating from 1 to 9 (a response of no equated to a score of 0) their perception of effectively executing tasks, which would be tallied up for a final score (Staples, et al., 1999). However, due to the literature that this study is basing its methods on not providing the questions used for the measure, and the Cronbach's alpha being low ($\alpha = 0.62$), I opted for general computer self-efficacy (GCSE) to be utilized instead.

Whereas self-efficacy is defined as the judgements of being capable of completing tasks, computer self-efficacy consists of the judgements that an individual is capable of using a

computer (Compeau & Higgins, 1995; He & Freeman, 2010). There are two forms of computer self-efficacy: task-specific computer self-efficacy and general computer self-efficacy (Marakas, Yi, & Johnson, 1998). The difference between the two are that the first measures general computing efficacy with regards to job-specific tasks, while the latter measures efficacy across multiple domains (Marakas et al., 1998). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, general computer self-efficacy (GCSE) was utilized as to be more generalizable across different jobs that require remote work. There are several studies that have attempted to determine the associations between general computer self-efficacy and behaviour. One study looked at entrepreneurial intentions based on the effects of computer anxiety and computer self-efficacy, where the findings were that there was an indirect relationship mediated by attitudes, therefore providing the implication that society should promote its development in education (Albashrawi & Alashoor, 2020).

In order to consider strength and magnitude, GCSE was measured using the 6 items developed by Marakas, Johnson, and Clay (2007). Their measure consists of 6 questions that require a respondent answer “yes” or “no” if they have the capabilities to complete the general computer task, and then rate on a scale from 1 to 10 their confidence in being successful, where 1 is not confident and 10 is totally confident (Marakas, Johnson, & Clay, 2007). However, instead of coding “yes” or “no”, I opted to use a 0 to 10 scale to simplify the data analysis, and capability could be inferred from the scale. The final measure for GCSE would be expressed as a 1-item score out of 100 for simplicity by summing the total of all the scores for the 6 questions, dividing the value by 6, and then multiplying by 10. Although the final measure is composed of a single item and cannot be expressed as an alpha, the Cronbach’s alpha for the 6 items used for calculations for my sample was calculated to be .91 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Originally, Staples et al.'s (1999) study combined the variables IT experience and training, connectivity, and IT self-efficacy to form a variable called IT competency as a consequence of the variables being interrelated. However, since the methods for measuring IT experience and training and the replacement for IT self-efficacy, general computer self-efficacy, are different, they cannot be combined into a single variable and are analyzed separately. Additionally, the variable connectivity (Staples, 1996) consisting of 4-items, was omitted from the study because it was difficult to identify an accurate list of questions and they were not provided in Staples et al.'s (1999) study.

Remote Work Self-Efficacy. This variable measured an individual's judgement of capabilities and their expected efficiency in successfully completing a task from a remote setting. In Staples et al.'s (1999) study, the measure consisted of 16 questions that were identified from a focus group in Staples' (1996) previous study, consisting of tasks that would be expected of remote workers that were not specific to their job. As was recommended by Lee and Bobko (1994), the items questioned each participant if they could complete a task, where a response of "no" would be scored a value of zero, and if they responded "yes," the participant would rate their judgement on how well they could accomplish the task from a rating of 1 to 9, and then the results would be tallied up to create a final score (Staples, et al., 1999). However, in order to remain consistent with how GCSE is being measured, instead of coding "yes" or "no", a 0 to 10 scale was used since capability could be inferred from answering anything other than 0. The final variable for remote work self-efficacy is expressed as a 1-item score out of 100 by summing the total of all the scores for the 16 questions, dividing the value by 16, and then multiplying by 10. All of the items remained, however the items asking "Use a fax machine to send documents" was changed to "Use appropriate software or hardware to submit documents" as fax machines are

used less regularly from remote offices, and "Organize my office equipment, desk, and papers effectively" was changed to "Organize my home office equipment, desk, and papers effectively" as this study is focusing on WFH. Additionally, any question that specified a gender was changed for the word "them." Although the final measure is composed of a single item and cannot be expressed as an alpha, the Cronbach's alpha for the 16 items used for calculations for my sample was calculated to be .92 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Remote Work Performance. This variable was split into measures of overall productivity (internal consistency of 0.93 and $\alpha = 0.90$) and remote work effectiveness (internal consistency of 0.87 and $\alpha = 0.79$) in Staples et al.'s (1999) original study. This decision was made because it would be difficult to attribute performance to each task found in the assessment of remote work self-efficacy, therefore they opted to measure the general perceived effectiveness of remote work and overall productivity. The measures were created under the basis that previous performance found in performance accomplishments of self-efficacy have been shown to predict performance (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Overall productivity originally consisted of 6 items and remained in this study as they are relevant to modern remote workers. Remote work effectiveness originally consisted of 4 items that were not job specific, but as all the items are relevant, they were included in this study. The original study did not mention how the items are scored, hence a 5-point Likert scale was used to remain consistent with other measures, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree. However, the first two items measuring remote work effectiveness are reverse coded, therefore 5 is strongly disagree and 1 is strongly agree. The Cronbach's alphas for these scales using my sample were calculated to be .89 and .82 for overall productivity and remote work effectiveness respectively and may be referred to in Table 2.

Job Satisfaction. This variable measured the overall satisfaction a worker has with aspects of their job. Staples et al. (1999) originally measured this variable using a 15-item scale developed by Warr et al. (1979), however, due to the multidimensional nature of the scale, Staples et al. (1999) chose to use 5 items for satisfaction with management (internal consistency of 0.92 and $\alpha = 0.89$) and 5 items for other factors that produce satisfaction (internal consistency of 0.77 and $\alpha = 0.65$). Although Staples et al. (1999) observed desirable levels of job satisfaction using Warr et al.'s (1979) scales, I opted to use other scales that exhibit better internal consistency and encompass consequences that modern remote workers encounter. Specifically, I measured general job satisfaction using Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job diagnostic survey (JDS) and career satisfaction using a scale developed by Greenhaus et al.'s (1990).

The job diagnostic survey (JDS) identifies how job design may influence psychological states, further predicting work outcomes relating to satisfaction and motivation. Specifically, their model theorized that core job dimensions are related to critical psychological states, which would otherwise lead to outcomes related to behaviours consistent with motivation, performance, satisfaction, and turnover intentions (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The core job dimensions consist of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The critical psychological states consist of experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge understanding and retention. Lastly, these states lead to affective reactions, such as general job satisfaction, internal work motivation, and specific satisfactions with a specific facet of the job. For the purpose of this study, only general job satisfaction was measured, defined as "An overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). This measure was utilized to determine if the findings in Staples et al. (1999), as well as other studies,

are consistent with the findings that remote work self-efficacy is predictive of job satisfaction. The original scale utilized 5 items ($\alpha = 0.76$), however a short version consisting of 3 items was used and measured with a 7-point Likert scale. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .89 and may be referred to in Table 2.

The career satisfaction scale consists of five items that evaluate the facet of promotion opportunities found in job satisfaction and provides a large internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.88$) (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The scale is relevant to the satisfaction of remote workers as several studies have demonstrated that remote workers perceive promotions as less obtainable because they are less recognized for their work in a remote setting (Bloom, 2014; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Sull et al., 2020). Therefore, it is imperative that remote workers are asked whether their careers offer advancement prospects. The scale was measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Although these scales do not measure the exact same facets of job satisfaction found in Staples et al.'s (1999) study, this thesis study is a conceptual replication and extension and therefore utilizes a similar model and measures, but extend the study to evaluate contemporary consequences of remote work. Lastly, although the facet of opportunity is considered negatively in remote literature, self-efficacy has been found to increase job satisfaction (Saks, 1995; Staples et al., 1999). Therefore, the positive hypothesis between remote work self-efficacy and job satisfaction will remain, and if the relationship is not as hypothesized, it may be explained by the several remote work studies previously mentioned (Bloom, 2014; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Sull et al., 2020). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .94 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Ability to Cope. This variable measured an individual's ability to cope with stressful situations. Staples et al.'s (1999) originally measured this variable using 4 items from the role

ambiguity (or coping ability) scale developed by House, Schuler, and Levanoni (1983). Item constructs were found to have an internal consistency of 0.90 ($\alpha = 0.82$) (Staples et al., 1999). As the items do not specify the use of any specific technology and focus on measuring coping within the context of work, the same items were utilized for this study. In order to measure the ability to cope, all of the items are reverse coded on a 7-point Likert scale, where 7 is strongly disagree and 1 is strongly agree (House et al., 1983). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .93 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Affective Commitment. Organizational commitment is defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979). Staples et al. (1999) originally measured this variable using 4 items from a short form of the organizational commitment questionnaire (Mowday et al., 1979). The questionnaire demonstrated that organizational commitment is a transactional relationship with an organization that can be observed through three factors that exhibit beliefs and actions. These factors consisted of aligning with the organization's values and goals, exhibiting a disposition to achieve organizational goals, and the intention to continue to have a relationship with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). However, there are notable developments in this field of research.

Research on organizational commitment later identified three forms of organizational commitment, being affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991) defined affective commitment as a desire to remain with the organization, with individuals subscribing to activities that align with the goals of the organization and is often a consequence of being provided with employment that satisfies expectations and needs, such as satisfying work or opportunities to develop skills (Meyer et.al, 1993). Continuance commitment is defined as remaining in an organization due to necessity,

associated with lower involvement in beneficial behaviour towards the organization and is a consequence of evaluating the costs associated with membership and the losses incurred if an individual were to leave, such as the options for alternative employment with the same seniority and remuneration being limited (Meyer et.al, 1993). Lastly, normative commitment is defined as an obligation to remain with the company, characterized by desirable behaviour towards an organization and is often a consequence of individuals feeling an obligation to repay their organization or remain loyal due to social reasons, such as membership being associated with family or friends (Meyer et.al, 1993).

Although it was previously mentioned that remote workers are more committed as a form of reciprocation for their opportunity to work from home (normative), it is more reasonable to infer that they desire to work for the organization because they are satisfied with the work arrangement (affective). Furthermore, Staples et al.'s (1999) measure for organizational commitment utilized items that describe the desire and alignment with the organization (Appendix D), and are similar to items that measure affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Furthermore, several studies have demonstrated that a possible outcome of remote work is affective commitment, with some finding that individual motivation and HR support interventions mitigate the consequences of isolation and the shift to normative commitment (Ali et al., 2023; Mazzei et al., 2022; Kortsch et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2020). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, affective commitment was measured using 6 items developed and modified by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), and were scored on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree. However, items 3, 4, and 5 are reverse coded. Therefore, for those items, strongly agree would be scored 1 and strongly disagree would be

scored 7. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .91 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Job Stress. This variable measured the level of emotional response to stressors found at work. Staples et al.'s (1999) originally measured this variable using a 5-item scale created by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) with a tested internal consistency of 0.88 ($\alpha = 0.83$). The same items were utilized in this study as they are still relevant. Noteworthy is the item "I often 'take my job home with me' in the sense that I think about it when doing other things" as it can also be applied to the negative spillover that occurs for remote workers (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Toscano & Zappalà, 2020). In order to measure job stress, the items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree (Rizzo et al., 1970). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale using my sample was calculated to be .89 and may be referred to in Table 2.

Industry. This variable is defined as a group of companies that are characterized by their conduct of similar business activities. Industry was measured in order to answer Staples et al.'s (1999) question of whether there is a substantial difference in remote work self-efficacy between technology-related industries and those that are not. Therefore, a single question was asked: Whether a participant is working in a technology-related industry (yes) or a non-technology-related industry (no), denoted by a binary of 1 for yes and 0 for no.

Remote Work Intensity. This variable is defined as the amount of time an individual works remotely expressed in days, hours, or percentage of the week (Gajendran et al., 2024). Staples et al.'s (1999) study did not consider the contextual differences that may occur for individuals who work more days from home or in the place of business. There are several studies that provide reasons for why hybrid models are better than fully remote models as they provide a

mixture of the efficiency of working remotely while also providing the opportunity for in-person social interactions, collaboration, flexibility, creativity, and social support (Capone et al., 2024; Ferrara et al., 2022; Franca, Magalhaes, & Santos, 2024; Kessler, 2017; Stavrou, 2005).

In order to measure remote work intensity, this study utilized Kossek, Lautsch, and Eaton's (2006) measure of telecommuting volume as the question it asks is conceptually the same as remote work intensity. Specifically, the measure for remote work intensity consists of one item asking "*What percent of your job is currently performed away from your workplace?*" (Kossek et al., 2006). Participants were required to enter a numerical value between 0 and 100% in order to avoid erroneous responses. Logically, if a participant registers that they work from home 100% of the time, this would indicate that they conform to a fully remote model. Alternatively, the further away from 100% a participant registers, the more they conform to a hybrid model. Participants were also asked how many hours they worked remotely from home in order to verify whether participants accurately answer the first question. Lastly, remote workers may have a schedule that varies week by week or is inconsistent, requiring that they occasionally work at their employer's place of business. An example is that an employer may ask their employees, who would otherwise work from home 100% of the time, to visit their organization's offices a few times out of the month to work alongside their colleagues, hold in-person meetings, or provide the opportunity for new hires to shadow their work (modelling). Therefore, participants were asked a third question regarding if there are any inconsistencies in their schedules that would require they occasionally be physically present at work in order to ascertain whether an individual conforms to a fully remote or hybrid work model.

Table 2

Constructs & Internal Consistency (α)

Constructs	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Remote work experience & training (RWET)	3	0.93
Modelling best practices by manager (MBPM)	14	0.94
Computer anxiety (CA)	4	0.83
IT experience & training (ITET)	6	0.84
General computer self-efficacy (GCSE)	1	-
Physical conditions (PC)	2	0.83
Industry (I)	1	-
Remote work self-efficacy (RWSE)	1	-
Remote work intensity (RI)	1	-
Overall productivity (OP)	6	0.89
Remote work effectiveness (RWE)	4	0.82
General job satisfaction (JDS)	3	0.89
Career satisfaction (CS)	5	0.94
Ability to cope (ATC)	4	0.93
Affective commitment (AC)	6	0.91
Job stress (JS)	5	0.89

Note: The variables general computer self-efficacy (GCSE) and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) are represented by 1 item, therefore they do not have a Cronbach's alpha. However, the score for GCSE was calculated using 6 items and the score for RWSE was calculated using 16 items, producing Cronbach's alphas of 0.91 and 0.92 respectively.

Control Variables. Participants were prompted to answer several sociodemographic questions while completing the questionnaire. The questions recorded age, gender (0 = Male; 1 = Female; 2 = Other), education (1 = High School; 2 = College/Cégep; 3 = Trade School; 4 = Bachelor; 5 = Master; 6 = PhD; 7 = Prefer not to say), occupational industry (1 = Computer & Technology; 2 = Pharmaceutical; 3 = Transportation; 4 = Telecommunications; 5 = Manufacturing; 6 = Mining; 7 = Hospitality; 8 = Finance & Economics; 9 = Media; 10 = Education; 11 = Healthcare; 12 = Agriculture; 13 = Other; 14 = Prefer not to say), employment seniority, salary (1 = $0-$9,999; 2 = $10,000-$24,999; 3 = $25,000-$49,999; 4 = $50,000-

$74,999; 5 = $75,000-$99,999; 6 = $100,000-$124,999; 7 = $125,000-$149,999; 8 = $150,000 & greater; 9 = Prefer not to say), and hours scheduled and hours worked on a weekly basis.

It is imperative when deciding whether to utilize control variables to consider the necessity and ramifications of their inclusion. As mentioned by Becker, Atinc, Breaugh, Carlson, Edwards, and Spector (2016) in their 10 recommendations for using control variables, including control variables without understanding the associations with other variables for the purpose of being conservative is an incorrect method of analysis. Control variables have the potential to influence degrees of freedom, standard error, and power, thereby detracting from the meaning of the associations being observed and tested. Additionally, utilizing control variables that act as proxies, such as demographic variables, are not recommended as meaningful associations are more difficult to conclude since they are not a precise measure of what is being tested (Breaugh, 2008; Becker et al., 2016; Hsu, Chen, & Shaffer, 2019). Furthermore, Becker et al.'s (2016) sixth recommendation was not to include control variables in the analysis if they were not included in stated hypotheses since their inclusion may not be representative of supporting hypotheses. Therefore, following their recommendations, since control variables were not included in the hypotheses in this study and erroneous inclusion can potentially influence meaningful inferences, they are not included in the final analysis of the model.

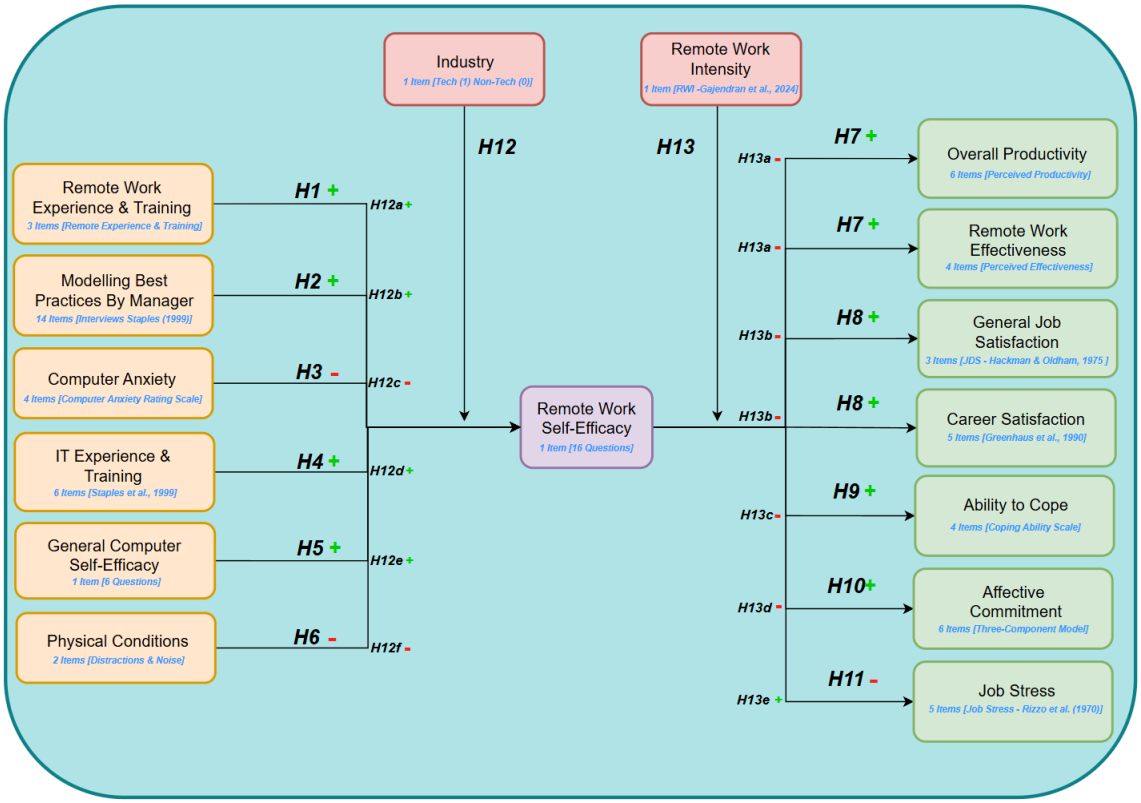
Lastly, to further clarify the exclusion of control variables, Table 13 (refer to Appendix H), consisting of Pearson correlations for all variables tested and sociodemographic variables was constructed. In the interest of determining whether any of the 8 sociodemographic variables are a potential control variable, inclusion criteria consisted of having an absolute correlations with dependent variables that are both significant and greater than 0.10 ($.10 < |r|$) (Becker et al., 2016; Hsu, et al., 2019). The majority of coefficients between sociodemographic variables and

dependent variables were found to have weak or insignificant associations (.10 > |r|). However, a few potential control variables were significantly correlated to dependent variables.

First, age was found to be significantly correlated with remote work self-efficacy (.19), remote work effectiveness (.21), and ability to cope (.21). Second, education level was found to be significantly correlated with general job satisfaction (.12), career satisfaction (.20), and affective commitment (.17). Third, employment seniority was found to be significantly correlated with remote work self-efficacy (.18), overall productivity (.13), career satisfaction (.12), ability to cope (.16), and affective commitment (.19). Fourth, hours worked (weekly) was found to be significantly correlated with career satisfaction (.13). Lastly, annual salary was found to be significantly correlated with general job satisfaction (.13), career satisfaction (.21), and affective commitment (.14).

Although significant correlations were found, many of these variables can act as proxies for other variables. An example is that if this study wanted to control for remote work experience, age or seniority could act as a proxy, however it would be incorrect to use them as a control variable since it is an imprecise measure as other variables may influence a person's remote work experiences. Although some correlations were found to be significant, including these variables may be a greater threat to the validity of supporting hypotheses. Therefore, since the inclusion of control variables may be a threat to supporting hypotheses and including control variables in the analysis would not be consistent with hypotheses stated, they are not be measured in the model.

Figure 4: Theoretical Model with Measures



This figure is a recreation of the theoretical model with the measures included. The changes consist of the distinction between overall productivity and remote work effectiveness.

