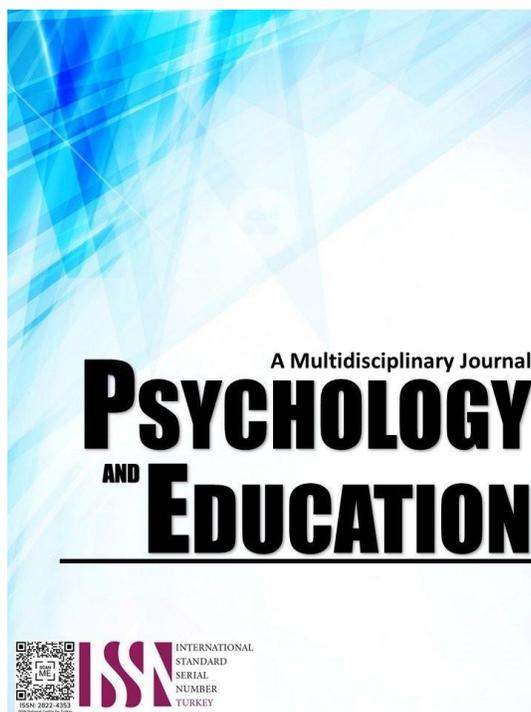


EXPLORING WORK FLEXIBILITY, e-WORK SELF-EFFICACY, WELL-BEING, AND INDIVIDUAL WORK PERFORMANCE OF REMOTE EMPLOYEES: A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL



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Exploring Work Flexibility, e-Work Self-Efficacy, Well-Being, and Individual Work Performance of Remote Employees: A Structural Equation Model

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Abstract

The rapid expansion of the digital workforce necessitates a deeper understanding of the psychological and structural factors influencing remote worker productivity. This study aimed to develop a best-fitting structural equation model depicting the interrelationships among work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance. Employing a quantitative descriptive-causal research design, data were collected from remote employees across the Davao Region in the Philippines, selected through cluster sampling. Descriptive results revealed that respondents possessed high levels of e-work self-efficacy and well-being, while demonstrating moderate levels of work flexibility and individual work performance. Correlation and regression analyses indicated that work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy are significant positive predictors of individual work performance. In contrast, well-being did not exert a significant direct influence on performance output. The structural equation modeling analysis established a best-fit model, identifying e-work self-efficacy as the most potent determinant, exerting both direct effects on performance and flexibility, and indirect effects on counterproductive work behaviors. The study concludes that sustaining optimal performance in remote environments relies heavily on balancing organizational flexibility with employees' digital self-regulatory capabilities.

Keywords: *work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, individual work performance, structural equation modeling, Philippines*

Introduction

As remote work continues to grow globally, measuring and sustaining employee performance has become a pressing concern. Individual Work Performance (IWP) refers to employees' ability to execute assigned tasks efficiently, contribute positively to the organizational environment, and avoid counterproductive work behaviors (Koopmans et al., 2013). In remote settings, where direct supervision is limited and work-life boundaries are often blurred, these dimensions of performance are particularly vulnerable. Establishing a clear understanding of IWP is essential to ensure that organizations maintain productivity, employee engagement, and overall work quality in digital environments.

Recent studies indicate that remote employees frequently experience fluctuations in productivity, delays in task completion, and reduced participation due to fatigue, technological challenges, and household distractions (Mihalca et al., 2021; Tsang et al., 2023). In the Philippines, these challenges are compounded by multi-generational households, limited workspace, unstable internet connectivity, and insufficient organizational support, leading to declines in performance among remote educators, BPO employees, and administrative staff (Cahapay, 2021; Parilla et al., 2020). While some employees benefit from the autonomy and flexibility of remote work, others face heightened stress and exhaustion that directly impair their ability to meet performance expectations (Prasetyo & Ramos, 2020).

Several factors influence IWP in remote work settings. Work flexibility can improve performance by allowing autonomy and better time management, but it may also create blurred boundaries and role overload, which reduce productivity. E-work self-efficacy, or an employee's confidence in managing digital tools and remote tasks, has been consistently linked to higher adaptive performance and reduced stress. Conversely, well-being, particularly fatigue and stress, negatively affects concentration, motivation, and task completion (Sharma, 2024; Mihalca et al., 2021). These predictors interact in complex ways to shape overall individual work performance.

Despite extensive research on flexibility, self-efficacy, and well-being, few studies have integrated these factors into a single explanatory model of IWP. Existing research often examines each predictor separately, producing fragmented insights into how remote work conditions collectively influence performance. This highlights a theoretical and practical gap: there is limited understanding of how psychological and structural variables operate together to impact IWP among Filipino remote employees.