Results

IBM SPSS 30 was utilized to calculate descriptive statistics, internal consistency reliabilities (α), and Pearson correlations, of which are presented in Table 3. As it is illustrated in the table, all of the variables that were tested had good internal consistency with Cronbach alphas being greater than .80. The Pearson correlations (r) between variables was significant ($p < 0.05$ & $p < 0.01$) and consistent with what was hypothesized.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency Reliabilities, and Pearson Correlations [a]

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Remote work experience & training	3.56	1.16	(.93)							
2. Modelling best practices by manager	4.04	.66	.44**	(.94)						
3. Computer anxiety	1.57	.79	.17**	-.05	(.83)					
4. IT experience & training	4.31	.60	.31**	.38**	-.24**	(.84)				
5. General computer self-efficacy	89.13	12.70	.04	.20**	-.43**	.39**	-			
6. Physical conditions	2.63	1.16	-.24**	-.23**	.03	-.13**	-.05	(.83)		
7. Industry	.75	.43	-.03	.06	.02	.10*	.10*	.00	-	
8. Remote work self-efficacy	84.34	11.18	.19**	.49**	-.32**	.43**	.57**	-.16**	.01	-
9. Remote work intensity	71.03	31.90	-.21**	-.15**	-.21**	.03	.12**	.01	-.03	.03
10. Overall productivity	4.30	.55	.21**	.28**	-.17**	.35**	.34**	-.24**	.01	.48**
11. Remote work effectiveness	4.41	.70	.00	.06	-.38**	.26**	.28**	.02	.00	.33**
12. General job satisfaction	4.07	.79	.25**	.59**	-.06	.30**	.21**	-.23**	.06	.41**
13. Career satisfaction	3.77	.92	.25**	.48**	-.04	.28**	.17**	-.21**	.03	.37**
14. Ability to cope	5.55	1.33	.14**	.27**	-.36**	.21**	.35**	-.19**	-.08	.45**
15. Affective commitment	4.54	1.46	.33**	.56**	-.06	.23**	.12*	-.29**	.05	.34**
16. Job stress	3.79	1.52	-.13**	-.37**	.20**	-.10*	-.17**	.27**	.00	-.29**

Note: $^{*}p < 0.05$. $^{**}p < 0.01$ (2-tailed)

[a]Reliability coefficients are represented by the values in parentheses found diagonally in the table.

Industry is dummy coded 0 = non-technology industry; 1 = technology industry.

General computer self-efficacy and remote work self-efficacy is scored on a scale from 0 to 100.

For a consolidated version of this table, please refer to Appendix G.

Table 3 (*Continued*)

Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency Reliabilities, and Pearson Correlations [a]

Variables	*M*	*SD*	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Remote work experience & training	3.56	1.16								
2. Modelling best practices by manager	4.04	.66								
3. Computer anxiety	1.57	.79								
4. IT experience & training	4.31	.60								
5. General computer self-efficacy	89.13	12.70								
6. Physical conditions	2.63	1.16								
7. Industry	.75	.43								
8. Remote work self-efficacy	84.34	11.18								
9. Remote work intensity	71.03	31.90	-							
10. Overall productivity	4.30	.55	-.13**	(.89)						
11. Remote work effectiveness	4.41	.70	.29**	.29**	(.82)					
12. General job satisfaction	4.07	.79	-.17**	.42**	.15**	(.89)				
13. Career satisfaction	3.77	.92	-.27**	.43**	.05	.70**	(.94)			
14. Ability to cope	5.55	1.33	-.03	.40**	.28**	.33**	.29**	(.93)		
15. Affective commitment	4.54	1.46	-.27**	.30**	.08	.66**	.60**	.30**	(.91)	
16. Job stress	3.79	1.52	.03	-.20**	-.11*	-.43**	-.32**	-.54**	-.34**	(.89)

Note: *$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$ (2-tailed)

[a]Reliability coefficients are represented by the values in parentheses found diagonally in the table.

Industry is dummy coded 0 = non-technology industry; 1 = technology industry.

General computer self-efficacy and remote work self-efficacy is scored on a scale from 0 to 100.

For a consolidated version of this table, please refer to Appendix G.

IBM SPSS 30 was used to conduct a regression analysis for all hypotheses. Hypotheses 1-6 consists of direct effects from independent variables on remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). Hypotheses 7-11 assesses the effects of remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) on dependent variables. Hypothesis 12 is separated into 6 parts, consisting of measuring the moderation effects of technology industries on the associations between antecedents and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). Hypothesis 13 is separated into 7 parts, consisting of measuring the moderation effects of remote work models (remote work intensity) on the associations between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and outcomes. Tables consisting of regression coefficients and figures illustrating hypotheses support ensue in proceeding sections.

Referring to Models in Table 4, hypotheses 1-6 may be evaluated. Model 1 consists of a regression analysis between independent variables and RWSE, and Model 2 is a regression analysis between independent variables, industry, interaction terms, and RWSE. Hypothesis 1 proposed that remote work experience and training (RWET) would be positively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). As was illustrated in Table 4 Model 1, the association between RWET and RWSE (β = -.017, p = .677) is negative and not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is not supported. Furthermore, Hypothesis 2 proposed modelling best practices by manager (MBPM) would be positively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). As demonstrated in Table 4 Model 1, the association between MBPM and RWSE (β = .355, p < .001) is positive and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported. Regarding Hypothesis 3, it was proposed that computer anxiety (CA) would be negatively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). As shown in Table 4 Model 1, the association between (CA) and RWSE (β = -.091, p < .05) is negative and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported. Hypothesis 4 proposed IT experience and training (ITET) would be positively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). Referring to Table 4 Model 1, the association between ITET and RWSE (β = .113, p < .01) is positive and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported. Hypothesis 5 proposed general computer self-efficacy (GCSE) would be positively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). As is shown in Table 4 Model 1, a positive and significant association is found between GCSE and RWSE (β = .408, p < 0.001). Thus, Hypothesis 5 is supported. For Hypothesis 6, it was proposed that physical conditions (PC) would be negatively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). As illustrated in Table 4 Model 1, the association between physical conditions (PC) and RWSE (β = -.043, p = .239) was found to be

negative and not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 6 is not supported. All SPSS regression outputs can be referred to in Appendix J.

Table 4

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Independent Variables & Remote Work Self-Efficacy

Variables	Remote Work Self-Efficacy	
	Model 1	Model 2
Intercept	22.827***	36.131***
Main Effects		
Remote work experience & training	-.017	-.035
Modelling best practices by manager	.355***	.503***
Computer anxiety	-.091*	-.108
IT experience & training	.113**	.008
General computer self-efficacy	.408***	.238**
Physical conditions	-.043	-.028
Industry		-.899*
Interaction Effects		
Industry x Remote work experience & training		.028
Industry x Modelling best practices by manager		-.571*
Industry x Computer anxiety		.044
Industry x IT experience & training		.555
Industry x General computer self-efficacy		.848**
Industry x Physical conditions		-.019
F	67.058***	34.468***
R^2	.485	.516
ΔR^2		.031***

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$.

The coefficients are represented by standardized β

Industry is dummy coded 0 = non-technology industry; 1 = technology industry.

General computer self-efficacy and remote work self-efficacy is scored on a scale from 0 to 100.

Furthermore, Models in Table 5 to 11 may be examined to determine support for Hypotheses 7-11. Model 3 is a regression between independent and dependent variables, Model 4 is a regression between RWSE and dependent variables, Model 5 is a regression between independent variables, RWSE, and dependent variables, and Model 6 is a regression between independent variables, RWSE, remote work intensity, the second stage interaction term, and dependent variables. Hypothesis 7 proposed remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) would be

positively associated with remote work performance. This hypothesis was tested by measuring overall productivity (OP) and remote work effectiveness (RWE). As illustrated in Model 4 of Table 5 and 6, the associations between RWSE and OP ($\beta = .485$, $p < 0.001$), and RWSE and RWE ($\beta = .330$, $p < 0.001$) are positive and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 7 is supported. Hypothesis 8 proposed remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) would be positively associated with Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using the job diagnostic survey (JDS), a measure of general job satisfaction, and career satisfaction (CS). As shown in Model 4 of Table 7 and 8, the association between RWSE and JDS ($\beta = .414$, $p < 0.001$), and RWSE and CS ($\beta = .365$, $p < 0.001$) is significant and positive. Thus, Hypothesis 8 is supported.

Hypothesis 9 proposed remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) would be positively associated with the ability to cope (ATC), such that RWSE could improve the ability to cope. According to Table 9 Model 4, the association between RWSE and ATC ($\beta = .449$, $p < 0.001$) is positive and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported. Hypothesis 10 proposed remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) would be positively associated with affective commitment (AC). Table 10 Model 4 demonstrated that the association between RWSE and AC ($\beta = .338$, $p < 0.001$) is positive and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 10 is supported. Lastly, Hypothesis 11 proposed remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) would be negatively associated with job stress (JS), such that individuals with high remote work self-efficacy would perceive less job stress. The association between RWSE and JS ($\beta = -.290$, $p < 0.001$) in Table 11 Model 4 was found to be negative and significant. Thus, Hypothesis 11 is supported.

Table 5

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & Overall Productivity

Variables	Overall Productivity			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	2.500***	2.272***	2.100***	2.882***
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	.068		.074	.050
Modelling best practices by manager	.104*		-.022	-.044
Computer anxiety	-.031		.001	-.031
IT experience & training	.170***		.130**	.142**
General computer self-efficacy	.230***		.085	.105*
Physical conditions	-.165***		-.150***	-.154***
Remote work self-efficacy		.485***	.354***	.220
Remote work intensity				-.594
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				.463
F	20.974***	132.686***	25.100***	21.813***
R^2	.228	.235	.292	.316
ΔR^2			.064***	.024***

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$. Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

Table 6

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & Remote Work Effectiveness

Variables	Remote Work Effectiveness			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	3.630***	2.675***	3.263***	2.137***
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	.035		.039	.074
Modelling best practices by manager	-.037		-.129*	-.096
Computer anxiety	-.316***		-.292***	-.250***
IT experience & training	.155**		.126*	.110*
General computer self-efficacy	.089		-.017	-.041
Physical conditions	.055		.066	.073
Remote work self-efficacy		.330***	.258***	.391***
Remote work intensity				.665*
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				-.465
F	16.087***	52.677***	17.029***	17.145***
R^2	.184	.109	.219	.267
ΔR^2			.034***	.048***

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$. Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

Table 7

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & General Job Satisfaction

Variables	General Job Satisfaction			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	.826*	1.608***	.589	.456
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	-.043		-.040	-.056
Modelling best practices by manager	.538***		.485***	.468***
Computer anxiety	.036		.050	.040
IT experience & training	.075		.058	.063
General computer self-efficacy	.085		.024	.025
Physical conditions	-.099*		-.093*	-.098*
Remote work self-efficacy		.414***	.148**	.222*
Remote work intensity				.116
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				-.239
F	40.894***	89.522***	36.693***	29.872***
R^2	.365	.172	.376	.388
ΔR^2			.011**	.012*

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$.

Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

Table 8

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & Career Satisfaction

Variables	Career Satisfaction			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	.621	1.228***	.315	.526
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	.019		.022	-.013
Modelling best practices by manager	.404***		.346***	.310***
Computer anxiety	.024		.038	.010
IT experience & training	.090		.071	.084
General computer self-efficacy	.061		-.006	.003
Physical conditions	-.098*		-.091*	-.101*
Remote work self-efficacy		.365***	.163**	.235*
Remote work intensity				-.023
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				-.221
F	24.191***	66.477***	22.202***	21.910***
R^2	.254	.133	.267	.317
ΔR^2			.014**	.050***

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$.

Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

Table 9

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & Ability to Cope

Variables	Ability to Cope			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	3.538***	1.025*	2.756***	2.907*
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	.096		.101*	.089
Modelling best practices by manager	.169***		.068	.055
Computer anxiety	-.293***		-.266***	-.276***
IT experience & training	-.044		-.076	-.072
General computer self-efficacy	.192***		.075	.078
Physical conditions	-.115**		-.102*	-.106*
Remote work self-efficacy		.449***	.287***	.307**
Remote work intensity				-.024
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				-.060
F	23.091***	109.187***	24.537***	19.550***
R^2	.245	.202	.287	.293
ΔR^2			.042***	.006

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$.

Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

Table 10

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & Affective Commitment

Variables	Affective Commitment			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	.727	.809	.426	-.425
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	.091		.092*	.063
Modelling best practices by manager	.490***		.455***	.421***
Computer anxiety	-.055		-.046	-.062
IT experience & training	-.011		-.023	-.014
General computer self-efficacy	-.014		-.055	-.056
Physical conditions	-.160***		-.156***	-.166***
Remote work self-efficacy		.338***	.101	.278**
Remote work intensity				.340
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				-.577
F	38.603***	55.616***	33.773***	31.551***
R^2	.352	.114	.357	.401
ΔR^2			.005	.044***

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$.

Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

Table 11

Regression Analysis (β) for Associations between Remote Work Self-Efficacy & Job Stress

Variables	Job Stress			
	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Intercept	5.016***	7.104***	5.315***	6.816***
Main Effects				
Remote work experience & training	.010		.009	.009
Modelling best practices by manager	-.359***		-.325***	-.321***
Computer anxiety	.178***		.169***	.160**
IT experience & training	.131*		.142**	.144**
General computer self-efficacy	-.060		-.021	-.010
Physical conditions	.204***		.199***	.203***
Remote work self-efficacy		-.290***	-.096	-.246*
Remote work intensity				-.460
Interaction Effect				
Remote work intensity x Remote work self-efficacy				.501
F	20.207***	39.520***	17.763***	14.059***
R^2	.221	.084	.226	.230
ΔR^2			.005	.004

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$.

Remote work intensity is a measured as a percentage from 0 to 100.

In order to evaluate the moderation hypotheses 12 and 13, interaction effects were estimated and visualized through a simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1996). Using the outputs of regressions from SPSS 30, values for regression coefficients and intercepts were entered into an excel sheet developed by Dawson (2014) to plot the effect of moderators as slopes. Hypothesis 12 consisted of testing whether industry, the relation to technology industries, could be a first stage moderator for the associations between independent variables and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE). The slope calculations can be found in Appendix I.

Hypothesis 12a evaluated the moderation effect between remote work experience and training (RWET) and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), such that technology industries would strengthen the positive relationships between remote work experience & training and remote work self-efficacy. Referring to Table 4 Model 2, industry does not moderate the association

between RWET and RWSE because the interaction term (β = .028, p = .849) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 12a is not supported.

Hypothesis 12b evaluated the moderation effect between modelling best practices by manager (MBPM) and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), such that technology industries would strengthen the positive relationships between modelling best practices by manager and remote work self-efficacy. Referring to Table 4 Model 2, industry moderates the association between MBPM and RWSE because the interaction term (β = -.571, $p < 0.05$) is significant. I plotted the interaction effect in Figure 5, which indicates that in both technology and non-technology industries, MBPM is positively associated with RWSE. Simple slope analysis indicated that MBPM is more strongly associated with RWSE when employees work in non-technology industries (β = 8.457, t = 6.538, p = 0.00) than in technology industries (β = 4.995, t = 6.293, p = 0.00), which contradicts what was hypothesized. Thus, Hypothesis 12b is not supported.

Hypothesis 12c evaluated the moderation effect between computer anxiety (CA) and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), such that technology industries would weaken the negative relationships between computer anxiety and remote work self-efficacy. Referring to Table 4 Model 2, industry does not moderate the association between CA and RWSE because the interaction term (β = .044, p = .734) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 12c is not supported.

Hypothesis 12d evaluated the moderation effect between IT experience and training (ITET) and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), such that technology industries would strengthen the positive relationships between IT experience & training and remote work self-efficacy. Referring to Table 4 Model 2, industry does not moderate the association between ITET and RWSE because the interaction term (β = .555, p = .059) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 12d is not supported.

Hypothesis 12e proposed technology industries would strengthen the positive relationship between general computer self-efficacy and remote work self-efficacy. Referring to Table 4 Model 2, industry moderates the association between GCSE and RWSE because the interaction term (β = .848, $p < 0.01$) is significant. I plotted the interaction effect in Figure 6, which indicates that in both technology and non-technology industries, GCSE is positively associated with RWSE. Simple slope analysis indicated that the positive association between GCSE and RWSE is stronger when employees work in technology industries (β = 0.445, t = 9.951, p = 0.00) than in non-technology industries (β = 0.209, t = 3.305, p = 0.001). Thus, Hypothesis 12e is supported.

Hypothesis 12f evaluated the moderation effect between physical conditions (PC) and remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), such that technology industries would weaken the negative relationships between physical condition and remote work self-efficacy. Referring to Table 4 Model 2, industry does not moderate the association between PC and RWSE because the interaction term (β = -.019, p = .866) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 12f is not supported.

Figure 5: Simple Slop Analysis for Stage 1 Moderation Between MBPM and RWSE

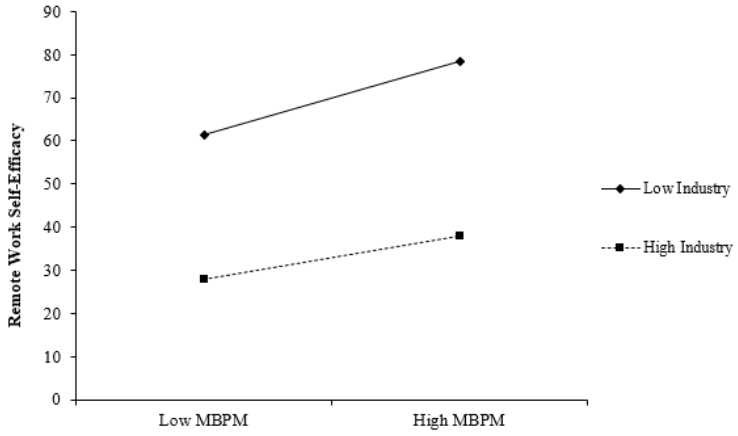
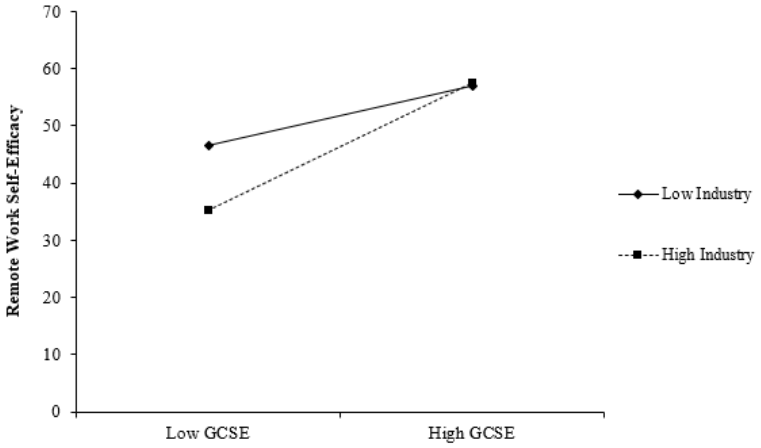


Figure 6: Simple Slop Analysis for Stage 1 Moderation Between GCSE and RWSE



Hypothesis 13 was evaluated using the same method as Hypotheses 12. Hypothesis 13 consisted of testing whether remote work intensity (RI), the percentage of work conducted from home, could be a second stage moderator for the associations between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and the dependent variables in the model. High levels of remote work intensity (RI) are indicative of working closer to a fully remote schedule while a low RI is closer to working a hybrid schedule.

Hypothesis 13a evaluated the moderation effect of remote work intensity (RI) on the association between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and remote work performance, such that remote work intensity would weaken the positive relationships between remote work self-efficacy and remote work performance. Remote work performance was measured using overall productivity (OP) and remote work effectiveness (RWE). Referring to Model 6 of Table 5 and 6, RI does not moderate the association between RWSE and remote work performance because the interaction terms for the association between RWSE and OP (β = .463, p = .164), and RWSE and RWE (β = -.465, p = .178), are not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 13a is not supported.

Hypothesis 13b evaluated the moderation effect of remote work intensity (RI) between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and job satisfaction, such that remote work intensity would weaken the positive relationships between remote work self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using general job satisfaction (JDS) and career satisfaction (CS). Referring to Model 6 of Table 7 and 8, RI does not moderate the association between RWSE and job satisfaction because the interaction terms for the association between RWSE and JDS (β = -.239, p = .449), and RWSE and CS (β = -.221, p = .506) are not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 13b is not supported.

Hypothesis 13c evaluated the moderation effect of remote work intensity (RI) between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and the ability to cope (ATC), such that remote work intensity would weaken the positive relationships between remote work self-efficacy and the ability to cope. Referring to Table 9 Model 6, RI does not moderate the association between RWSE and ATC because the interaction term (β = -.060, p =.860) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 13c is not supported.

Hypothesis 13d evaluated the moderation effect of remote work intensity (RI) between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and affective commitment (AC), such that remote work intensity (RI) would weaken the positive association. Referring to Table 10 Model 6, RI does not moderate the association between RWSE and AC because the interaction term (β = -.577, p = .065) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 13d is not supported.

Lastly, Hypothesis 13e evaluated the moderation effect of remote work intensity (RI) between remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) and job stress (JS), such that remote work intensity (RI) would strengthen the negative association. Referring to Table 11 Model 6, RI moderates the

association between RWSE and JS because the interaction term (β = .501, p = .157) is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 13e is not supported.

Table 12

Summary of Hypotheses Support

Hypotheses	Analysis
H1: *Remote Work Experience & Training will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H2: *Modelling Best Practices by Manager will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Supported
H3: *Computer Anxiety will be negatively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Supported
H4: *IT Experience & Training will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Supported
H5: *General Computer Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Supported
H6: *Physical Conditions will be negatively associated with Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H7: *Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Remote Work Performance.*	Supported
H8: *Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Job Satisfaction.*	Supported
H9: *Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with the Ability to Cope.*	Supported
H10: *Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be positively associated with Affective Commitment.*	Supported
H11: *Remote Work Self-Efficacy will be negatively associated with Job Stress.*	Supported
H12a: *Technology industries will strengthen the positive relationship between Remote Work Experience & Training and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H12b: *Technology industries will strengthen the positive relationship between Modelling Best Practices by Manager and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H12c: *Technology industries will weaken the negative relationship between Computer Anxiety and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H12d: *Technology industries will strengthen the positive relationship between IT Experience & Training and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H12e: *Technology industries will strengthen the positive relationship between General Computer Self-Efficacy and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Supported
H12f: *Technology industries will weaken the negative relationship between Physical Condition and Remote Work Self-Efficacy.*	Not Supported
H13a: *Remote Work Intensity will weaken the positive relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and Remote Work Performance.*	Not Supported
H13b: *Remote Work Intensity will weaken the positive relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction.*	Not Supported
H13c: *Remote Work Intensity will weaken the positive relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and the Ability to Cope.*	Not Supported
H13d: *Remote Work Intensity will weaken the positive relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and Affective Commitment.*	Not Supported
H13e: *Remote Work Intensity will strengthen the negative relationship between Remote Work Self-Efficacy and Job Stress.*	Not Supported

The table is a summarization of whether hypotheses were supported.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the antecedents and impacts of remote work self-efficacy on employee outcomes through a replication and extension of Staples et al.'s (1999) study to provide organizations with resources to properly leverage work models that are quickly becoming the standard as a consequence of COVID-19. Employing self-efficacy theory, the role of past experiences was evaluated for the effects on developing remote work self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986). Additionally, the role of remote work self-efficacy was investigated for its influence on work-associated outcomes. The sample consisted of 434 valid responses coming from 224 hybrid and 210 fully remote employees who work from home, with 327 working in technology industries and 107 working in non-technology industries.

Once completing regression analyses, it was found that modelling best practices by manager, IT experience and training, and general computer self-efficacy were positively associated with remote work self-efficacy, and computer anxiety was negatively associated. Furthermore, findings show that remote work self-efficacy was positively associated with remote work performance, job satisfaction, the ability to cope, and affective commitment, and was negatively associated with job stress. Moreover, technology industries were found to positively moderate the association between general computer self-efficacy and remote work self-efficacy. Contrary to what was hypothesized, technology industries negatively moderated the association between modelling best practices by manager and remote work self-efficacy. Alternatively, remote work intensity was not found to moderate the associations between remote work self-efficacy and outcomes.

Theoretical Implications

The findings for hypotheses 1 to 6 provide theoretical demonstrations of antecedents and developments of self-efficacy. The positive associations between modelling best practices by manager (MBPM), IT experience and training (ITET), and general computer self-efficacy (GCSE) with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), and the negative association between computer anxiety (CA) and RWSE are consistent with self-efficacy literature. Specifically, Bandura's (1977, 1978) self-efficacy theory consists of four developing experiences, being past accomplishments, vicarious experiences (modelling), social persuasion (coaching), and physiological and emotional arousal. The findings in this study are demonstrative of theoretical conformity to self-efficacy theory as past accomplishments (ITET and GCSE), and vicarious experiences and social persuasion (MBPM) are beneficial for developing self-efficacy, while physiological and emotional experiences (CA) are detrimental. Therefore, the findings for supported antecedents of remote work self-efficacy are consistent with the direction of associations theorized by self-efficacy theory.

Furthermore, it is stipulated in self-efficacy theory that the previously mentioned past experiences are listed in order of strength (e.g. past accomplishments have more of an impact than vicarious experiences) (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Although this is mostly consistent as GCSE (β = .408), a form of past accomplishments, is a stronger indicator than MBPM (β = .355), a form of vicarious experiences and social persuasion, and a stronger indicator than CA (β = -.091), a form of physiological and emotional arousal, ITET (β = .113) was less impactful as a past accomplishment. This demonstrates that the rule for experience strength may not necessarily always be supported, or that some experiences are not entirely competency forming.

The support for MBPM, ITET, GCSE, and CA as antecedents of remote work self-efficacy illustrate the pertinence of Staples et al.'s (1999) study with modern integration of remote work. In this study and Staples et al.'s (1999) study, MBPM, ITET, and GCSE (IT self-efficacy in Staples study) were found to be positively associated with RWSE, with CA being negatively associated. However, as a form of improving the model, the variable IT self-efficacy found in Staples et al.'s (1999) model was substituted for GCSE as it had a greater internal consistency and provided the same positive direction of association. Consistent with Staples et al.'s (1999) findings, there was a lack of support for physical conditions (PC) as an antecedent for RWSE as the association was found to be negative but not significant. This contradicts remote work literature, where distraction in the remote workplace found from sharing an office space with family members may introduce distractions and spillover effects that can negatively impact RWSE (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Therefore, it is possible that the scale that was sourced from Staples et al.'s (1999) study to measure PC is outdated and fails to capture modern remote work distractions that are consistent with contemporary remote work literature. Therefore, I would implore future researchers to use a more distinguished scale that captures different facets of distractions remote workers may expect to experience to provide a better judgement of the impact of PC on RWSE.

Contradicting Staple et al.'s (1999) findings, there was no support for RWET being associated with RWSE as the evidence indicated negative directionality and no significance. Therefore, like PC, this may be a symptom of outdated measurement methods, or it may be that RWET is not a significant contributor towards RWSE for modern remote workers, which is indicative of several studies finding that some training for complex tasks may be less representative of self-efficacy, but better explained by goal setting (Yi & Im, 2004).

The support found for hypotheses 7-11 for outcomes of RWSE are theoretical evidence that bolster the improvement of business functions and employee well-being. Specifically, the findings for RWSE improving remote work performance, job satisfaction, the ability to cope, and affective commitment, and weaken job stress are consistent with existing literature (Gist, 1989; Han et al., 2018; Saks, 1995; Silver et al., 1995; Staples et al., 1999). These findings provide evidence that may contribute towards self-efficacy and remote work literature by expanding the precedence of RWSE as a potential ameliorator of performance, job satisfaction, and affective commitment, which are beneficial for business functions, and a catalyst for improving the ability to cope and decreasing perceived stress to improve employee well-being.

Regarding the pertinence of Staples et al.'s (1999) findings, they are still relevant to the modern integration of remote work. The findings in this study and Staples et al.'s (1999) are aligned, with RWSE being positively associated with remote work performance (OP and RWE), job satisfaction (JDS and CS), ability to cope (ATC), and organizational commitment (AC), and negatively associated with job stress (JS). However, some changes to the measurement of variables contributed to a theoretical extension of Staples et al.'s (1999) study. The measure for job satisfaction was changed for the job diagnostic survey to capture general job satisfaction and career satisfaction to record perceptions of promotion opportunities. This change was made to justify the findings of several studies that have indicated that remote workers, as a consequence of their work arrangement, are recognized less for their work and receive less opportunities for promotions (Bloom, 2014; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Sull et al., 2020). However, the findings of this research indicate that RWSE is positively associated with career satisfaction. It is possible that RWSE improves career satisfaction, or individuals with high RWSE are capable of creating recognition and attaining promotions. Therefore, it is imperative

that future studies attempt to examine whether remote workers, with high and low RWSE, experience less promotion opportunities compared to their in-office counterparts and evaluate whether their career satisfaction is lower. This would provide future researchers the opportunity to identify specific contexts that may lead to remote workers being less recognized for the same work as their colleagues.

An additional contribution was the change of measure from organizational commitment to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The positive association between RWSE and AC are consistent with Staples et al.'s (1999) findings for organizational commitment and provides evidence for remote employees with high RWSE perceiving affective commitment and the desire for their work arrangement (Ali et al., 2023; Mazzei et al., 2022; Kortsch et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2020). The positive associations between RWSE and ATC, and the negative associations between RWSE and JS are also significant findings that are consistent and further establish the relevance of Staples et al.'s (1999) study. In literature, remote workers are exposed to greater levels of stress as a consequence of the isolating nature of the job, leading to decreases in performance and the ability to cope (Gajendran et al., 2024). However, since RWSE was observed, these opposing findings were expected because high levels of RWSE in literature have been found to aid with coping and decrease perceptions of job stressors (Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Han et al., 2018; Saks, 1995; Staples et al., 1999).

This study provided evidence for a limitation listed in Staple et al.'s (1999) article through the inclusion of moderators as an extension. Staples et al. (1999) expressed that future studies should observe whether there is a difference in RWSE between remote workers who are employed in technology and non-technology industries. Furthermore, since there are not many studies that utilize programmers in self-efficacy research, a minimum of 50% of the sample had

to consist of individuals in computer and technology jobs to ensure some relation to technology industries. The only significance that was found for the moderation effect was between MBPM and RWSE, and GCSE and RWSE. However, contrary to what was hypothesized, the association between MBPM and RWSE was negative and stronger in non-technology industries. It may be that remote workers in technology industries experience greater work intensification and are less capable of disengaging from work, leading to a spillover of work into their family time, furthering management communication practices less effective (Eddleston & Mulki, 2017; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). The positive association between GCSE and RWSE is consistent with logical inferences made while hypothesizing, meaning that employees in technology industries may have greater GCSE that aids in developing RWSE.

The extension consisting of measuring whether remote work intensity, the degree to which a remote employee worked fully remote or a hybrid schedule, moderated the relationship between RWSE and outcomes did not find support. Although the evidence contradicts the hypothesized associations, this indicates regardless whether remote employees comply to a fully remote model or a hybrid model, there should be no significant differences in outcomes. Therefore, in order to further substantiate outcomes of RWSE in remote work and self-efficacy literature, I would recommend that future studies examine the differences in outcomes between remote workers (fully remote and hybrid) and regular office workers. Additionally, it would be interesting to observe how the development of RWSE is affected if remote work intensity is hypothesized as a first stage moderator rather than a second stage moderator. The directionality would theoretically remain the same, however, the consequences of fully remote and hybrid work may become a differentiator in terms of strength of impact on the development of RWSE.

Practical Implications

Along with theoretical implications, there are practical implications for organizations and their employees. The COVID-19 pandemic catalyzed the shift from in-office to integrating remote work models that are still prevalent in organizations today (Sull, Sull, & Bersin, 2020). Therefore, it is imperative to recognize that the evidence found in this study are beneficial towards fulfilling organizational goals.

Starting with outcomes, remote work self-efficacy (RWSE) is predictive of job performance in metrics of overall productivity and remote work effectiveness. When taking a stakeholder perspective, a goal of an organization is to be productive in an effort to record performance and increase shareholder value (Friedman, 1970). The findings in this study provide evidence that organizations may expect their remote workers with high remote work self-efficacy to provide better metrics that align with business practices in the form of overall productivity and remote work effectiveness. Therefore, businesses should take into consideration RWSE when recruiting candidates.

Furthermore, remote work self-efficacy was predictive of job satisfaction in the form of general job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Several studies have provided evidence that employee satisfaction mitigates absenteeism and reduces turnover by up to 17% (Clark, 2001; Martin, 2018). Through association, some studies have also indicated that job satisfaction may improve the overall quality of life of employees (Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt, 1984). Although it was not observed in this study, literature elucidates that remote workers perceive they have less promotion opportunities in comparison to their in-office colleagues (Bloom, 2014; Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Ferrara et al., 2022; Sull et al., 2020). It would be in the best interest of employers to monitor what work is done and by who on a periodic basis to

create a precedence for recognition to ensure career satisfaction is not impacted. Therefore, managers and HRM should have a vested interest in the remote work self-efficacy of their employees to promote a satisfied workforce as it is the responsibility of an organization to provide a safe environment for their workers, while also decreasing detriments of business operations such as absenteeism and turnover rates through improved engagement.

Findings in this study also indicate that remote work self-efficacy is predictive of increased affective commitment, meaning remote employees desire to work for their organization, inferring a strong sense of belongingness and interpreting the organization's problems as their own (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993). Lastly, remote workers with high remote work self-efficacy demonstrated a greater ability to cope and perceived less job stress. This is a significant finding since remote work is typically associated with work intensification and job stress, with job stress having real world implications that lead to health decline (Schaubroeck et al., 1994). However, if HRM are capable of improving remote work self-efficacy, they may be capable of reducing stress. Additionally, although remote work increases isolation and job stress, studies have indicated that management may provide resources such as autonomy to employees to improve performance and mitigate turnover (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Keller, 1984; Parasuraman & Alutto, 1981, 1984; Van Yperen & Hagedoorn, 2003). Therefore, if HRM are capable of improving RWSE or leveraging the recruitment process, they can potentially expect to gain remote work performance, job satisfaction, affective commitment, increased ability to cope, and a decreased perception of job stress.

In an effort to improve remote work self-efficacy to obtain desirable outcomes, HRM have the option to nurture growth in employees or possibly leverage the recruitment process to hire employees who already have high remote work self-efficacy. First, to improve remote work self-

efficacy in an existing workforce, the tenets of self-efficacy need to be addressed. Specifically, looking at the model, the variables modelling best practices by manager, IT experience and training, general computer self-efficacy, and computer anxiety must be influenced.

Modelling best practices by manager was found to be a positive contributor to remote work self-efficacy, and is characteristic of vicarious experiences (modelling) and social persuasion from self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977,1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Staples et al., 1999). The variable looks at communications between employees and managers, as well as how managers provide support and set the example. Therefore, following Shirmohammadi and Beigi (2022) recommendations, managers and HRM should ensure that communication channels remain open, such as found with an open-door policy, whereby remote employees can have access to the resources and support they need. Additionally, HRM should advise remote workers of the possibility of isolation and its ramifications on health and work. Since management interventions were found to be beneficial to improving remote work self-efficacy, it is also recommended that organizations train managers and supervisors to properly keep communication channels open and to proactively socialize with their staff to create team-building relationships that mitigate isolation (Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). Although it was not found in this study, employers should also monitor work hours and enact policies to ensure work intensification does not occur to mitigate turnover (Gajendran et al., 2024).

IT experience and training (ITET), the experience and training associated with IT, and general computer self-efficacy (GCSE), the capability to comfortably use a computer and associated devices, are found to be positively associated with remote work self-efficacy (RWSE), and are characteristic of past accomplishments in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977, 1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Staples et al., 1999). Therefore, if employers are capable of

improving ITET and GCSE, they may benefit from associated remote work self-efficacy and outcomes. Drawing from Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, HRM may provide basic instructions and repetitive work material that is relevant to a remote position to develop ITET and GCSE to enable growth. As these two forms of experiences are representative of past accomplishments, repetitive experiences of success theoretically develop into mastery and improves RWSE.

Computer anxiety (CA), the fear of making irreversible mistakes while using a computer, is characteristic of physiological and emotional arousal in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977,1978; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Staples et al., 1999). The findings of this study are that CA are detrimental to the development of RWSE. Several studies illustrate that physiological and emotional arousal decrease self-efficacy, and that remote work inexperience leads to difficulty adjusting (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Cervone, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Morikawa, 2021; Staples et al., 1999). Therefore, in order to improve remote work self-efficacy, CA needs to be mitigated. HRM should advise employees of the ramifications of computer anxiety on the development of remote work self-efficacy and provide support if employees are anxious about their work (Saks, 1995; Shirmohammadi & Beigi, 2022). Additionally, managers could provide more training that has no implication on business practices to familiarize employees with the effective use of computers to improve employee perception, thereby improving RWSE.

Alternatively, if HRM are not capable of increasing remote work self-efficacy to improve productivity and well-being of their own employees, they may opt to leverage the recruitment process. Specifically, I would recommend that during recruitment, potential candidates should be tested on their knowledge of using a computer, associated IT, their associated anxiety, as well as a general quiz on their perceived remote work self-efficacy. By testing candidates, it may

increase the likelihood of experiencing the benefits of remote work self-efficacy, such as productivity, job satisfaction, improved ability to cope, more engagement, and reduced stress as was found in this research. The test for general computer self-efficacy and IT experience and training could be catered to each organization by simply asking candidates to follow instructions written on paper to complete work on a computer that is job-specific. Afterwards, employees can be asked if and what anxiety they encountered during the test to measure computer anxiety. Additionally, candidates may be asked to complete a questionnaire where a total score for remote work self-efficacy can be assessed, not unlike what was done in this study, and they may justify the hiring process through setting a standard with a minimum score dependent on the organization's requirements.

Lastly, since the findings in my research indicate that remote work is a productive means of conducting work, there are additional benefits to its integration in organizations for both employers and employees. Organizations benefit from remote work arrangements by reducing overall capital costs in the form of not paying for office space and by hiring talented employees who would otherwise not be considered as potential candidates due to geographical restrictions (Bloom, 2014; English, 2022; Ferrara et al., 2022; Hunter, 2019; Kessler, 2017; Sor, 2024). Remote workers benefit through cost-savings and time-savings associated with a reduction in commutes to work from home, reducing pollutants in the process, and increasing the amount of time with their families. Additionally, when organizations offer remote work, they proactively endorse autonomy which may improve performance (Pierce & Newstrom, 1983; Reisinger & Fetter, 2021; Virick et al., 2010).

Limitations

There are a variety of potential limitations found in my research. First, as this study is cross-sectional and not longitudinal, I cannot confirm the causality of relationships. More specifically, there is a risk to internal validity as in order to properly ascertain relationships, an experiment must be conducted. For this study to be considered an experiment, there would need to be a manipulation occurring between two groups, a test group and a control group, and participants would have to be randomly assigned (Kite & Whitley, 2018). However, the study scope was constrained to a cross-sectional design, therefore causality cannot be inferred. It would not have been reasonable for me to impose a manipulation in business structure onto an existing organization and their staff that could unknowingly be detrimental to their finances and well-being. Therefore, future studies should attempt to find a compromise to conduct a longitudinal experiment, where remote workers would be randomly assigned to two groups and manipulated, and data would be recorded over a period of time to evaluate outcomes of RWSE.

If I were given the opportunity to do this study again using an experimental design, I would opt to use start-up companies as the primary target demographic. Start-up companies are a desirable demographic because they are a compromise to the previously listed concerns. Employees can be advised during the recruitment process that their work model will vary, thereby circumventing the concern of disturbing existing work schedules and employee well-being, in the hopes of determining whether remote models are beneficial to their specific businesses. Therefore, using start-up companies, I would randomly assign newly recruited employees to either a fully remote or a hybrid remote schedule, where fully remote employees would act as the control group. The employees would then be asked to answer the same questionnaire over a period of two years. The questionnaire would be administered on the first

day of work, after 6 months, 12 months, 18 months, and 24 months as a form of assessment. Through administering the questionnaire over a long period of time, it would be possible to determine if RWSE and expectations by both employees and management, such as perceptions of promotion opportunities, changes over time, and findings could then be compared to this study.

Second, the perceptions that were recorded from the sample may not be conducive of what occurs in real organizations. This study utilized questionnaires as a means of recording data. Since the data recorded is a self-assessment, rather than an objective measurement, only correlation may be observed. This distinction is important because self-reporting can only provide evidence in the form of correlation, while experiments provide evidence of causation (Kite & Whitley, 2018). Therefore, it cannot be said that remote work self-efficacy causes increased productivity. Rather, what is being stated is that this study demonstrated remote work self-efficacy has a correlation with perceived remote work performance.

Third, the original study that was replicated and extended utilized a different analysis technique. Staples et al. (1999) utilized the partial least squares (PLS) approach, while this study utilized regression analysis through IMB SPSS 30. The reason for the change in approach was that during the thesis proposal process, professors indicated that PLS is not the preferred method in the field of organizational behaviour (OB), but is common in the computer science field where Staples et al. (1999) published their study. From my own research, since my sample size was 434, IBM SPSS 30 handles larger sample sizes better than software such as SmartPLS. Additionally, IBM SPSS 30 was a more convenient option as it was readily available through my university website and my supervisor was familiar with its functions. Therefore, the difference in analysis approach may be an indicator for why some findings were different from those found in Staples et al.'s (1999) study.

Conclusion

This study is a retrospective outlook on the development of remote work self-efficacy over a quarter century through the replication of Staple et al.'s (1999) "A Self-Efficacy Theory Explanation for the Management of Remote Workers in Virtual Organizations." The findings of the study provide evidence for the future potential of leveraging remote work self-efficacy and the integration of remote work models in businesses.

Staples et al.'s (1999) study was limited to the technology landscape of their time, with the fast pace of technological advancements making it difficult for them to capture the implications of remote work. Technologically constrained, Staples et al. (1999) captured remote work self-efficacy using a very different demographic of remote workers found today; only 17% of their sample worked from home while the rest of the sample worked in different office buildings from their managers. Fast-forwarding to today, remote work has become readily prevalent in businesses as technology facilitates work to be conducted from home. Although the technological landscape has changed, the benefits of remote work self-efficacy are realized.

Through the changing of mindsets of employees and management, organizations and their constituents may enjoy desirable consequences. Amelioration in the form of experiences that employees encounter, such as promoting communication with management, training and familiarity with technology, and the recognition of stressor ramification can develop stronger remote work self-efficacy. As a result, employees may expect to reap the benefits of increased well-being in the form of job satisfaction, the ability to cope, and decreased job stress, while organizations benefit through remote work performance and affective commitment.

The future of remote work self-efficacy is promising, with businesses progressively integrating remote work models and future calls for studies providing clarity in literature.

References

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1996). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions.* Sage Publications, Inc.

Albashrawi, M., & Alashoor, T. (2020). Entrepreneurial intention: the impact of general computer self-efficacy and computer anxiety. *Interacting with Computers, 32*(2), 118–131.