Given the increasing prevalence of remote work in the Philippines and emerging evidence of performance inconsistencies, it is crucial to develop a comprehensive model that explains how work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and well-being interact to influence productivity and behavioral outcomes. Understanding these dynamics will guide organizations in designing interventions and policies that support sustainable performance in remote and hybrid work environments.

Research Questions

This research addressed the following inquiries:

1. What is the level of work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance among remote

employees?

2. Is there a significant relationship between work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and well-being, and individual work performance?
3. Do work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and well-being significantly influence individual work performance?
4. What structural model best fits the individual work performance of remote employees?

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a quantitative, descriptive-correlational research design. Quantitative research is appropriate for testing objective theories and examining relationships among measurable variables through numerical data (Mohajan, 2020; Neuman, 2014). The design allows for the systematic analysis of the interrelationships among work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance.

To examine these relationships, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed. SEM is particularly suitable because it allows for the simultaneous estimation of multiple dependent and independent relationships, accounts for measurement errors, and can test latent constructs derived from validated instruments—advantages that standard multiple regression cannot provide (Hair et al., 2020). A path model illustrating hypothesized relationships among variables was developed, with diagrams included to represent the proposed interactions visually. The study used a cross-sectional survey, capturing data from remote employees at a single point in time.

Respondents

The respondents of this study were 402 remote employees currently engaged in full-time remote work across various industries in the Davao Region (Region XI), Philippines, including IT, BPO, education, marketing, and freelancing. To ensure relevant experience, participants were required to have at least three months of continuous remote work experience, while employees in hybrid or on-site arrangements were excluded. The study employed cluster sampling, with each province and Davao City considered a cluster, and participants were randomly selected within these clusters to ensure geographic and industry representation. Cluster Sampling is one type of Probability Sampling that includes "selecting groups or clusters instead of individual subjects and collecting data on all subjects within each of the selected clusters." (Creswell, 2012, p. 146). By randomly selecting entire clusters (i.e., specific barangays, municipalities, or remote working organizations within each province), the researchers were able to collect data from geographically dispersed remote workers.

Sample allocation was determined using the Labor Force Participation Rate (LFPR) 2023, producing a proportionate distribution across the region: Davao Occidental (70), Davao Oriental (65), Davao del Sur (64), Davao City (61), Davao de Oro (61), and Davao del Norte (59). This approach ensured equitable representation of remote workers across the region, capturing diverse experiences while maintaining statistical rigor. Proportional allocation provided a fair representation of the relative contributions of each geographic area to the total number of people actively employed in the workforce in the region. The researchers first calculated the total LFPR of the region by adding together the LFPR of each province and city in the region until they totaled 393.0. The researchers then determined the proportion of each province to the total LFPR by dividing the LFPR of each province by the total LFPR. An example of the calculation of the proportion of each province would be the calculation of Davao Occidental's proportion, which was determined by dividing Davao Occidental's LFPR of 71.9 by the total LFPR of 393.0 or .1829.

The proportion of each area was then multiplied by the total number of respondents selected for the study of 400 to determine the approximate number of participants to be selected from each area to produce an estimated 73.16, which was then rounded to 70. A similar calculation was done for the remaining provinces and cities of the region; minor adjustments were made to the rounded numbers to allow the total number of participants selected for the study to remain at 400.

Participants were allowed to volunteer to participate. Consent forms were completed prior to receiving any data from participants. Data collected from participants was maintained in confidentiality through anonymous data collection. Participants were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty. These ethical precautions provided a clear path to provide transparency and respect participants' autonomy while also maintaining ethically responsible practices during the research process.

Instrument

Four adapted and modified survey questionnaires will be used: the Work-Life Balance Scale (WLBS), the e-Work Self-Efficacy Scale, the PERMA Model Well-Being Scale, and the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ).