Ali, A. D., Narine, L. K., Hill, P. A., & Bria, D. C. (2023). Factors Affecting Remote Workers' Job Satisfaction in Utah: An Exploratory Study. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 20*(9).

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Advances in Behaviour Research and Therapy, 1*(4), 139–161.

Bandura, A. (1978). Reflections on self-efficacy. *Advances in Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *1*(4), 237–269.

Bandura, A., & Cervone, D. (1986). Differential engagement of self-reactive influences in cognitive motivation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 38*(1), 92–113.

Baron, R. A. (1988). Negative effects of destructive criticism: impact on conflict, self-efficacy, and task performance. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(2), 199–207.

Baron, R. A. (1990). Countering the effects of destructive criticism: the relative efficacy of four interventions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(3), 235–245.

Barsness, Z. I., Diekmann, K. A., & Seidel, M.-D. L. (2005). Motivation and opportunity: the role of remote work, demographic dissimilarity, and social network centrality in impression management. *The Academy of Management Journal, 48*(3), 401–419.

Bartel, C. A., Wrzesniewski, A., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (2012). Knowing where you stand: physical isolation, perceived respect, and organizational identification among virtual employees. *Organization Science, 23*(3), 743–757.

Becker, T. E., Atinc, G., Breaugh, J. A., Carlson, K. D., Edwards, J. R., & Spector, P. E. (2016). Statistical control in correlational studies: 10 essential recommendations for organizational researchers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 37*(2), 157–167.

Biju, A. V., Vijaya K. M., & Akhil, M. P. (2022). Assessing the Effect of Work From Home on the Work-Life Balance of IT Employees. *International Journal of Human Capital and Information Technology Professionals, 13(*1).

Bloom, N. (2014). To Raise Productivity, Let More Employees Work from Home. *Harvard Business Review, 92*(1/2), 28–29.

Bowling, N. A., Huang, J. L., Bragg, C. B., Khazon, S., Liu, M., & Blackmore, C. E. (2016). Who cares and who is careless? Insufficient effort responding as a reflection of respondent personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 111*(2), 218–229.

Breaugh, J. A. (2008). Important considerations in using statistical procedures to control for nuisance variables in non-experimental studies. *Human Resource Management Review, 18*(4), 282–293.

Brodt, T. L., & Verburg, R. M. (2007). Managing mobile work—insights from European practice. *New Technology, Work and Employment, 22*(1), 52–65.

Burkhardt, M. E. (1994). Social interaction effects following a technological change: a longitudinal investigation. *The Academy of Management Journal, 37*(4), 869–898.

Caillier, J. G. (2018). Do flexible work schedules reduce turnover in U.S. federal agencies? *The Social Science Journal*, 55(2), 108–115.

Capone, V., Schettino, G., Marino, L., Camerlingo, C., Smith, A., & Depolo, M. (2024). The new normal of remote work: exploring individual and organizational factors affecting work-related outcomes and well-being in academia. *Frontiers in Psychology, 15*, 1340094.

Clark, A. E. (2001). What really matters in a job? hedonic measurement using quit data. *Labour Economics, 8*(2), 223–242.

Coenen, M., & Kok, R. A. W. (2014). Workplace flexibility and new product development performance: the role of telework and flexible work schedules. *European Management Journal, 32*(4), 564–576.

Compeau, D. R. (1992). Individual reactions to computing technology: A social cognitive theory perspective. *Digitized Theses*. 2125. https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/digitizedtheses/2125

Compeau, D. R., & Higgins, C. A. (1995). Computer self-efficacy: development of a measure and initial test. *MIS Quarterly, 19*(2), 189–211.

Dawson, J. F. (2014). Moderation in management research: What, why, when and how. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 29*, 1-19.

Dineen, B. R., Noe, R. A., Shaw, J. D., Duffy, M. K., & Wiethoff, C. (2007). Level and dispersion of satisfaction in teams: using foci and social context to explain the satisfaction-absenteeism relationship. *The Academy of Management Journal, 50*(3), 623–643.

Eddleston, K. A., & Mulki, J. (2017). Toward understanding remote workers' management of work–family boundaries: the complexity of workplace embeddedness. *Group & Organization Management, 42*(3), 346–387.

Elshaiekh, N. E. M., Hassan, Y. A. A., Abdallah, A. A. A., & 2018 International Arab Conference on Information Technology (ACIT) Werdanye, Lebanon 2018 Nov. 28 - 2018 Nov. 30. (2018). 2018 international arab conference on information technology (acit). *In The impacts of remote working on workers performance* (pp. 1–5). essay, IEEE.

English, L. (2022). Centric consulting case study: Culture is the key to remote work success. *Work, 71*(2), 295–298.

Fan, W., & Moen, P. (2022). Working More, Less or the Same During COVID-19? A Mixed Method, Intersectional Analysis of Remote Workers. *Work and Occupations, 49*(2), 143-186.

Fast, N. J., Burris, E. R., & Bartel, C. A. (2014). Managing to stay in the dark: managerial self-efficacy, ego defensiveness, and the aversion to employee voice. *The Academy of Management Journal, 57*(4), 1013–1034.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, *39*, 175-191.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*, 1149-1160.

Felstead A., & Henseke, G. (2017). Assessing the growth of remote working and its consequences for effort, well-being and work-life balance. *New Technology, Work and Employments, 32*(3), 195-212.

Ferrara, B., Pansini, M., De Vincenzi, C., Buonomo, I., & Benevene, P. (2022). Investigating the role of remote working on employees' performance and well-being: an evidence-based systematic review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19*(19).

Franca, C., Magalhaes, C., & Santos, R. d. S. (2024). Hybrid Work Well-Being: Software Professionals Finding Equilibrium. *IEEE Software, 41*(4), 78–85.

Friedman, M. (1970, September 13). A Friedman doctrine-- the social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *The New York Times*. https://www.nytimes.com/1970/09/13/archives/a-friedman-doctrine-the-social-responsibility-of-business-is-to.html

Gajendran, R. S., Ponnapalli, A. R., Wang, C., & Javalagi, A. A. (2024). A dual pathway model of remote work intensity: A meta-analysis of its simultaneous positive and negative effects. *Personnel Psychology*.

Gist, M. E. (1989). The influence of training method on self-efficacy and idea generation among managers. *Personnel Psychology, 42*(4), 787–805.

Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: a theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *The Academy of Management Review, 17*(2), 183–211.

Gist, M. E., Schwoerer, C., & Rosen, B. (1989). Effects of alternative training methods on self-efficacy and performance in computer software training. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(6), 884–891.

Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, S., & Wormley, W. M. (1990). Effects of Race on Organizational Experiences, Job Performance Evaluations, and Career Outcomes. *The Academy of Management Journal, 33*(1), 64–86.

Hackney, A., Yung, M., Somasundram, K. G., Nowrouzi-Kia, B., Oakman, J., Yazdani, A., & Ebrahimi, M. H. (2022). Working in the digital economy: a systematic review of the impact of work from home arrangements on personal and organizational performance and productivity. *Plos One, 17*(10).

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*(2), 159–170.

Han, M.-J., Lee, J.-R., Shin, Y.-J., Son, J.-S., Choi, E.-J., Oh, Y.-H., Lee, S.-H., & Choi, H.-R. (2018). Effects of a simulated emergency airway management education program on the self-efficacy and clinical performance of intensive care unit nurses. *Japan Journal of Nursing Science*, 15(3), 258–266.

He, J., & Freeman, L. A. (2010). Understanding the formation of general computer self-efficacy. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems, 26*(1), 225–244.

Heinssen, R. K., Glass, C. R., & Knight, L. A. (1987). Assessing computer anxiety: development and validation of the computer anxiety rating scale. *Computers in Human Behavior, 3*(1), 49–59.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The Influence of Culture, Community, and the Nested-Self in the Stress Process: Advancing Conservation of Resources Theory. *Applied Psychology, 50*(3), 337–421.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: software of the mind: intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (Revised and expanded third edition). McGraw-Hill.

House, R. J., Schuler, R. S., & Levanoni, E. (1983). Role conflict and ambiguity scales: reality or artifacts? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(2), 334–337.

Howe, & Menges. (2022). Remote work mindsets predict emotions and productivity in home office: a longitudinal study of knowledge workers during the covid-19 pandemic. *Human-Computer Interaction*, *37*(6), 481–507.

Hsu, Y.-S., Chen, Y.-P., & Shaffer, M. A. (2019). Reducing Work and Home Cognitive Failures: the Roles of Workplace Flextime Use and Perceived Control. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 36*(1), 155–172.

Hunter, P. (2019). Remote working in research: an increasing usage of flexible work arrangements can improve productivity and creativity. *Embo Reports, 20*(1).

Hunter, L. W., & Thatcher, S. M. B. (2007). Feeling the heat: effects of stress, commitment, and job experience on job performance. *The Academy of Management Journal, 50*(4), 953–968.

Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. *The Academy of Management Journal, 29*(2), 262–279.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: a qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(3), 376–407.

Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(6), 939–948.

Kaduk, A., Genadek, K., Kelly, E. L., & Moen, P. (2019). Involuntary vs. voluntary flexible work: insights for scholars and stakeholders. *Community, Work & Family, 22*(4), 412–442.

Keller, R. T. (1984). The role of performance and absenteeism in the prediction of turnover. The *Academy of Management Journal, 27*(1), 176–183.

Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2010). Doing more with less? flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations, 63*(1), 83–106.

Kelly, J. (2020) Google CEO Sundar Pichai calls for a 'hybrid' work-from home model. *Forbes*, 28 September 2020, https://www.forbes.com/sites/jackkelly/2020/09/28/google-ceo-sundar-pichai-calls-for-a-hybrid-work-from-home-model/?sh=5de890f5e9cf.

Kerlinger, F. N., & Pedhazur, E. J. (1973). *Multiple regression in behavioral research*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Kerlinger, F. N., & Pedhazur, E. J. (1982). *Multiple regression in behavioral research: explanation and prediction* (2nd ed). Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Kessler, S. (2017). IBM, remote-work pioneer, is calling thousands of employees back to the office. *Quartz*, 21 March 2017.

Kite, M.E. & Whitley, B.E. (2018). *Principles of Research in Behavioral Science, Fourth Edition*, Routledge.

Kortsch, T., Rehwaldt, R., Schwake, M. E., Licari, C., Tchounwou, P. B., & Hyun, S. S. (2022). Does Remote Work Make People Happy? Effects of Flexibilization of Work Location and Working Hours on Happiness at Work and Affective Commitment in the German Banking Sector. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19*(15).

Kossek, E. E., Lautsch, B. A., & Eaton, S. C. (2006). Telecommuting, control, and boundary management: Correlates of policy use and practice, job control, and work-family effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*(2), 347–367.

Kovacs, G., Law, J. A., Ross, J., Tallon, J., MacQuarrie, K., Petrie, D., Campbell, S., & Soder, C. (2004). Acute airway management in the emergency department by non-anesthesiologists. *Canadian Journal of Anesthesia, 51*(2), 174–180.

Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1994). Self-efficacy beliefs: comparison of five measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(3), 364–364.

Litt, M. D. (1988). Cognitive mediators of stressful experience: self-efficacy and perceived control. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 12*(3), 241–260.

Manko B.A. (2021). Considerations in the use of Work-From-Home (WFH) for post-pandemic planning and management. *Management, 25*(1), 118-140.

Marakas, G., Johnson, R., & Clay, P. (2007). The evolving nature of the computer self-efficacy construct: an empirical investigation of measurement construction, validity, reliability and stability over time. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems, 8*(1), 16–46.

Marakas, G. M., Yi, M. Y., & Johnson, R. D. (1998). The multilevel and multifaceted character of computer self-efficacy: toward clarification of the construct and an integrative framework for research. *Information Systems Research, 9*(2), 126–163.

Martin, S., & Statistics Canada. (2018). The association between job flexibility and job satisfaction (Ser. Insights on Canadian society). *Statistics Canada = Statistique Canada*. February 5, 2024.

Mazzei, A., Ravazzani, S., Butera, A., Conti, S., & Fisichella, C. (2022). The affective commitment of newcomers in hybrid work contexts: A study on enhancing and inhibiting factors and the mediating role of newcomer adjustment. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, 987976.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 1*(1), 61–89.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(4), 538–551.

Miller, C., Rodeghero, P., Storey, M.-A., Ford, D., Zimmermann, T., & 2021 IEEE/ACM 43rd International Conference on Software Engineering (ICSE) Madrid, ES, Spain 2021 May 22 - 2021 May 30. (2021). 2021 ieee/acm 43rd international conference on software engineering (icse). In "*how was your weekend?" software development teams working from home during covid-19* (pp. 624–636). essay, IEEE.

Morikawa M. (2021). Work-From-Home productivity during the COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence from Japan. *Economic Inquiry (2022)*, 508-527.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R.M., Porter, L.W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), 224–47.

Near, J. P., Smith, C. A., Rice, R. W., & Hunt, R. G. (1984). A comparison of work and nonwork predictors of life satisfaction. *The Academy of Management Journal, 27*(1), 184–190.

Nishiyama, K., & Johnson, J. V. (1997). Karoshi--death from overwork: occupational health consequences of Japanese production management. International Journal of Health Services: *Planning, Administration, Evaluation, 27*(4), 625–41.

Nuwer, R. (2016). No workplace like home. *Scientific American Mind, 27*(5), 38–43.

Parasuraman, S., & Alutto, J. A. (1981). An examination of the organizational antecedents of stressors at work. *The Academy of Management Journal, 24*(1), 48–67.

Parasuraman, S., & Alutto, J. A. (1984). Sources and outcomes of stress in organizational settings: toward the development of a structural model. *The Academy of Management Journal, 27*(2), 330–350.

Park, S. H., Shin, H.-K., Kim, K.-W., & Yazdani, A. (2023). Relationship between indoor noise perception and remote work during the covid-19 pandemic. *Plos One, 18*(6).

Peer, E., Rothschild, D., Gordon, A., Evernden, Z., & Damer, E. (2022). Data quality of platforms and panels for online behavioral research. *Behavior Research Methods, 54*(4), 1643–1662.

Pierce, J. L., & Newstrom, J. W. (1983). The design of flexible work schedules and employee responses: relationships and process. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour, 4*(4), 247–262.

Reisinger, H., & Fetterer, D. (2021, October 29). Forget Flexibility. Your Employees Want Autonomy. *Harvard Business Review*. https://hbr.org/2021/10/forget-flexibility-your-employees-want-autonomy.

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 15*(2), 150–163.

Russo, D., Hanel, P. H. P., Altnickel, S., & van Berkel, N. "The Daily Life of Software Engineers During the COVID-19 Pandemic," *2021 IEEE/ACM 43rd International Conference on Software Engineering: Software Engineering in Practice (ICSE-SEIP)*, Madrid, ES, 2021, pp. 364-373.

Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(2), 211–211.

Schaubroeck, J., Ganster, D. C., & Kemmerer, B. E. (1994). Job complexity, "type a" behavior, and cardiovascular disorder: a prospective study. *The Academy of Management Journal, 37*(2), 426–439.

Schaubroeck, J., & Merritt, D. E. (1997). Divergent effects of job control on coping with work stressors: the key role of self-efficacy. *The Academy of Management Journal, 40*(3), 738–754.

Schindler, E. (2016). *Remote Worker's Survival Guide*. O'Reilly Media, Inc. https://proquest.safaribooksonline.com/9781491995129

Shirmohammadi, M., Au, W. C., & Beigi, M. (2022). Remote work and work-life balance: lessons learned from the covid-19 pandemic and suggestions for hrd practitioners. *Human Resource Development International, 25*(2), 163–181.

Silver, Mitchell, W. S., & Gist, T. R. (1995). Responses to successful and unsuccessful performance: the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between performance and attributions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 62*(3), 286–299.

Simon, S. K. L., Chen, X.-P., & Schaubroeck, J. (2002). Participative decision making and employee performance in different cultures: the moderating effects of allocentrism/idiocentrism and efficacy. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 45(5), 905–914.

Sor, J. (2024, February 12). US office buildings are facing a 30% price drop as remote work continues to upend the sector, Morgan Stanley. *Business Insider*. https://www.businessinsider.in/thelife/news/us-office-buildings-are-facing-a-30-price-drop-as-remote-work-continues-to-upend-the-sector-morgan-stanley-says/articleshow/107637456.cms

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: dimensions, measurement, and validation. *The Academy of Management Journal, 38*(5), 1442–1465.

Staples, D. S. (1997). An Investigation of Information Technology-Enabled Remote Management and Remote Work Issues. *Australasian Journal of Information Systems*, *4*(2).

Staples D.S., & Hulland J.S., & Higgins C.A. (1999). A Self-Efficacy theory explanation for the management of Remote workers in virtual organizations. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 3*(4), 758-776.

Statistics Canada. (2023). *Classification of Full-time and Part-time Work Hours*. https://www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p3VD.pl?Function=getVD&TVD=114437&CVD=114437&CLV=0&MLV=1&D=1

Stavrou, T. E. (2005). Flexible work bundles and organizational competitiveness: a cross-national study of the European work context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(8), 923–947.

Straus, E., Uhlig, L., Kühnel, J., & Korunka, C. (2023). Remote workers' well-being, perceived productivity, and engagement: which resources should hrm improve during covid-19? a longitudinal diary study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 34*(15), 2960–2990.

Sull, D., Sull, C., and Bersin, J. (2020). Five ways leaders can support remote work. *MIT Sloan Management Review, 61*(4), 1-10.

Thomas, L. T., & Ganster, D. C. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain: a control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(1), 6–15.

Toscano, F., & Zappalà, S. (2020). Social isolation and stress as predictors of productivity perception and remote work satisfaction during the covid-19 pandemic: the role of concern about the virus in a moderated double mediation. *Sustainability, 12*(23), 9804–9804.

Trueman, C., & Gold, J. (2024, January 26). Tech layoffs in 2024: A timeline. *Computerworld*. https://www.computerworld.com/article/3685936/tech-layoffs-in-2023-a-timeline.html

Van Yperen, N. W., & Hagedoorn, M. (2003). Do high job demands increase intrinsic motivation or fatigue or both? the role of job control and job social support. *The Academy of Management Journal, 46*(3), 339–348.

Virick, M., DaSilva, N., & Arrington, K. (2010). Moderators of the curvilinear relation between extent of telecommuting and job and life satisfaction: the role of performance outcome orientation and worker type. *Human Relations, 63*(1), 137–154.

Virtual Vocations Inc. (2023). *48,000 Fully Remote Job Openings Closed Out 2023—Virtual Vocations Q4 Telework Report*. Retrieved February 13, 2024, from https://www.prweb.com/releases/48-000-fully-remote-job-openings-closed-out-2023---virtual-vocations-q4-telework-report-302060457.html

Wang, W., Albert, L., & Sun, Q. (2020). Employee isolation and telecommuter organizational commitment. Employee Relations: *The International Journal, 42*(3), 609–625.

Ward, M. K., & Meade, A. W. (2023). Dealing with Careless Responding in Survey Data: Prevention, Identification, and Recommended Best Practices. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *74*, 577–596.

Warr, P. (2008). Work values: some demographic and cultural correlates. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 81*(4), 751–775.

Warr, P., Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1979). Scales for the measurement of some work attitudes and aspects of psychological well-being. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 52*(2), 129–148.

Westbrook, K. W., & Peterson, R. M. (2022). Servant Leadership Effects on Salesperson Self-Efficacy, Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intentions. *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing, 29*(2), 153–175.

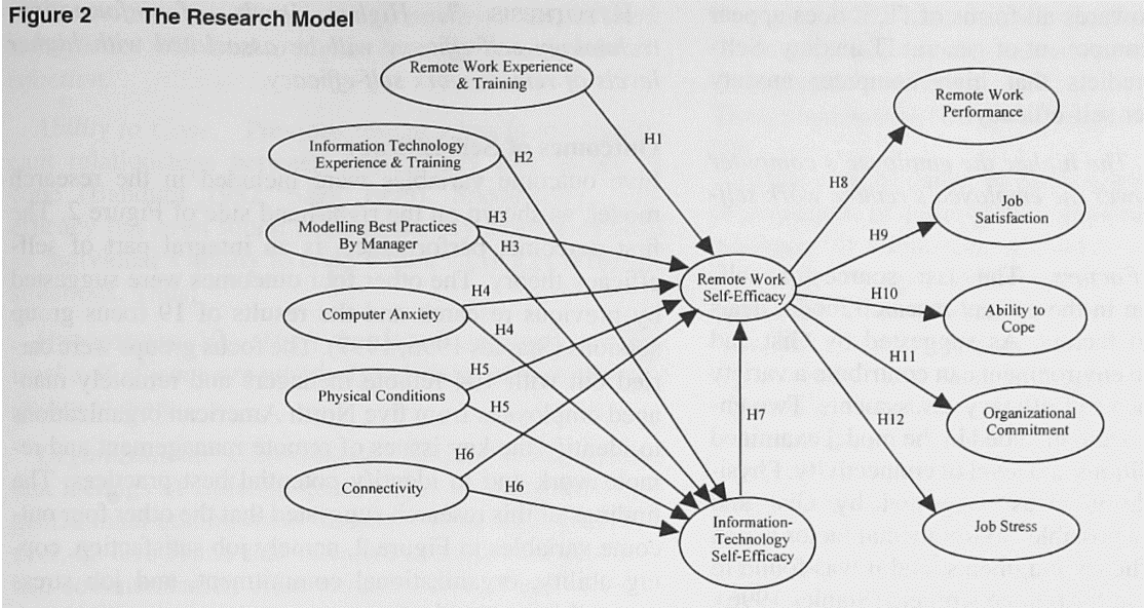
Wold, H. (1985). *In Systems analysis by partial least squares* (pp. 221–251). essay.

Yamauchi, T., Sasaki, T., Yoshikawa, T., Matsumoto, S., & Takahashi, M. (2018). Incidence of overwork-related mental disorders and suicide in Japan. *Occupational Medicine, 68*(6), 370–377.

Yi, M. Y., & Im, K. S. (2004). Predicting computer task performance: personal goal and self-efficacy. *Journal of Organizational and End User Computing, 16*(2), 20–37.

Appendices

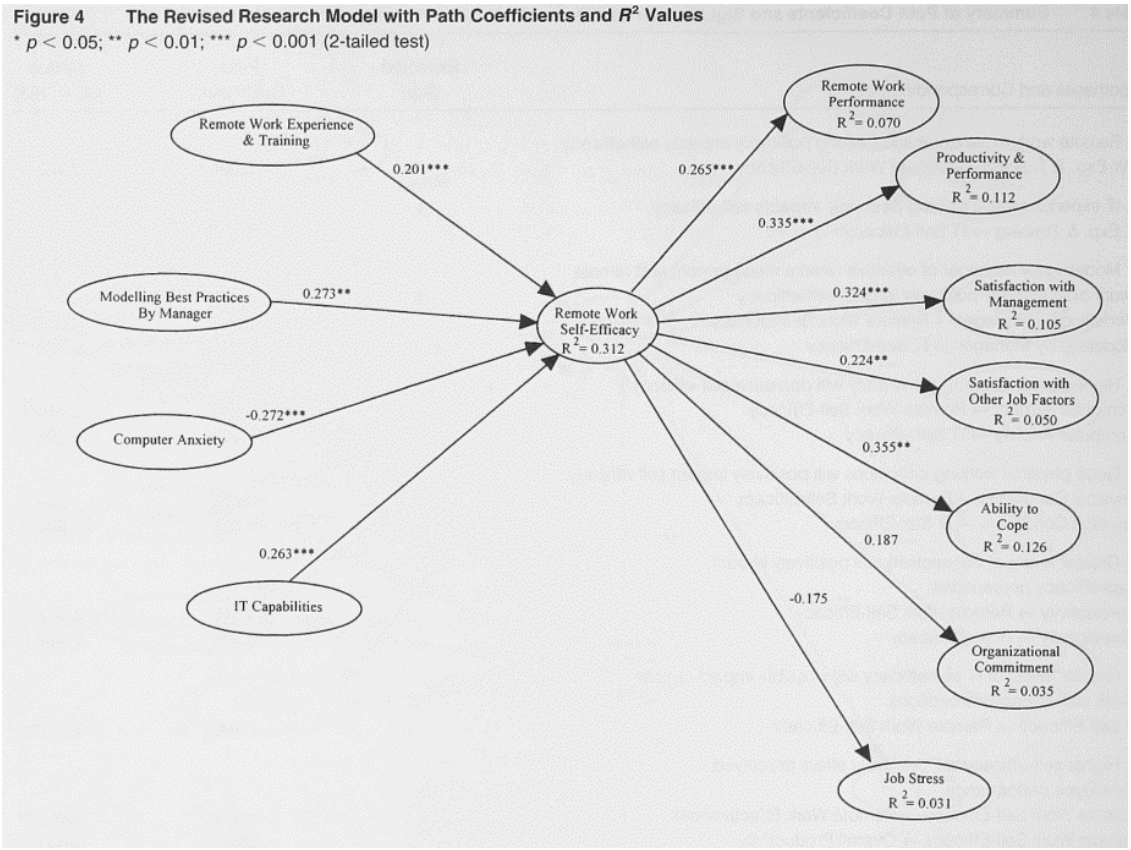
Appendix A: Initial Research Model as Illustrated by Staples et al. (1999)



(Staples et al., 1999, p.761)

Note: This figure was sourced from Staples et al.'s (1999) article "A Self-Efficacy Theory Explanation for the Management of Remote Workers in Virtual Organizations." I acknowledge that I have no ownership of the figure and its inclusion is justified as to illustrate and draw inferences for the theoretical model for remote work self-efficacy.

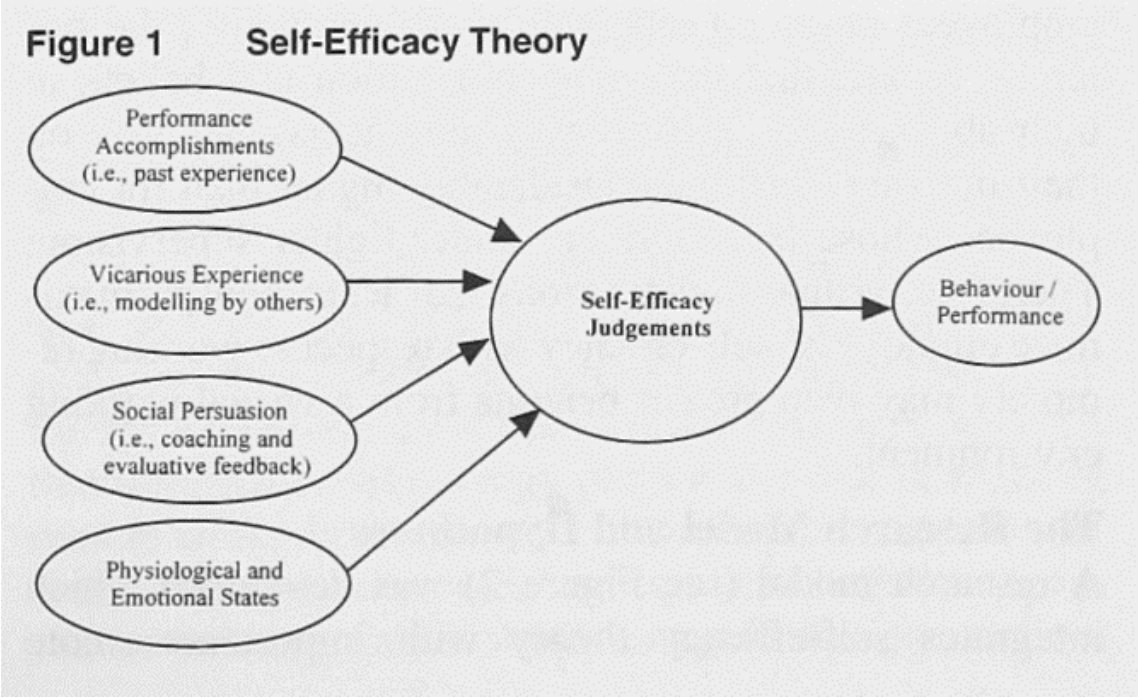
Appendix B: Revised Research Model as Illustrated by Staples et al. (1999)



(Staples et al., 1999, p.770)

Note: This figure was sourced from Staples et al.'s (1999) article "A Self-Efficacy Theory Explanation for the Management of Remote Workers in Virtual Organizations." I acknowledge that I have no ownership of the figure and its inclusion is justified as to illustrate and draw inferences for the theoretical model for remote work self-efficacy.

Appendix C: Theoretical Model for Self-Efficacy Theory as Illustrated by Staples et al. (1999)



(Staples et al., 1999, p.759)

Note: This figure was sourced from Staples et al.'s (1999) article "A Self-Efficacy Theory Explanation for the Management of Remote Workers in Virtual Organizations." I acknowledge that I have no ownership of the figure and its inclusion is justified as to illustrate and draw inferences from self-efficacy theory.

Appendix D: Original Questions from the Study Being Replicated

should be provided to reduce computer anxiety levels. Reducing computer anxiety levels can be beneficial by leading to increased levels of remote work self-efficacy, which in turn increases job attitudes and behaviors.

Finally, the results of the current study can be used to assist managers in identifying workers who are suited to working in a virtual environment. The skills mentioned above could be incorporated into a diagnostic assessment tool that could then be used to identify individuals with characteristics and skills better suited to effective remote work. By selecting and developing employees for virtual work who score highly on this diagnostic tool, the organization could improve its longer-term probability of success.

Conclusion

Virtual organizations are becoming an increasingly common organizational design. The employees in a virtual organization often work in locations remote from their manager. This remoteness creates many management and communication challenges. In order for organizations to effectively adapt to this new way of conducting work, our understanding of the relevant issues and key drivers must be increased. The current study helps to do this by using self-efficacy theory to predict relationships between the antecedents to remote work self-efficacy and the consequences of self-efficacy. These relationships were tested

Appendix A Questionnaire Items

Item Wording

Information Technology Experience and Training

I am experienced at using my organization's e-mail system.

I am experienced at using my organization's electronic collaborative (group support) system.

I am experienced at using my organization's videoconferencing system.

I received adequate training to use my e-mail system.

I received adequate training to use my organization's electronic collaborative (group support) system.

I received adequate training to use my organization's videoconferencing system.

Remote Work Experience and Training.

I have been trained by my manager to work remotely.

I am trained to work remotely from my manager.

I have had some training on how to work remotely effectively.

Modelling Best Practices by Manager

Runs meetings effectively (e.g., sets agendas, publishes minutes, designates a chairperson)

Has good communication skills (e.g., a good listener, picks up on nonverbal cues, asks for clarification when needed, and sets positive tone of discussion)

Asks for and listens to my ideas and solutions

Uses e-mail effectively to send information updates to the work group

Uses available information technology tools effectively

Uses and runs teleconference calls effectively (e.g., sets objectives and format, encourages participation)

Encourages me to use available information technology tools effectively

Sets expectations about the frequency, method, and subjects of communication between the two of us

Keeps an accessible schedule so that people know where to locate him/her

Communicates goals and sets priorities with me

Is available for consultation and advice

Supports and promotes social activities and team building activities

Supports my information technology needs with equipment, financial support, and training

Assesses my performance based on the results I achieve rather than how I spent my time

The attention paid to the suggestions you make

Satisfaction with Other Job Factors

The physical work conditions

Your rate of pay

Your hours of work

The amount of variety in your job

Your job security

Ability to Cope

I frequently don't know how to handle problems that occur in my job.*

I often find that I cannot figure out what should be done to accomplish my work.*

I am frequently confused about what I have to do on my job.*

I am frequently unsure about how to do my work.*

(Staples et al., 1999, p.773)

how I spent my time

Computer Anxiety

I feel apprehensive about using computers.

It scares me to think that I could cause the computer to destroy a large amount of information by hitting the wrong key.

I hesitate to use a computer for fear of making mistakes that I cannot correct.

Computers are somewhat intimidating to me.

Physical Conditions

It is easy to get distracted in my primary office.

It is noisy in my primary office.

Items Used to Create the Remote Work Self-Efficacy Measure

To aid in performing my job, I could:

Set objectives that align with the organization's goals

Prioritize tasks to use my time effectively

Complete my daily priority tasks

Get a response from my manager for a request for advice or help within the same day

Get a response from my manager for a request for advice or help within two to three days

Locate my manager and contact him/her immediately

Set objectives that align with my manager's goals

Know which of my coworkers to go to for specific information

Access appropriate support staff readily

Learn how to use a computer when I am provided with written instructional material

Learn a new software package when I am provided with written instructional material

Learn a new software package when an instructor is present to guide me

Use a fax machine to send documents

Organize my office equipment, desk, and papers effectively

Set up a filing system to organize work documents

Access information needed to perform my job in an efficient manner

Satisfaction with Management

The recognition you get for good work

Your immediate boss

Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm

The way you are managed

Overall Productivity

I believe I am an effective employee.

Among my work group, I would rate my performance in the top quarter.

I am happy with the quality of my work output.

I work very efficiently.

I am a highly productive employee.

My manager believes I am an efficient worker.

Remote Work Effectiveness

Working remotely is not a productive way to work.*

It is difficult to do the job being remotely managed.*

Working remotely is an efficient way to work.

Working remotely is an effective way to work.

Organizational Commitment

I find that my values and the organization's are similar.

I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

My organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

Job Stress

I work under a great deal of tension.

I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.

If I had a different job, my health would probably improve.

Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night.

I often "take my job home with me" in the sense that I think about it when doing other things.

Note: * after the item label designates reverse coding.

Endnotes

[1] Attempts were made to measure and include the social persuasion construct in our research model. However, these attempts were not successful, and the social persuasion construct is consequently not discussed further in this paper.

[2] We originally attempted to also include a construct dealing with coworkers' modelling activities. However, this attempt was not successful, perhaps because, as one reviewer suggested, the geographically dispersed working relationships found in virtual organizations limit employees' opportunities to observe such activities. Thus, the Modelling by Others construct is not discussed further in this paper.

(Staples et al., 1999, p.774)

Note: These questionnaires were sourced from Staples et al.'s (1999) article "A Self-Efficacy Theory Explanation for the Management of Remote Workers in Virtual Organizations." I acknowledge that I have no ownership of the items and their inclusion are justified as they need to be referenced for the purpose of study replication.

Appendix E: Questionnaire Draft for Proposed Study

Questionnaire Draft		
N	**Question**	**Construct Measure**
D1	*What is your age?*	Demographic
Please enter the number in the following box [____]		
D2	*What is your gender?*	Demographic
☐Male ☐Female ☐Other _____ ☐Prefer not to say		
D3	*What industry are you employed in?*	Demographic
☐ Computer & Technology ☐Pharmaceutical ☐Transportation ☐Telecommunications ☐Manufacturing ☐Mining ☐Hospitality ☐Finance & Economics ☐ Media ☐Education ☐Healthcare ☐Agriculture ☐Other ☐Prefer not to say		
D4	*What is your highest level of education completed?*	Demographic
☐ High School ☐College (Cégep) ☐Trade School ☐Bachelor ☐Master ☐PhD ☐Prefer not to say		
D5	*How many years have you been working at your job?*	Demographic
Please enter the number in the following box [____]		
D6	*How many hours are you scheduled to work per week?*	Demographic
Please enter the number in the following box [____]		
D7	*How many hours do you actually work per week?*	Demographic
Please enter the number in the following box [____]		
D8	*What is your annual salary?*	Demographic
☐$0-9,999 ☐$10,000-24,999 ☐$25,000-49,999 ☐$50,000-74,999 ☐$75,000-99,999 ☐$100,000-124,999 ☐$125,000-149,999 ☐$150,000 and greater ☐Prefer not to say		
RI1	*What percent of your job is currently performed away from your workplace?*	Remote Work Intensity (Kossek et al., 2006)
Please enter a numerical value in the following box [____]		
RI2	*How many hours do you work from home?*	Remote Work Intensity (Gajendran et al., 2024)
Please enter the number in the following box [____]		
RI3	*If the percent of the job performed away from the workplace varies week by week or is inconsistent, please provide a brief explanation of when and why your schedule is inconsistent.*	Remote Work Intensity
Please enter a response in the following box [____]		
I1	Do you work in an industry related to technology?	Industry
☐Yes ☐ No		

Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your IT experience.		
ITET1	*I am experienced at using my organization's e-mail system.*	IT Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
ITET2	*I am experienced at using my organization's electronic collaborative (group support) system.*	IT Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
ITET3	*I am experienced at using my organization's videoconferencing system.*	IT Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
ITET4	*I received adequate training to use my e-mail system.*	IT Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
ITET5	*I received adequate training to use my organization's electronic collaborative (group support) system.*	IT Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
ITET6	*I received adequate training to use my organization's videoconferencing system.*	IT Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding the training you received for working remotely.		
RWET1	*I have been trained by my manager to work remotely.*	Remote Work Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
RWET2	*I am trained to work remotely from my manager.*	Remote Work Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
RWET3	*I have had some training on how to work remotely effectively.*	Remote Work Experience & Training (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your anxiety when using a computer.		
CA1	*I feel apprehensive about using computers.*	Computer Anxiety

		(Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987; Compeau, 1992)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
CA2	*It scares me to think that I could cause the computer to destroy a large amount of information by hitting the wrong key.*	Computer Anxiety (Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987; Compeau, 1992)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
CA3	*I hesitate to use a computer for fear of making mistakes that I cannot correct.*	Computer Anxiety (Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987; Compeau, 1992)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
CA4	*Computers are somewhat intimidating to me.*	Computer Anxiety (Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987; Compeau, 1992)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your office.		
PC1	*It is easy to get distracted in my primary office.*	Physical Conditions (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
PC2	*It is noisy in my primary office.*	Physical Conditions (Staples et al.,1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your manager.		
MBPM1	*Runs meetings effectively (e.g. sets agendas, publishes minutes, designates a chairperson).*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM2	*Has good communication skills (e.g., a good listener, picks up on nonverbal cues, asks for clarification when needed, and sets positive tone of discussion).*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM3	*Asks for and listens to my ideas and solutions.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		

MBPM4	*Uses e-mail effectively to send information updates to the workgroup.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM5	*Uses available information technology tools effectively.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM6	*Uses and runs online meetings effectively (e.g., sets objectives and format, encourages participation).*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM7	*Encourages me to use available information technology tools effectively.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM8	*Sets expectations about the frequency, method, and subjects of communication between the two of us.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM9	*Keeps an accessible schedule so that people know where to locate them.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM10	*Communicates goals and sets priorities with me.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM11	*Is available for consultation and advice.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM12	*Supports and promotes social activities and team building activities.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM13	*Supports my information technology needs with equipment, financial support, and training.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)

[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
MBPM14	*Assesses my performance based on the results I achieve rather than how I spent my time.*	Modelling Best Practices by Manager (Staples, 1996)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Answer the following statements based on whether you are capable of accomplishing the task by rating your confidence in succeeding on a scale of 0 to 10. To aid in performing my job, I could:		
RWSE1	*Set objectives that align with the organization's goals.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE2	*Prioritize tasks to use my time effectively.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE3	*Complete my daily priority tasks.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE4	*Get a response from my manager for a request for advice or help within the same day.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE5	*Get a response from my manager for a request for advice or help within two to three days.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE6	*Locate my manager and contact them immediately.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE7	*Set objectives that align with my manager's goals.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE8	*Know which of my coworkers to go to for specific information.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE9	*Access appropriate support staff readily.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE10	*Learn how to use a computer when I am provided with written instructional material.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		

RWSE11	*Learn a new software package when I am provided with written instructional material.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE12	*Learn a new software package when an instructor is present to guide me.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE13	*Use appropriate software or hardware to submit documents.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE14	*Organize my home office equipment, desk, and papers effectively.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE15	*Set up a filing system to organize work documents.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
RWSE16	*Access information needed to perform my job in an efficient manner.*	Remote Work Self-Efficacy (Staples, 1996)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
Answer the following statements based on whether you are capable of accomplishing the task by rating your confidence in succeeding on a scale of 0 to 10.		
GCSE1	*I believe I have the ability to describe how a computer works.*	General Computer Self-Efficacy (Marakas et al., 2007)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
GCSE2	*I believe I have the ability to install new software applications on a computer.*	General Computer Self-Efficacy (Marakas et al., 2007)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
GCSE3	*I believe I have the ability to identify and correct common operational problems with a computer.*	General Computer Self-Efficacy (Marakas et al., 2007)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
GCSE4	*I believe I have the ability to unpack and set up a new computer.*	General Computer Self-Efficacy (Marakas et al., 2007)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
GCSE5	*I believe I have the ability to remove information from a computer that I no longer need.*	General Computer Self-Efficacy (Marakas et al., 2007)

☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
GCSE6	*I believe I have the ability to use a computer to display or present information in a desired manner.*	General Computer Self-Efficacy (Marakas et al., 2007)
☐ 0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ☐8 ☐9 ☐10		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding the stress you may experience from work.		
JS1	*I work under a great deal of tension.*	Job Stress (Rizzo et al., 1970)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Somewhat Disagree [4] Neither Agree nor Disagree [5] Somewhat Agree [6] Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
JS2	*I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.*	Job Stress (Rizzo et al., 1970)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Somewhat Disagree [4] Neither Agree nor Disagree [5] Somewhat Agree [6] Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
JS3	*If I had a different job, my health would probably improve.*	Job Stress (Rizzo et al., 1970)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Somewhat Disagree [4] Neither Agree nor Disagree [5] Somewhat Agree [6] Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
JS4	*Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night.*	Job Stress (Rizzo et al., 1970)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Somewhat Disagree [4] Neither Agree nor Disagree [5] Somewhat Agree [6] Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
JS5	*I often "take my job home with me" in the sense that I think about it when doing other things.*	Job Stress (Rizzo et al., 1970)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Somewhat Disagree [4] Neither Agree nor Disagree [5] Somewhat Agree [6] Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your ability to cope.		
ATC1	*I frequently don't know how to handle problems that occur in my job.* (R)	Ability to Cope (House et al.,1983)
[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
ATC2	*I often find that I cannot figure out what should be done to accomplish my work.* (R)	Ability to Cope (House et al.,1983)
[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
ATC3	*I am frequently confused about what I have to do on my job.* (R)	Ability to Cope (House et al.,1983)

[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
ATC4	*I am frequently unsure about how to do my work.* (R)	Ability to Cope (House et al.,1983)
[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your commitment to your organization.		
AC1	*I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.*	Affective Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Moderately Disagree [3] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [5] Slightly Agree [6] Moderately Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
AC2	*I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.*	Affective Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Moderately Disagree [3] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [5] Slightly Agree [6] Moderately Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
AC3	*I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.* (R)	Affective Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)
[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
AC4	*I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.* (R)	Affective Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)
[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
AC5	*I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.* (R)	Affective Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)
[7] Strongly Disagree [6] Moderately Disagree [5] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [3] Slightly Agree [2] Moderately Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
AC6	*This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.*	Affective Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Moderately Disagree [3] Slightly Disagree [4] Neither Agree or Disagree [5] Slightly Agree [6] Moderately Agree [7] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your productivity.		
OP1	*I believe I am an effective employee.*	Overall Productivity (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
OP2	*Among my work group, I would rate my performance in the top quarter.*	Overall Productivity (Staples et al., 1999)

[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
OP3	*I am happy with the quality of my work output.*	Overall Productivity (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
OP4	*I work very efficiently.*	Overall Productivity (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
OP5	*I am a highly productive employee.*	Overall Productivity (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
OP6	*My manager believes I am an efficient worker.*	Overall Productivity (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements regarding your efficiency working remotely.		
RWE1	*Working remotely is not a productive way to work.* (R)	Remote Work Effectiveness (Staples et al., 1999)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
RWE2	*It is difficult to do the job being remotely managed.* (R)	Remote Work Effectiveness (Staples et al., 1999)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
RWE3	*Working remotely is an efficient way to work.*	Remote Work Effectiveness (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
RWE4	*Working remotely is an effective way to work.*	Remote Work Effectiveness (Staples et al., 1999)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements about your job.		
JDS1	*Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.*	Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
JDS2	*I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.*	Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
JDS3	*All things considered, I feel good about this job.*	Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)
[1] Strongly Disagree [2] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [4] Agree [5] Strongly Agree		
Please evaluate how much you agree with the following statements		

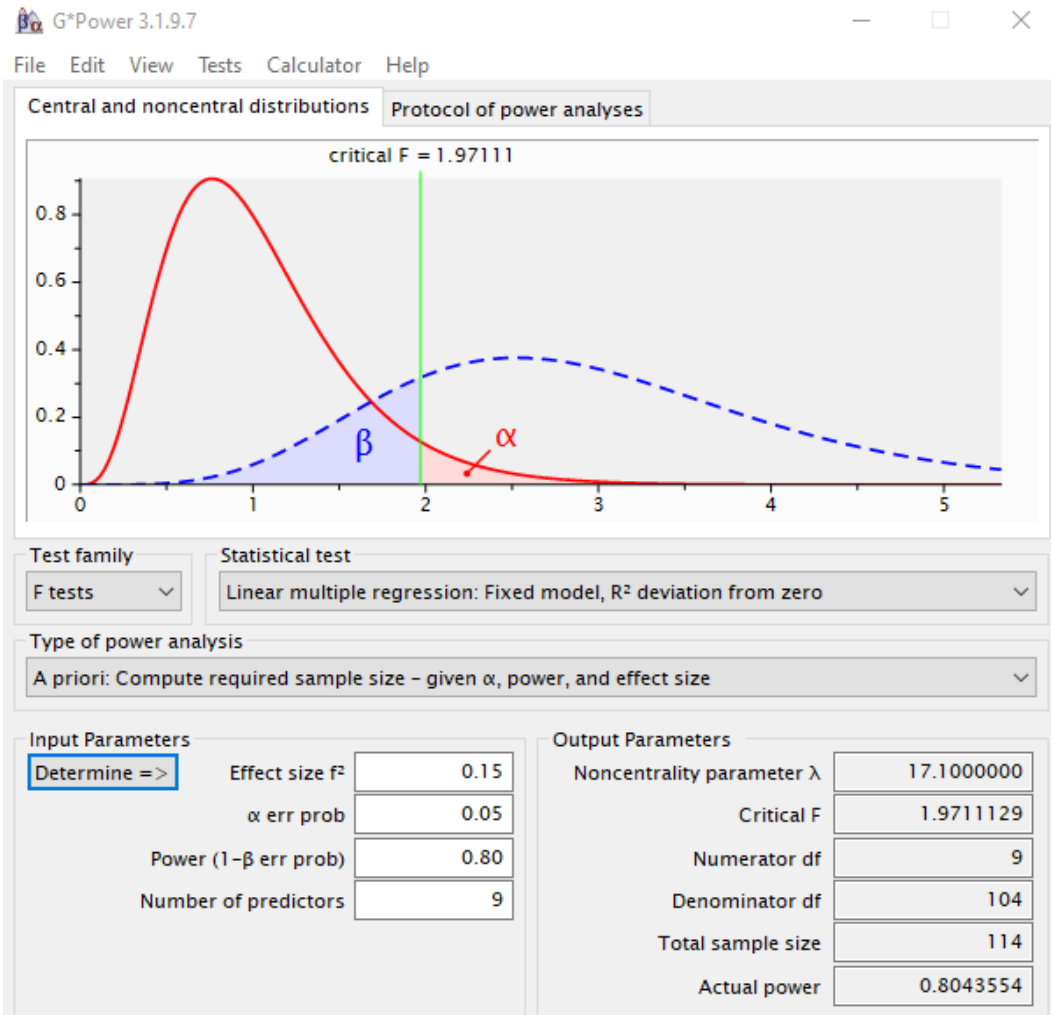
CS1	*I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.*	Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
CS2	*I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.*	Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
CS3	*I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.*	Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
CS4	*I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.*	Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		
CS5	*I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.*	Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
[5] Strongly Disagree [4] Disagree [3] Neither Agree nor Disagree [2] Agree [1] Strongly Agree		

Special Notes:

(1) Any measure that did not define the scale used for their measurement were relegated to a 5-point Likert scale as to limit the amount of effort needed for respondents to answer questions.

(2) All questions with an *(R)* are reverse coded. E.g. On a 5-point Likert scale, strongly agree would be scored a value of 1, while strongly disagree would be scored a value of 5.

Appendix F: Power Analysis Using G*Power Software



(Faul, et al., 2007, 2009).

This figure illustrates the power analysis conducted on G*Power Software. The sample size was calculated to be 114, with a medium effect size (0.15), an alpha of 0.05 (α), power of 0.80, and 8 predictors (7 independent variables and 2 moderating variables).

Appendix G: Table 3 Consolidated

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency Reliabilities, and Pearson Correlations [a]

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. (RWET)	3.56	1.16	(.93)															
2. (MBPM)	4.04	.66	.44**	(.94)														
3. (CA)	1.57	.79	.17**	-.05	(.83)													
4. (ITET)	4.31	.60	.31**	.38**	-.24**	(.84)												
5. (GCSE)	89.13	12.70	.04	.20**	-.43**	.39**	-											
6. (PC)	2.63	1.16	-.24**	-.23**	.03	-.13**	-.05	(.83)										
7. (I)	.75	.43	-.03	.06	.02	.10*	.10*	.00	-									
8. (RWSE)	84.34	11.18	.19**	.49**	-.32**	.43**	.57**	-.16**	.01	-								
9. (RI)	71.03	31.90	-.21**	-.15**	-.21**	.03	.12**	.01	-.03	.03	-							
10. (OP)	4.30	.55	.21**	.28**	-.17**	.35**	.34**	-.24**	.01	.48**	-.13**	(.89)						
11. (RWE)	4.41	.70	.00	.06	-.38**	.26**	.28**	.02	.00	.33**	.29**	.29**	(.82)					
12. (JDS)	4.07	.79	.25**	.59**	-.06	.30**	.21**	-.23**	.06	.41**	-.17**	.42**	.15**	(.89)				
13. (CS)	3.77	.92	.25**	.48**	-.04	.28**	.17**	-.21**	.03	.37**	-.27**	.43**	.05	.70**	(.94)			
14. (ATC)	5.55	1.33	.14**	.27**	-.36**	.21**	.35**	-.19**	-.08	.45**	-.03	.40**	.28**	.33**	.29**	(.93)		
15. (AC)	4.54	1.46	.33**	.56**	-.06	.23**	.12*	-.29**	.05	.34**	-.27**	.30**	.08	.66**	.60**	.30**	(.91)	
16.(JS)	3.79	1.52	-.13**	-.37**	.20**	-.10*	-.17**	.27**	.00	-.29**	.03	-.20**	-.11*	-.43**	-.32**	-.54**	-.34**	(.89)

Note: *$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$ (2-tailed)

[a]Reliability coefficients are represented by the values in parentheses found diagonally in the table.

1. (RWET) = Remote work experience & training, 2. (MBPM) = Modelling best practices by manager, 3. (CA) = Computer Anxiety, 4. (ITET) = IT experience & training, 5. (GCSE) = General computer self-efficacy, 6. (PC) = Physical conditions, 7. (I) = Industry, 8. (RWSE) = Remote work self-efficacy, 9. (RI) = Remote work intensity, 10. (OP) = Overall productivity, 11. (RWE) = Remote work effectiveness, 12. (JDS) = General job satisfaction – Job Diagnostic Survey, 13. (CS) = Career satisfaction, 14. (ATC) = Ability to cope, 15. (AC) = Affective commitment, 16. (JS) = Job stress.

For identifying whether respondents pertain to industries related to technology, a score of zero is attributed to not working in an industry related to technology, and a score of 1 is attributed working in an industry related to technology.

Appendix H: Control Variable Coefficients

Table 13

Pearson Correlations of Demographic Variables and Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Remote work experience & training								
2. Modelling best practices by manager	.44**							
3. Computer anxiety	.17**	-.05						
4. IT experience & training	.31**	.38**	-.24**					
5. General computer self-efficacy	.04	.20**	-.43**	.39**				
6. Physical conditions	-.24**	-.23**	.03	-.13**	-.05			
7. Industry	-.03	.06	.02	.10*	.10*	.00		
8. Remote work self-efficacy	.19**	.49**	-.32**	.43**	.57**	-.16**	.01	
9. Remote work intensity	-.21**	-.15**	-.21**	.03	.12**	.01	-.03	.03
10. Overall productivity	.21**	.28**	-.17**	.35**	.34**	-.24**	.01	.48**
11. Remote work effectiveness	.00	.06	-.38**	.26**	.28**	.02	.00	.33**
12. General Job Satisfaction	.25**	.59**	-.06	.30**	.21**	-.23**	.06	.41**
13. Career satisfaction	.25**	.48**	-.04	.28**	.17**	-.21**	.03	.37**
14. Ability to cope	.14**	.27**	-.36**	.21**	.35**	-.19**	-.08	.45**
15. Affective commitment	.33**	.56**	-.06	.23**	.12*	-.29**	.05	.34**
16. Job stress	-.13**	-.37**	.20**	-.10*	-.17**	.27**	.00	-.29**
17. Age	-.16**	-.02	-.21**	.14**	.09	.00	-.01	.19**
18. Gender	.00	-.03	.07	.02	-.19**	-.02	-.20**	.04
19. Employment industry	.09	-.07	.04	-.09*	-.14**	.03	-.60**	-.06
20. Education level	-.01	.07	.06	.06	.02	-.06	.15**	.05
21. Employment seniority	-.10*	.07	-.14**	.13**	.11*	-.02	.01	.18**
22. Hours scheduled (weekly)	.03	-.02	-.01	.01	.01	.03	.00	-.03
23. Hours worked (weekly)	-.03	-.05	-.12**	.02	.06	-.04	-.03	.06
24. Annual salary	-.10*	.05	-.03	.17**	.03	.01	.21**	.05

Note: $^{*}p < 0.05$. $^{**}p < 0.01$ (2-tailed)

For gender, 0 = Male, 1 = Female, 2 = Other; for employment industry, 1 = Computer & Technology, 2 = Pharmaceutical, 3 = Transportation, 4 = Telecommunications, 5 = Manufacturing, 6 = Mining, 7 = Hospitality, 8 = Finance & Economics, 9 = Media, 10 = Education, 11 = Healthcare, 12 = Agriculture, 13 = Other, 14 = Prefer not to say; for education level: 1 = High School, 2 = College/Cégep, 3 = Trade School, 4 = Bachelor, 5 = Master, 6 = PhD, 7 = Prefer not to say; for annual salary: 1 = $0-$9,999, 2 = $10,000-$24,999, 3 = $25,000-$49,999, 4 =$50,000-$74,999, 5 = $75,000-$99,999, 6 = $100,000-$124,999, 7 = $125,000-$149,999, 8 = $150,000 & Greater, 9 = Prefer not to say

Table 13 (*Continued*)

Pearson Correlations of Demographic Variables and Study Variables

Variables	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Remote work experience & training								
2. Modelling best practices by manager								
3. Computer anxiety								
4. IT experience & training								
5. General computer self-efficacy								
6. Physical conditions								
7. Industry								
8. Remote work self-efficacy								
9. Remote work intensity								
10. Overall productivity	-.13**							
11. Remote work effectiveness	.29**	.29**						
12. General job satisfaction	-.17**	.42**	.15**					
13. Career satisfaction	-.27**	.43**	.05	.70**				
14. Ability to cope	-.03	.40**	.28**	.33**	.29**			
15. Affective commitment	-.27**	.30**	.08	.66**	.60**	.30**		
16. Job stress	.03	-.20**	-.11*	-.43**	-.32**	-.54**	-.34**	
17. Age	.15**	.06	.21**	.04	.01	.12*	.08	.01
18. Gender	.08	.02	.07	-.04	-.08	-.04	-.10*	.08
19. Employment industry	-.12*	.01	-.04	-.01	-.03	.00	-.04	.04
20. Education level	-.19**	.05	-.09*	.12*	.20**	.04	.17**	-.02
21. Employment seniority	.00	.13**	.02	.06	.12*	.16**	.19**	-.07
22. Hours scheduled (weekly)	-.04	.05	-.01	.03	.02	.00	.04	.05
23. Hours worked (weekly)	-.05	.07	.10*	.01	.04	.07	.09	.13**
24. Annual salary	-.06	.07	-.03	.13**	.21**	.02	.14**	.04

Note: $^{*}p < 0.05$. $^{**}p < 0.01$ (2-tailed)

For gender, 0 = Male, 1 = Female, 2 = Other; for employment industry, 1 = Computer & Technology, 2 = Pharmaceutical, 3 = Transportation, 4 = Telecommunications, 5 = Manufacturing, 6 = Mining, 7 = Hospitality, 8 = Finance & Economics, 9 = Media, 10 = Education, 11 = Healthcare, 12 = Agriculture, 13 = Other, 14 = Prefer not to say; for education level: 1 = High School, 2 = College/Cégep, 3 = Trade School, 4 = Bachelor, 5 = Master, 6 = PhD, 7 = Prefer not to say; for annual salary: 1 = $0-$9,999, 2 = $10,000-$24,999, 3 = $25,000-$49,999, 4 =$50,000-$74,999, 5 = $75,000-$99,999, 6 = $100,000-$124,999, 7 = $125,000-$149,999, 8 = $150,000 & Greater, 9 = Prefer not to say

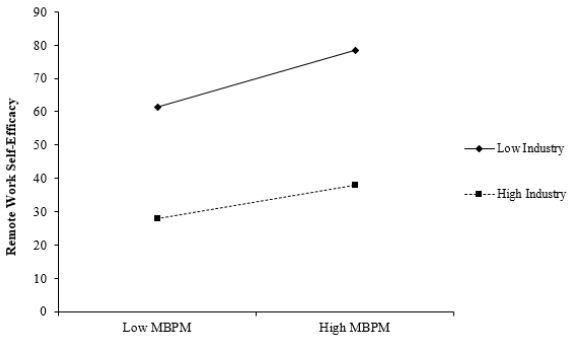
Appendix I: First Stage Moderation Slope Analysis

Slope Analysis of Industry effect on Association between MBPM and RWSE

This worksheet plots two-way interaction effects for unstandardised variables. For further information see www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm.

Enter information from your regression in the shaded cells

Variable names:	
Name of independent variable:	MBPM
Name of moderator:	Industry
Unstandardised Regression Coefficients:	
Independent variable:	8.457
Moderator:	-23.294
Interaction:	-3.462
Intercept / Constant:	36.131
Means / SDs of variables:	
Mean of independent variable:	4.04
SD of independent variable:	0.66
Mean of moderator:	0.75
SD of moderator:	0.43
Values of variables at which to plot slopes*:	
Low value of IV:	3
High value of IV:	5
Low value of moderator:	0
High value of moderator:	1
(If left blank, this will automatically be done at one standard deviation above and below mean)*	
Optional alternative legend:**	
Low value of independent variable:	
High value of independent variable:	
Low value of moderator:	
High value of moderator:	
*(** Leave blank for normal legend)*	



SIMPLE SLOPES ANALYSIS			
Variance of coefficient of IV:	1.673	Gradient of slope for Low Industry	8.457
Variance of coefficient of interaction:	2.303	t-value of slope for Low Industry	6.538
Covariance of coefficients of IV and interaction:	-1.673	p-value of slope for Low Industry	0.000
		Gradient of slope for High Industry	4.995
Sample size:	434	t-value of slope for High Industry	6.293
Number of control variables:	0	p-value of slope for High Industry	0.000

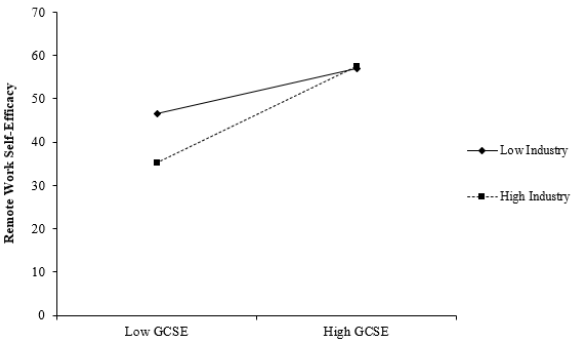
Do not type below this line

Slope Analysis of Industry effect on Association between GCSE and RWSE

This worksheet plots two-way interaction effects for unstandardised variables. For further information see www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm.

Enter information from your regression in the shaded cells

Variable names:	
Name of independent variable:	GCSE
Name of moderator:	Industry
Unstandardised Regression Coefficients:	
Independent variable:	0.209
Moderator:	-23.294
Interaction:	0.236
Intercept / Constant:	36.131
Means / SDs of variables:	
Mean of independent variable:	89.13
SD of independent variable:	12.7
Mean of moderator:	0.75
SD of moderator:	0.43
Values of variables at which to plot slopes*:	
Low value of IV:	50
High value of IV:	100
Low value of moderator:	0
High value of moderator:	1
(If left blank, this will automatically be done at one standard deviation above and below mean)*	
Optional alternative legend:**	
Low value of independent variable:	
High value of independent variable:	
Low value of moderator:	
High value of moderator:	
*(** Leave blank for normal legend)*	



SIMPLE SLOPES ANALYSIS			
Variance of coefficient of IV:	0.004	Gradient of slope for Low Industry	0.209
Variance of coefficient of interaction:	0.006	t-value of slope for Low Industry	3.305
Covariance of coefficients of IV and interaction:	-0.004	p-value of slope for Low Industry	0.001
		Gradient of slope for High Industry	0.445
Sample size:	434	t-value of slope for High Industry	9.951
Number of control variables:	0	p-value of slope for High Industry	0.000

Do not type below this line

Appendix J: SPSS Regression Outputs

1. Model 1: Hypotheses 1 – 6 (RWSE = All IVs)
2. Model 2: Hypothesis 12 (RWSE = All IVs + Industry + All First Stage Interaction Terms)
3. Model 3: (DV 1 = All IVs)
4. Model 4: Hypothesis 7-11 (DV = RWSE)
5. Model 5: (DV 1 = All IVs + RWSE)
6. Model 6: (DV 1 = All IVs + RWSE + RI + Second Stage Interaction Term)

- RWSE: Remote Work Self-Efficacy
- All IVs: Remote Work Experience & Training (RWET), Modelling Best Practices by Manager (MBPM), Computer Anxiety (CA), IT Experience & Training (ITET), General Computer Self-Efficacy (GCSE), & Physical Conditions (PC)
- First Stage Moderator: Industry (I)
- All First Stage Interaction Terms: RWET x Industry, MBPM x Industry, CA x Industry, ITET x Industry, GCSE x Industry, & PC x Industry
- DV: Overall Productivity (OP), Remote Work Effectiveness (RWE), General Job Satisfaction (JDS), Career Satisfaction (CS), Ability to Cope (ATC), Affective Commitment (AC), & Job Stress (JS)
- Second Stage Moderator: Remote Work intensity (RI)
- Second Stage Interaction Term: Remote Work Self-Efficacy x Remote Work Intensity

Model 1 & 2

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	22.827	4.506		5.066	<.001	13.971	31.683
	RWET_Mean	-.165	.396	-.017	-.417	.677	-.944	.614
	MBPM_Mean	5.965	.686	.355	8.697	<.001	4.617	7.314
	CA_Mean	-1.299	.570	-.091	-2.281	.023	-2.419	-.179
	ITET_Mean	2.112	.777	.113	2.716	.007	.584	3.639
	GCSE	.359	.036	.408	9.966	<.001	.289	.430
	PC_Mean	-.410	.348	-.043	-1.178	.239	-1.095	.274
2	(Constant)	36.131	8.640		4.182	<.001	19.147	53.115
	RWET_Mean	-.333	.764	-.035	-.436	.663	-1.836	1.169
	MBPM_Mean	8.457	1.294	.503	6.538	<.001	5.914	10.999
	CA_Mean	-1.535	1.330	-.108	-1.154	.249	-4.150	1.080
	ITET_Mean	.149	1.423	.008	.105	.916	-2.648	2.947
	GCSE	.209	.066	.238	3.146	.002	.078	.340
	PC_Mean	-.274	.709	-.028	-.386	.700	-1.666	1.119
	Industry (I)	-23.294	10.136	-.899	-2.298	.022	-43.217	-3.371
	Mod1_RWET_Industry	.170	.889	.028	.191	.849	-1.578	1.917
	Mod1_MBPM_Industry	-3.462	1.518	-.571	-2.281	.023	-6.445	-.479
	Mod1_CA_Industry	.499	1.468	.044	.340	.734	-2.386	3.384
	Mod1_ITET_Industry	3.200	1.688	.555	1.896	.059	-.118	6.517
	Mod1_GCSE_Industry	.236	.079	.848	2.997	.003	.081	.391
	Mod1_PC_Industry	-.136	.810	-.019	-.168	.866	-1.728	1.455

a. Dependent Variable: RWSE

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.697[a]	.485	.478	8.07542	.485	67.058	6	427	<.001
2	.718[b]	.516	.501	7.89321	.031	3.849	7	420	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, Industry (I), Mod1_PC_Industry, Mod1_CA_Industry, Mod1_RWET_Industry, Mod1_MBPM_Industry, Mod1_GCSE_Industry, Mod1_ITET_Industry

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	26238.254	6	4373.042	67.058	<.001[b]
	Residual	27845.685	427	65.212		
	Total	54083.939	433			
2	Regression	27916.797	13	2147.446	34.468	<.001[c]
	Residual	26167.142	420	62.303		
	Total	54083.939	433			

a. Dependent Variable: RWSE

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, Industry (I), Mod1_PC_Industry, Mod1_CA_Industry, Mod1_RWET_Industry, Mod1_MBPM_Industry, Mod1_GCSE_Industry, Mod1_ITET_Industry

Overall Productivity (OP)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	2.500	.274		9.134	<.001	1.962	3.038
	RWET_Mean	.033	.024	.068	1.355	.176	-.015	.080
	MBPM_Mean	.087	.042	.104	2.077	.038	.005	.168
	CA_Mean	-.022	.035	-.031	-.629	.530	-.090	.046
	ITET_Mean	.158	.047	.170	3.347	<.001	.065	.251
	GCSE	.010	.002	.230	4.579	<.001	.006	.014
	PC_Mean	-.079	.021	-.165	-3.726	<.001	-.120	-.037
5	(Constant)	2.100	.270		7.773	<.001	1.569	2.631
	RWET_Mean	.035	.023	.074	1.538	.125	-.010	.081
	MBPM_Mean	-.018	.043	-.022	-.417	.677	-.103	.067
	CA_Mean	.001	.033	.001	.030	.976	-.065	.067
	ITET_Mean	.121	.046	.130	2.651	.008	.031	.211
	GCSE	.004	.002	.085	1.599	.111	-.001	.008
	PC_Mean	-.072	.020	-.150	-3.527	<.001	-.112	-.032
	RWSE	.018	.003	.354	6.224	<.001	.012	.023
6	(Constant)	2.882	.470		6.127	<.001	1.957	3.806
	RWET_Mean	.024	.023	.050	1.037	.300	-.021	.069
	MBPM_Mean	-.036	.043	-.044	-.843	.400	-.121	.048
	CA_Mean	-.022	.034	-.031	-.652	.515	-.088	.044
	ITET_Mean	.132	.045	.142	2.933	.004	.044	.221
	GCSE	.005	.002	.105	1.977	.049	.000	.009
	PC_Mean	-.073	.020	-.154	-3.664	<.001	-.113	-.034
	RWSE	.011	.006	.220	1.929	.054	.000	.022
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.010	.006	-.594	-1.861	.063	-.021	.001
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	9.046E-5	.000	.463	1.393	.164	.000	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OP_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
3	.477[a]	.228	.217	.49059	.228	20.974	6	427	<.001
5	.540[b]	.292	.280	.47025	.064	38.737	1	426	<.001
6	.563[c]	.316	.302	.46315	.024	7.589	2	424	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	30.288	6	5.048	20.974	<.001[b]
	Residual	102.772	427	.241		
	Total	133.060	433			
5	Regression	38.855	7	5.551	25.100	<.001[c]
	Residual	94.205	426	.221		
	Total	133.060	433			
6	Regression	42.110	9	4.679	21.813	<.001[d]
	Residual	90.950	424	.215		
	Total	133.060	433			

a. Dependent Variable: OP_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.000	-3.781E-5	.000	1.175E-5	-5.167E-7	8.456E-5			
		CA_Mean	-3.781E-5	.001	1.685E-5	.000	2.785E-5	.000			
		MBPM_Mean	.000	1.685E-5	.002	.000	-8.130E-6	.000			
		ITET_Mean	1.175E-5	.000	.000	.002	-2.861E-5	.000			
		GCSE	-5.167E-7	2.785E-5	-8.130E-6	-2.861E-5	4.800E-6	9.371E-7			
		RWET_Mean	8.456E-5	.000	.000	.000	9.371E-7	.001			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.000	-3.050E-5	8.230E-5	3.914E-6	-1.646E-6	7.823E-5	3.260E-6		
		CA_Mean	-3.050E-5	.001	-4.607E-5	.000	2.188E-5	.000	1.032E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	8.230E-5	-4.607E-5	.002	.000	9.556E-6	.000	-4.737E-5		
		ITET_Mean	3.914E-6	.000	.000	.002	-2.026E-5	.000	-1.677E-5		
		GCSE	-1.646E-6	2.188E-5	9.556E-6	-2.026E-5	5.436E-6	3.900E-7	-2.854E-6		
		RWET_Mean	7.823E-5	.000	.000	.000	3.900E-7	.001	1.310E-6		
		RWSE	3.260E-6	1.032E-5	-4.737E-5	-1.677E-5	-2.854E-6	1.310E-6	7.942E-6		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.000	-3.046E-5	8.471E-5	3.506E-6	-1.429E-6	7.788E-5	-6.459E-7	-3.637E-6	4.974E-8
		CA_Mean	-3.046E-5	.001	-2.711E-5	.000	1.895E-5	.000	3.653E-5	3.300E-5	-3.534E-7
		MBPM_Mean	8.471E-5	-2.711E-5	.002	.000	8.982E-6	.000	-5.075E-5	-1.118E-6	5.956E-8
		ITET_Mean	3.506E-6	.000	.000	.002	-1.873E-5	.000	-2.589E-5	-1.259E-5	1.287E-7
		GCSE	-1.429E-6	1.895E-5	8.982E-6	-1.873E-5	5.395E-6	-1.182E-7	-4.395E-6	-1.906E-6	2.157E-8
		RWET_Mean	7.788E-5	.000	.000	.000	-1.182E-7	.001	3.499E-6	4.896E-6	-3.160E-8
		RWSE	-6.459E-7	3.653E-5	-5.075E-5	-2.589E-5	-4.395E-6	3.499E-6	3.188E-5	2.698E-5	-3.193E-7
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-3.637E-6	3.300E-5	-1.118E-6	-1.259E-5	-1.906E-6	4.896E-6	2.698E-5	3.074E-5	-3.569E-7
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	4.974E-8	-3.534E-7	5.956E-8	1.287E-7	2.157E-8	-3.160E-8	-3.193E-7	-3.569E-7	4.218E-9

a. Dependent Variable: OP_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.485[a]	.235	.233	.48542	.235	132.686	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	31.265	1	31.265	132.686	<.001[b]
	Residual	101.794	432	.236		
	Total	133.060	433			

a. Dependent Variable: OP_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients: B	Unstandardized Coefficients: Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients: Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B: Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	2.272	.178		12.792	<.001	1.923	2.621
	RWSE	.024	.002	.485	11.519	<.001	.020	.028

a. Dependent Variable: OP_Mean

Remote Work Effectiveness (RWE)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	3.630	.353		10.274	<.001	2.936	4.325
	RWET_Mean	.021	.031	.035	.671	.503	-.040	.082
	MBPM_Mean	-.039	.054	-.037	-.726	.468	-.145	.067
	CA_Mean	-.280	.045	-.316	-6.271	<.001	-.368	-.192
	ITET_Mean	.181	.061	.155	2.977	.003	.062	.301
	GCSE	.005	.003	.089	1.718	.087	-.001	.010
	PC_Mean	.033	.027	.055	1.215	.225	-.021	.087
5	(Constant)	3.263	.356		9.154	<.001	2.563	3.964
	RWET_Mean	.023	.030	.039	.772	.441	-.036	.083
	MBPM_Mean	-.135	.057	-.129	-2.360	.019	-.247	-.023
	CA_Mean	-.259	.044	-.292	-5.886	<.001	-.346	-.173
	ITET_Mean	.148	.060	.126	2.448	.015	.029	.266
	GCSE	-.001	.003	-.017	-.299	.765	-.007	.005
	PC_Mean	.040	.027	.066	1.484	.139	-.013	.092
	RWSE	.016	.004	.258	4.323	<.001	.009	.023
6	(Constant)	2.137	.612		3.493	<.001	.934	3.340
	RWET_Mean	.044	.030	.074	1.491	.137	-.014	.103
	MBPM_Mean	-.101	.056	-.096	-1.805	.072	-.211	.009
	CA_Mean	-.222	.044	-.250	-5.074	<.001	-.308	-.136
	ITET_Mean	.129	.059	.110	2.194	.029	.013	.244
	GCSE	-.002	.003	-.041	-.740	.460	-.008	.004
	PC_Mean	.044	.026	.073	1.673	.095	-.008	.095
	RWSE	.024	.007	.391	3.314	<.001	.010	.039
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	.015	.007	.665	2.012	.045	.000	.029
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	.000	.000	-.465	-1.349	.178	.000	.000

a. Dependent Variable: RWE_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	Change Statistics F Change	Change Statistics df1	Change Statistics df2	Change Statistics Sig. F Change
3	.429[a]	.184	.173	.63328	.184	16.087	6	427	<.001
5	.468[b]	.219	.206	.62056	.034	18.688	1	426	<.001
6	.517[c]	.267	.251	.60254	.048	13.933	2	424	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	38.709	6	6.451	16.087	<.001[b]
	Residual	171.246	427	.401		
	Total	209.955	433			
5	Regression	45.905	7	6.558	17.029	<.001[c]
	Residual	164.049	426	.385		
	Total	209.955	433			
6	Regression	56.022	9	6.225	17.145	<.001[d]
	Residual	153.933	424	.363		
	Total	209.955	433			

a. Dependent Variable: RWE_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-6.300E-5	.000	1.958E-5	-8.610E-7	.000			
		CA_Mean	-6.300E-5	.002	2.808E-5	.000	4.640E-5	.000			
		MBPM_Mean	.000	2.808E-5	.003	-.001	-1.355E-5	-.001			
		ITET_Mean	1.958E-5	.000	-.001	.004	-4.767E-5	.000			
		GCSE	-8.610E-7	4.640E-5	-1.355E-5	-4.767E-5	7.998E-6	1.561E-6			
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	-.001	.000	1.561E-6	.001			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-5.312E-5	.000	6.815E-6	-2.867E-6	.000	5.677E-6		
		CA_Mean	-5.312E-5	.002	-8.023E-5	.000	3.810E-5	.000	1.797E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	.000	-8.023E-5	.003	-.001	1.664E-5	-.001	-8.250E-5		
		ITET_Mean	6.815E-6	.000	-.001	.004	-3.527E-5	.000	-2.920E-5		
		GCSE	-2.867E-6	3.810E-5	1.664E-5	-3.527E-5	9.466E-6	6.792E-7	-4.970E-6		
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	-.001	.000	6.792E-7	.001	2.282E-6		
		RWSE	5.677E-6	1.797E-5	-8.250E-5	-2.920E-5	-4.970E-6	2.282E-6	1.383E-5		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-5.156E-5	.000	5.935E-6	-2.418E-6	.000	-1.093E-6	-6.155E-6	8.418E-8
		CA_Mean	-5.156E-5	.002	-4.588E-5	.000	3.207E-5	.000	6.183E-5	5.585E-5	-5.981E-7
		MBPM_Mean	.000	-4.588E-5	.003	-.001	1.520E-5	.000	-8.590E-5	-1.893E-6	1.008E-7
		ITET_Mean	5.935E-6	.000	-.001	.003	-3.171E-5	.000	-4.381E-5	-2.131E-5	2.179E-7
		GCSE	-2.418E-6	3.207E-5	1.520E-5	-3.171E-5	9.131E-6	-2.001E-7	-7.439E-6	-3.227E-6	3.651E-8
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	.000	.000	-2.001E-7	.001	5.921E-6	8.286E-6	-5.349E-8
		RWSE	-1.093E-6	6.183E-5	-8.590E-5	-4.381E-5	-7.439E-6	5.921E-6	5.396E-5	4.567E-5	-5.405E-7
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-6.155E-6	5.585E-5	-1.893E-6	-2.131E-5	-3.227E-6	8.286E-6	4.567E-5	5.203E-5	-6.041E-7
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	8.418E-8	-5.981E-7	1.008E-7	2.179E-7	3.651E-8	-5.349E-8	-5.405E-7	-6.041E-7	7.139E-9

a. Dependent Variable: RWE_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.330[a]	.109	.107	.65817	.109	52.677	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	22.819	1	22.819	52.677	<.001[b]
	Residual	187.136	432	.433		
	Total	209.955	433			

a. Dependent Variable: RWE_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	2.675	.241		11.109	<.001	2.202	3.148
	RWSE	.021	.003	.330	7.258	<.001	.015	.026

a. Dependent Variable: RWE_Mean

General Job Satisfaction (JDS)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	.826	.352		2.344	.020	.133	1.519
	RWET_Mean	-.029	.031	-.043	-.931	.353	-.090	.032
	MBPM_Mean	.637	.054	.538	11.866	<.001	.531	.742
	CA_Mean	.036	.045	.036	.818	.414	-.051	.124
	ITET_Mean	.099	.061	.075	1.620	.106	-.021	.218
	GCSE	.005	.003	.085	1.858	.064	.000	.011
	PC_Mean	-.067	.027	-.099	-2.459	.014	-.121	-.013
5	(Constant)	.589	.360		1.635	.103	-.119	1.297
	RWET_Mean	-.027	.031	-.040	-.882	.378	-.088	.033
	MBPM_Mean	.575	.058	.485	9.948	<.001	.461	.688
	CA_Mean	.050	.044	.050	1.123	.262	-.037	.137
	ITET_Mean	.077	.061	.058	1.258	.209	-.043	.196
	GCSE	.002	.003	.024	.484	.629	-.005	.008
	PC_Mean	-.063	.027	-.093	-2.316	.021	-.116	-.009
	RWSE	.010	.004	.148	2.768	.006	.003	.018
6	(Constant)	.456	.632		.722	.471	-.786	1.698
	RWET_Mean	-.038	.031	-.056	-1.230	.219	-.098	.023
	MBPM_Mean	.554	.058	.468	9.580	<.001	.440	.668
	CA_Mean	.040	.045	.040	.883	.378	-.049	.129
	ITET_Mean	.083	.061	.063	1.373	.170	-.036	.202
	GCSE	.002	.003	.025	.505	.614	-.005	.008
	PC_Mean	-.066	.027	-.098	-2.466	.014	-.119	-.013
	RWSE	.016	.008	.222	2.057	.040	.001	.031
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	.003	.007	.116	.386	.700	-.012	.018
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	-6.616E-5	.000	-.239	-.758	.449	.000	.000

a. Dependent Variable: JDS_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	Change Statistics F Change	Change Statistics df1	Change Statistics df2	Change Statistics Sig. F Change
3	.604[a]	.365	.356	.63178	.365	40.894	6	427	<.001
5	.613[b]	.376	.366	.62691	.011	7.659	1	426	.006
6	.623[c]	.388	.375	.62237	.012	4.119	2	424	.017

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	97.936	6	16.323	40.894	<.001[b]
	Residual	170.434	427	.399		
	Total	268.371	433			
5	Regression	100.946	7	14.421	36.693	<.001[c]
	Residual	167.424	426	.393		
	Total	268.371	433			
6	Regression	104.137	9	11.571	29.872	<.001[d]
	Residual	164.234	424	.387		
	Total	268.371	433			

a. Dependent Variable: JDS_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-6.270E-5	.000	1.949E-5	-8.569E-7	.000			
		CA_Mean	-6.270E-5	.002	2.795E-5	.000	4.618E-5	.000			
		MBPM_Mean	.000	2.795E-5	.003	-.001	-1.348E-5	-.001			
		ITET_Mean	1.949E-5	.000	-.001	.004	-4.744E-5	.000			
		GCSE	-8.569E-7	4.618E-5	-1.348E-5	-4.744E-5	7.960E-6	1.554E-6			
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	-.001	.000	1.554E-6	.001			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-5.421E-5	.000	6.956E-6	-2.926E-6	.000	5.793E-6		
		CA_Mean	-5.421E-5	.002	-8.188E-5	.000	3.888E-5	.000	1.834E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	.000	-8.188E-5	.003	-.001	1.698E-5	-.001	-8.419E-5		
		ITET_Mean	6.956E-6	.000	-.001	.004	-3.600E-5	.000	-2.980E-5		
		GCSE	-2.926E-6	3.888E-5	1.698E-5	-3.600E-5	9.660E-6	6.932E-7	-5.072E-6		
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	-.001	.000	6.932E-7	.001	2.329E-6		
		RWSE	5.793E-6	1.834E-5	-8.419E-5	-2.980E-5	-5.072E-6	2.329E-6	1.411E-5		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-5.501E-5	.000	6.332E-6	-2.580E-6	.000	-1.166E-6	-6.567E-6	8.981E-8
		CA_Mean	-5.501E-5	.002	-4.895E-5	.000	3.421E-5	.000	6.597E-5	5.958E-5	-6.381E-7
		MBPM_Mean	.000	-4.895E-5	.003	-.001	1.622E-5	-.001	-9.165E-5	-2.019E-6	1.076E-7
		ITET_Mean	6.332E-6	.000	-.001	.004	-3.383E-5	.000	-4.674E-5	-2.274E-5	2.325E-7
		GCSE	-2.580E-6	3.421E-5	1.622E-5	-3.383E-5	9.742E-6	-2.135E-7	-7.937E-6	-3.442E-6	3.895E-8
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	-.001	.000	-2.135E-7	.001	6.318E-6	8.840E-6	-5.707E-8
		RWSE	-1.166E-6	6.597E-5	-9.165E-5	-4.674E-5	-7.937E-6	6.318E-6	5.757E-5	4.873E-5	-5.766E-7
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-6.567E-6	5.958E-5	-2.019E-6	-2.274E-5	-3.442E-6	8.840E-6	4.873E-5	5.552E-5	-6.446E-7
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	8.981E-8	-6.381E-7	1.076E-7	2.325E-7	3.895E-8	-5.707E-8	-5.766E-7	-6.446E-7	7.617E-9

a. Dependent Variable: JDS_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.414[a]	.172	.170	.71735	.172	89.522	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	46.067	1	46.067	89.522	<.001[b]
	Residual	222.303	432	.515		
	Total	268.371	433			

a. Dependent Variable: JDS_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	1.608	.262		6.126	<.001	1.092	2.123
	RWSE	.029	.003	.414	9.462	<.001	.023	.035

a. Dependent Variable: JDS_Mean

Career Satisfaction (CS)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	.621	.447		1.389	.166	-.258	1.501
	RWET_Mean	.015	.039	.019	.386	.700	-.062	.092
	MBPM_Mean	.560	.068	.404	8.217	<.001	.426	.694
	CA_Mean	.028	.057	.024	.489	.625	-.084	.139
	ITET_Mean	.139	.077	.090	1.797	.073	-.013	.290
	GCSE	.004	.004	.061	1.233	.218	-.003	.011
	PC_Mean	-.078	.035	-.098	-2.244	.025	-.146	-.010
5	(Constant)	.315	.457		.690	.491	-.583	1.214
	RWET_Mean	.017	.039	.022	.445	.656	-.059	.094
	MBPM_Mean	.480	.073	.346	6.543	<.001	.336	.624
	CA_Mean	.045	.056	.038	.799	.425	-.066	.156
	ITET_Mean	.110	.077	.071	1.430	.154	-.041	.262
	GCSE	.000	.004	-.006	-.102	.919	-.008	.007
	PC_Mean	-.072	.034	-.091	-2.098	.036	-.140	-.005
	RWSE	.013	.005	.163	2.814	.005	.004	.023
6	(Constant)	.526	.782		.673	.501	-1.010	2.062
	RWET_Mean	-.010	.038	-.013	-.262	.793	-.085	.065
	MBPM_Mean	.429	.072	.310	6.006	<.001	.289	.570
	CA_Mean	.012	.056	.010	.220	.826	-.097	.122
	ITET_Mean	.130	.075	.084	1.730	.084	-.018	.277
	GCSE	.000	.004	.003	.064	.949	-.007	.008
	PC_Mean	-.080	.033	-.101	-2.407	.017	-.146	-.015
	RWSE	.019	.009	.235	2.063	.040	.001	.038
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.001	.009	-.023	-.072	.943	-.019	.017
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	-7.189E-5	.000	-.221	-.666	.506	.000	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CS_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
3	.504[a]	.254	.243	.80199	.254	24.191	6	427	<.001
5	.517[b]	.267	.255	.79558	.014	7.917	1	426	.005
6	.563[c]	.317	.303	.76969	.050	15.571	2	424	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	93.357	6	15.559	24.191	<.001[b]
	Residual	274.644	427	.643		
	Total	368.001	433			
5	Regression	98.368	7	14.053	22.202	<.001[c]
	Residual	269.633	426	.633		
	Total	368.001	433			
6	Regression	116.816	9	12.980	21.910	<.001[d]
	Residual	251.185	424	.592		
	Total	368.001	433			

a. Dependent Variable: CS_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	.000	.000	3.140E-5	-1.381E-6	.000			
		CA_Mean	.000	.003	4.503E-5	.001	7.442E-5	-.001			
		MBPM_Mean	.000	4.503E-5	.005	-.001	-2.173E-5	-.001			
		ITET_Mean	3.140E-5	.001	-.001	.006	-7.645E-5	-.001			
		GCSE	-1.381E-6	7.442E-5	-2.173E-5	-7.645E-5	1.283E-5	2.504E-6			
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.001	-.001	2.504E-6	.002			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-8.731E-5	.000	1.120E-5	-4.712E-6	.000	9.330E-6		
		CA_Mean	-8.731E-5	.003	.000	.001	6.262E-5	-.001	2.953E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	.000	.000	.005	-.001	2.735E-5	-.001	.000		
		ITET_Mean	1.120E-5	.001	-.001	.006	-5.798E-5	-.001	-4.800E-5		
		GCSE	-4.712E-6	6.262E-5	2.735E-5	-5.798E-5	1.556E-5	1.116E-6	-8.169E-6		
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.001	-.001	1.116E-6	.002	3.751E-6		
		RWSE	9.330E-6	2.953E-5	.000	-4.800E-5	-8.169E-6	3.751E-6	2.273E-5		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.001	-8.413E-5	.000	9.684E-6	-3.946E-6	.000	-1.784E-6	-1.004E-5	1.374E-7
		CA_Mean	-8.413E-5	.003	-7.486E-5	.001	5.233E-5	.000	.000	9.113E-5	-9.760E-7
		MBPM_Mean	.000	-7.486E-5	.005	-.001	2.481E-5	-.001	.000	-3.088E-6	1.645E-7
		ITET_Mean	9.684E-6	.001	-.001	.006	-5.174E-5	-.001	-7.149E-5	-3.477E-5	3.555E-7
		GCSE	-3.946E-6	5.233E-5	2.481E-5	-5.174E-5	1.490E-5	-3.265E-7	-1.214E-5	-5.265E-6	5.957E-8
		RWET_Mean	.000	.000	-.001	-.001	-3.265E-7	.001	9.662E-6	1.352E-5	-8.728E-8
		RWSE	-1.784E-6	.000	.000	-7.149E-5	-1.214E-5	9.662E-6	8.805E-5	7.452E-5	-8.819E-7
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-1.004E-5	9.113E-5	-3.088E-6	-3.477E-5	-5.265E-6	1.352E-5	7.452E-5	8.491E-5	-9.858E-7
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	1.374E-7	-9.760E-7	1.645E-7	3.555E-7	5.957E-8	-8.728E-8	-8.819E-7	-9.858E-7	1.165E-8

a. Dependent Variable: CS_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.365[a]	.133	.131	.85922	.133	66.477	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	49.077	1	49.077	66.477	<.001[b]
	Residual	318.925	432	.738		
	Total	368.001	433			

a. Dependent Variable: CS_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	1.228	.314		3.905	<.001	.610	1.845
	RWSE	.030	.004	.365	8.153	<.001	.023	.037

a. Dependent Variable: CS_Mean

Ability to Cope (ATC)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	3.538	.652		5.428	<.001	2.257	4.819
	RWET_Mean	.110	.057	.096	1.927	.055	-.002	.223
	MBPM_Mean	.340	.099	.169	3.427	<.001	.145	.535
	CA_Mean	-.498	.082	-.293	-6.037	<.001	-.659	-.336
	ITET_Mean	-.098	.112	-.044	-.875	.382	-.319	.123
	GCSE	.020	.005	.192	3.867	<.001	.010	.030
	PC_Mean	-.132	.050	-.115	-2.612	.009	-.231	-.033
5	(Constant)	2.756	.653		4.222	<.001	1.473	4.038
	RWET_Mean	.116	.056	.101	2.082	.038	.007	.226
	MBPM_Mean	.136	.105	.068	1.296	.196	-.070	.341
	CA_Mean	-.453	.081	-.266	-5.617	<.001	-.611	-.294
	ITET_Mean	-.171	.110	-.076	-1.548	.122	-.388	.046
	GCSE	.008	.006	.075	1.395	.164	-.003	.019
	PC_Mean	-.118	.049	-.102	-2.395	.017	-.214	-.021
	RWSE	.034	.007	.287	5.032	<.001	.021	.048
6	(Constant)	2.907	1.152		2.524	.012	.643	5.170
	RWET_Mean	.102	.056	.089	1.823	.069	-.008	.213
	MBPM_Mean	.111	.105	.055	1.050	.294	-.096	.318
	CA_Mean	-.470	.082	-.276	-5.715	<.001	-.632	-.308
	ITET_Mean	-.161	.110	-.072	-1.458	.146	-.378	.056
	GCSE	.008	.006	.078	1.446	.149	-.003	.019
	PC_Mean	-.121	.049	-.106	-2.475	.014	-.218	-.025
	RWSE	.037	.014	.307	2.650	.008	.009	.064
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.001	.014	-.024	-.073	.942	-.028	.026
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	-2.812E-5	.000	-.060	-.177	.860	.000	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ATC_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	Change Statistics: F Change	Change Statistics: df1	Change Statistics: df2	Change Statistics: Sig. F Change
3	.495[a]	.245	.234	1.16805	.245	23.091	6	427	<.001
5	.536[b]	.287	.276	1.13614	.042	25.326	1	426	<.001
6	.542[c]	.293	.278	1.13406	.006	1.781	2	424	.170

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	189.021	6	31.504	23.091	<.001[b]
	Residual	582.576	427	1.364		
	Total	771.597	433			
5	Regression	221.712	7	31.673	24.537	<.001[c]
	Residual	549.885	426	1.291		
	Total	771.597	433			
6	Regression	226.293	9	25.144	19.550	<.001[d]
	Residual	545.305	424	1.286		
	Total	771.597	433			

a. Dependent Variable: ATC_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.003	.000	.001	6.661E-5	-2.929E-6	.000			
		CA_Mean	.000	.007	9.552E-5	.001	.000	-.001			
		MBPM_Mean	.001	9.552E-5	.010	-.002	-4.608E-5	-.002			
		ITET_Mean	6.661E-5	.001	-.002	.013	.000	-.001			
		GCSE	-2.929E-6	.000	-4.608E-5	.000	2.721E-5	5.312E-6			
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.002	-.001	5.312E-6	.003			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.002	.000	.000	2.285E-5	-9.610E-6	.000	1.903E-5		
		CA_Mean	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	-.001	6.023E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	.000	.000	.011	-.002	5.578E-5	-.002	.000		
		ITET_Mean	2.285E-5	.001	-.002	.012	.000	-.001	-9.788E-5		
		GCSE	-9.610E-6	.000	5.578E-5	.000	3.173E-5	2.277E-6	-1.666E-5		
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.002	-.001	2.277E-6	.003	7.649E-6		
		RWSE	1.903E-5	6.023E-5	.000	-9.788E-5	-1.666E-5	7.649E-6	4.636E-5		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.002	.000	.001	2.102E-5	-8.567E-6	.000	-3.873E-6	-2.180E-5	2.982E-7
		CA_Mean	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	-.001	.000	.000	-2.119E-6
		MBPM_Mean	.001	.000	.011	-.002	5.386E-5	-.002	.000	-6.705E-6	3.571E-7
		ITET_Mean	2.102E-5	.001	-.002	.012	.000	-.001	.000	-7.549E-5	7.719E-7
		GCSE	-8.567E-6	.000	5.386E-5	.000	3.235E-5	-7.088E-7	-2.635E-5	-1.143E-5	1.293E-7
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.002	-.001	-7.088E-7	.003	2.098E-5	2.935E-5	-1.895E-7
		RWSE	-3.873E-6	.000	.000	.000	-2.635E-5	2.098E-5	.000	.000	-1.915E-6
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-2.180E-5	.000	-6.705E-6	-7.549E-5	-1.143E-5	2.935E-5	.000	.000	-2.140E-6
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	2.982E-7	-2.119E-6	3.571E-7	7.719E-7	1.293E-7	-1.895E-7	-1.915E-6	-2.140E-6	2.529E-8

a. Dependent Variable: ATC_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.449[a]	.202	.200	1.19405	.202	109.187	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	155.674	1	155.674	109.187	<.001[b]
	Residual	615.924	432	1.426		
	Total	771.597	433			

a. Dependent Variable: ATC_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	1.025	.437		2.347	.019	.166	1.884
	RWSE	.054	.005	.449	10.449	<.001	.044	.064

a. Dependent Variable: ATC_Mean

Affective Commitment (AC)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	.727	.662		1.098	.273	-.574	2.028
	RWET_Mean	.114	.058	.091	1.960	.051	.000	.228
	MBPM_Mean	1.079	.101	.490	10.707	<.001	.881	1.277
	CA_Mean	-.102	.084	-.055	-1.223	.222	-.267	.062
	ITET_Mean	-.028	.114	-.011	-.241	.809	-.252	.197
	GCSE	-.002	.005	-.014	-.310	.756	-.012	.009
	PC_Mean	-.201	.051	-.160	-3.932	<.001	-.302	-.101
5	(Constant)	.426	.680		.627	.531	-.910	1.762
	RWET_Mean	.116	.058	.092	2.003	.046	.002	.230
	MBPM_Mean	1.000	.109	.455	9.175	<.001	.786	1.215
	CA_Mean	-.085	.084	-.046	-1.015	.311	-.250	.080
	ITET_Mean	-.055	.115	-.023	-.482	.630	-.281	.170
	GCSE	-.006	.006	-.055	-1.088	.277	-.018	.005
	PC_Mean	-.196	.051	-.156	-3.831	<.001	-.296	-.095
	RWSE	.013	.007	.101	1.860	.064	-.001	.027
6	(Constant)	-.425	1.162		-.366	.715	-2.709	1.859
	RWET_Mean	.079	.057	.063	1.394	.164	-.032	.190
	MBPM_Mean	.926	.106	.421	8.713	<.001	.717	1.135
	CA_Mean	-.115	.083	-.062	-1.390	.165	-.278	.048
	ITET_Mean	-.034	.111	-.014	-.308	.758	-.253	.185
	GCSE	-.006	.006	-.056	-1.126	.261	-.018	.005
	PC_Mean	-.210	.050	-.166	-4.231	<.001	-.307	-.112
	RWSE	.036	.014	.278	2.610	.009	.009	.064
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	.016	.014	.340	1.139	.255	-.011	.043
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	.000	.000	-.577	-1.853	.065	-.001	.000

a. Dependent Variable: AC_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	Change Statistics: F Change	Change Statistics: df1	Change Statistics: df2	Change Statistics: Sig. F Change
3	.593[a]	.352	.343	1.18646	.352	38.603	6	427	<.001
5	.597[b]	.357	.346	1.18306	.005	3.460	1	426	.064
6	.633[c]	.401	.388	1.14437	.044	15.645	2	424	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	326.042	6	54.340	38.603	<.001[b]
	Residual	601.081	427	1.408		
	Total	927.123	433			
5	Regression	330.885	7	47.269	33.773	<.001[c]
	Residual	596.238	426	1.400		
	Total	927.123	433			
6	Regression	371.861	9	41.318	31.551	<.001[d]
	Residual	555.261	424	1.310		
	Total	927.123	433			

a. Dependent Variable: AC_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.003	.000	.001	6.873E-5	-3.022E-6	.000			
		CA_Mean	.000	.007	9.856E-5	.002	.000	-.001			
		MBPM_Mean	.001	9.856E-5	.010	-.003	-4.755E-5	-.002			
		ITET_Mean	6.873E-5	.002	-.003	.013	.000	-.002			
		GCSE	-3.022E-6	.000	-4.755E-5	.000	2.807E-5	5.481E-6			
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.002	-.002	5.481E-6	.003			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.003	.000	.001	2.477E-5	-1.042E-5	.000	2.063E-5		
		CA_Mean	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	-.001	6.531E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	.001	.000	.012	-.002	6.048E-5	-.002	.000		
		ITET_Mean	2.477E-5	.001	-.002	.013	.000	-.002	.000		
		GCSE	-1.042E-5	.000	6.048E-5	.000	3.440E-5	2.468E-6	-1.806E-5		
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.002	-.002	2.468E-6	.003	8.294E-6		
		RWSE	2.063E-5	6.531E-5	.000	.000	-1.806E-5	8.294E-6	5.026E-5		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.002	.000	.001	2.141E-5	-8.723E-6	.000	-3.943E-6	-2.220E-5	3.036E-7
		CA_Mean	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	-.001	.000	.000	-2.157E-6
		MBPM_Mean	.001	.000	.011	-.002	5.484E-5	-.002	.000	-6.827E-6	3.636E-7
		ITET_Mean	2.141E-5	.001	-.002	.012	.000	-.001	.000	-7.687E-5	7.859E-7
		GCSE	-8.723E-6	.000	5.484E-5	.000	3.294E-5	-7.217E-7	-2.683E-5	-1.164E-5	1.317E-7
		RWET_Mean	.000	-.001	-.002	-.001	-7.217E-7	.003	2.136E-5	2.989E-5	-1.929E-7
		RWSE	-3.943E-6	.000	.000	.000	-2.683E-5	2.136E-5	.000	.000	-1.950E-6
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-2.220E-5	.000	-6.827E-6	-7.687E-5	-1.164E-5	2.989E-5	.000	.000	-2.179E-6
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	3.036E-7	-2.157E-6	3.636E-7	7.859E-7	1.317E-7	-1.929E-7	-1.950E-6	-2.179E-6	2.575E-8

a. Dependent Variable: AC_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.338[a]	.114	.112	1.37889	.114	55.616	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	105.745	1	105.745	55.616	<.001[b]
	Residual	821.378	432	1.901		
	Total	927.123	433			

a. Dependent Variable: AC_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	.809	.504		1.603	.110	-.183	1.800
	RWSE	.044	.006	.338	7.458	<.001	.033	.056

a. Dependent Variable: AC_Mean

Job Stress (JS)

Model 3, 5, & 6

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
3	(Constant)	5.016	.753		6.666	<.001	3.537	6.496
	RWET_Mean	.013	.066	.010	.201	.841	-.117	.143
	MBPM_Mean	-.819	.115	-.359	-7.151	<.001	-1.045	-.594
	CA_Mean	.344	.095	.178	3.612	<.001	.157	.531
	ITET_Mean	.333	.130	.131	2.566	.011	.078	.588
	GCSE	-.007	.006	-.060	-1.192	.234	-.019	.005
	PC_Mean	.266	.058	.204	4.568	<.001	.151	.380
5	(Constant)	5.315	.773		6.873	<.001	3.795	6.836
	RWET_Mean	.011	.066	.009	.168	.866	-.119	.141
	MBPM_Mean	-.741	.124	-.325	-5.974	<.001	-.985	-.497
	CA_Mean	.327	.096	.169	3.419	<.001	.139	.515
	ITET_Mean	.361	.131	.142	2.760	.006	.104	.618
	GCSE	-.002	.007	-.021	-.370	.711	-.016	.011
	PC_Mean	.260	.058	.199	4.477	<.001	.146	.375
	RWSE	-.013	.008	-.096	-1.624	.105	-.029	.003
6	(Constant)	6.816	1.367		4.987	<.001	4.129	9.502
	RWET_Mean	.012	.067	.009	.186	.853	-.119	.143
	MBPM_Mean	-.732	.125	-.321	-5.851	<.001	-.977	-.486
	CA_Mean	.309	.098	.160	3.163	.002	.117	.501
	ITET_Mean	.366	.131	.144	2.798	.005	.109	.624
	GCSE	-.001	.007	-.010	-.181	.857	-.014	.012
	PC_Mean	.264	.058	.203	4.540	<.001	.150	.379
	RWSE	-.033	.016	-.246	-2.037	.042	-.066	-.001
	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.022	.016	-.460	-1.358	.175	-.054	.010
	Mod2_RWSE_RI	.000	.000	.501	1.419	.157	.000	.001

a. Dependent Variable: JS_Mean

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
3	.470[a]	.221	.210	1.34879	.221	20.207	6	427	<.001
5	.475[b]	.226	.213	1.34621	.005	2.636	1	426	.105
6	.479[c]	.230	.213	1.34598	.004	1.074	2	424	.342

a. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3	Regression	220.565	6	36.761	20.207	<.001[b]
	Residual	776.812	427	1.819		
	Total	997.378	433			
5	Regression	225.343	7	32.192	17.763	<.001[c]
	Residual	772.035	426	1.812		
	Total	997.378	433			
6	Regression	229.236	9	25.471	14.059	<.001[d]
	Residual	768.142	424	1.812		
	Total	997.378	433			

a. Dependent Variable: JS_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean

c. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE

d. Predictors: (Constant), PC_Mean, CA_Mean, MBPM_Mean, ITET_Mean, GCSE, RWET_Mean, RWSE, Remote Work Intensity (RI), Mod2_RWSE_RI

Coefficient Correlations[a]

Model			PC_Mean	CA_Mean	MBPM_Mean	ITET_Mean	GCSE	RWET_Mean	RWSE	Remote Work Intensity (RI)	Mod2_RWSE_RI
3	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.052	.126	.012	-.011	.166			
		CA_Mean	-.052	1.000	.012	.157	.367	-.245			
		MBPM_Mean	.126	.012	1.000	-.218	-.089	-.336			
		ITET_Mean	.012	.157	-.218	1.000	-.276	-.227			
		GCSE	-.011	.367	-.089	-.276	1.000	.018			
		RWET_Mean	.166	-.245	-.336	-.227	.018	1.000			
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.003	.000	.001	8.882E-5	-3.906E-6	.001			
		CA_Mean	.000	.009	.000	.002	.000	-.002			
		MBPM_Mean	.001	.000	.013	-.003	-6.145E-5	-.003			
		ITET_Mean	8.882E-5	.002	-.003	.017	.000	-.002			
		GCSE	-3.906E-6	.000	-6.145E-5	.000	3.628E-5	7.083E-6			
		RWET_Mean	.001	-.002	-.003	-.002	7.083E-6	.004			
5	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.093	.004	-.035	.167	.057		
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.032	.141	.281	-.241	.110		
		MBPM_Mean	.093	-.032	1.000	-.149	.095	-.317	-.388		
		ITET_Mean	.004	.141	-.149	1.000	-.190	-.228	-.130		
		GCSE	-.035	.281	.095	-.190	1.000	.007	-.434		
		RWET_Mean	.167	-.241	-.317	-.228	.007	1.000	.020		
		RWSE	.057	.110	-.388	-.130	-.434	.020	1.000		
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.003	.000	.001	3.207E-5	-1.349E-5	.001	2.671E-5		
		CA_Mean	.000	.009	.000	.002	.000	-.002	8.456E-5		
		MBPM_Mean	.001	.000	.015	-.002	7.831E-5	-.003	.000		
		ITET_Mean	3.207E-5	.002	-.002	.017	.000	-.002	.000		
		GCSE	-1.349E-5	.000	7.831E-5	.000	4.455E-5	3.196E-6	-2.339E-5		
		RWET_Mean	.001	-.002	-.003	-.002	3.196E-6	.004	1.074E-5		
		RWSE	2.671E-5	8.456E-5	.000	.000	-2.339E-5	1.074E-5	6.508E-5		
6	Correlations	PC_Mean	1.000	-.045	.098	.004	-.031	.169	-.006	-.033	.038
		CA_Mean	-.045	1.000	-.019	.124	.243	-.214	.193	.177	-.162
		MBPM_Mean	.098	-.019	1.000	-.153	.090	-.296	-.209	-.005	.021
		ITET_Mean	.004	.124	-.153	1.000	-.179	-.233	-.102	-.050	.044
		GCSE	-.031	.243	.090	-.179	1.000	-.002	-.335	-.148	.143
		RWET_Mean	.169	-.214	-.296	-.233	-.002	1.000	.027	.039	-.021
		RWSE	-.006	.193	-.209	-.102	-.335	.027	1.000	.862	-.871
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-.033	.177	-.005	-.050	-.148	.039	.862	1.000	-.991
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	.038	-.162	.021	.044	.143	-.021	-.871	-.991	1.000
	Covariances	PC_Mean	.003	.000	.001	2.962E-5	-1.207E-5	.001	-5.455E-6	-3.071E-5	4.201E-7
		CA_Mean	.000	.010	.000	.002	.000	-.001	.000	.000	-2.985E-6
		MBPM_Mean	.001	.000	.016	-.003	7.586E-5	-.002	.000	-9.445E-6	5.031E-7
		ITET_Mean	2.962E-5	.002	-.003	.017	.000	-.002	.000	.000	1.087E-6
		GCSE	-1.207E-5	.000	7.586E-5	.000	4.557E-5	-9.984E-7	-3.712E-5	-1.610E-5	1.822E-7
		RWET_Mean	.001	-.001	-.002	-.002	-9.984E-7	.004	2.955E-5	4.135E-5	-2.669E-7
		RWSE	-5.455E-6	.000	.000	.000	-3.712E-5	2.955E-5	.000	.000	-2.697E-6
		Remote Work Intensity (RI)	-3.071E-5	.000	-9.445E-6	.000	-1.610E-5	4.135E-5	.000	.000	-3.015E-6
		Mod2_RWSE_RI	4.201E-7	-2.985E-6	5.031E-7	1.087E-6	1.822E-7	-2.669E-7	-2.697E-6	-3.015E-6	3.562E-8

a. Dependent Variable: JS_Mean

Model 4

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
4	.290[a]	.084	.082	1.45439	.084	39.520	1	432	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
4	Regression	83.594	1	83.594	39.520	<.001[b]
	Residual	913.783	432	2.115		
	Total	997.378	433			

a. Dependent Variable: JS_Mean

b. Predictors: (Constant), RWSE

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	7.104	.532		13.352	<.001	6.058	8.150
	RWSE	-.039	.006	-.290	-6.286	<.001	-.052	-.027

a. Dependent Variable: JS_Mean