A pilot test was conducted to assess the internal consistency of the study instruments. Reliability analyses using Cronbach's alpha (α) indicated strong to excellent internal consistency across all scales. The Work-Life Balance Scale (WLBS) demonstrated good reliability with $\alpha = 0.829$ (95% CI [0.749, 0.909]). Items V4, V5, V6, and V7 were negatively correlated with the total scale, indicating the need for reverse-coding, while items V12, V13, and V15 were identified as potentially removable to improve reliability slightly ($\alpha \approx 0.857$). The e-Work Self-Efficacy Scale showed excellent reliability, $\alpha = 0.929$ (95% CI [0.866, 0.992]), with all items contributing positively to the scale. The PERMA Model Well-Being Scale also exhibited very high reliability, $\alpha = 0.957$ (95% CI [0.920, 0.994]),

with item-level α if deleted values ranging from 0.951 to 0.964, indicating consistently strong contributions from all items. Finally, the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) demonstrated good reliability, $\alpha = 0.896$ (95% CI [0.810, 0.981]). Items V7_56, V8_57, V9_58, and V10_59 were negatively correlated and required reverse-coding, while α if deleted values ranged from 0.880 to 0.907, indicating satisfactory item-level reliability. Overall, these results suggest that the instruments possess strong to excellent internal consistency, with only minor adjustments needed for negatively worded items before administration in the main study.

The Work-Life Balance Scale (WLBS), developed by Hayman (2005) and adapted from the earlier work by McAuley et al. (2003), was a validated instrument designed to assess individuals' perceptions of their work-life balance. This scale consisted of 15 items, divided into three key indicators: Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL), Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW), and Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE). These dimensions collectively captured both the negative and positive interactions between work and personal life domains.

The WLBS was answered using a Likert scale, typically ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) or from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always), depending on the specific adaptation. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with or experienced each item. The scale was designed to be self-administered and took only a few minutes to complete.

The internal consistency of the scale was high, with an overall Cronbach's alpha of 0.88. The reliability for the individual subscales was as follows: Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL) = 0.88, Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW) = 0.75, and Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE) = 0.77. Overall, this instrument measured the degree to which work and personal life interacted in either a conflicting or enriching manner, making it a comprehensive tool for evaluating work-life balance in organizational and research settings. Respondents rated their experiences based on the following scale: 1 (Strongly Disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Neither Agree Nor Disagree), 4 (Agree), and 5 (Strongly Agree).

The study utilized the e-Work Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Tramontano, Grant, and Clarke (2021). This validated 12-item instrument was designed to measure employees' digital competencies and their ability to effectively manage work tasks, interpersonal relationships, and personal well-being while working remotely. The scale captured key aspects of remote work self-efficacy, providing insights into how individuals navigated the challenges of digital work environments.

The instrument was structured around a robust five-factor model, confirmed through factor analysis, demonstrating strong construct validity and reliability. These five dimensions included e-skills, trust building, self-care, remote social efficacy, and remote self-efficacy. Each domain demonstrated acceptable to excellent internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients reported as follows: 0.93 for e-skills, 0.79 for trust building, 0.72 for self-care, 0.82 for remote social efficacy, and 0.80 for remote self-efficacy. Additionally, a general factor yielded a reliability score of 0.92, indicating high overall internal consistency of the scale.

Participants responded to each item using a 5-point Likert scale, which typically ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), allowing the measurement of perceived self-efficacy in relation to remote work experiences. The items were grouped according to their respective domains, enabling targeted analyses of various aspects of e-work self-efficacy. Respondents rated their experiences based on the following scale: 1 (Not at all), 2 (Slightly), 3 (Somewhat), 4 (Very Well), and 5 (Completely).

To generate data on well-being in this study, the PERMA Well-Being Scale developed by Seligman (2012) was used. This scale measured well-being across five core dimensions of positive psychology: Positive Emotion (P), Engagement (E), Relationships (R), Meaning (M), and Accomplishment (A). The instrument consisted of 23 items and was designed to capture both hedonic (pleasure-based) and eudaimonic (meaning-based) aspects of well-being, offering a holistic perspective on human flourishing.

The PERMA scale demonstrated strong psychometric validity and reliability. Internal consistency, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, was reported as 0.91 for Positive Emotion, 0.78 for Relationships, 0.90 for Meaning, 0.84 for Accomplishment, and 0.57 for Engagement. The overall scale exhibited a Cronbach's alpha of 0.85, indicating good internal reliability. Although the Engagement subscale showed a lower reliability score, it still contributed meaningfully to the overall construct.

This scale was used to assess participants' well-being as part of a broader evaluation of psychological and behavioral outcomes. Responses were collected using an 11-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 to 10. The scale included explicit anchors at 0, 5, and 10, with additional descriptive labels provided to guide participants' responses. These labels were tailored to the type of item: frequency items used terms ranging from "never" to "always," quality items used evaluative descriptors from "terrible" to "excellent," and intensity items ranged from "not at all" to "completely." Intermediate points on the scale were also labeled to give participants a clearer sense of gradation, helping ensure more consistent and meaningful responses across items. By providing these structured anchors and descriptors, the scale aimed to improve the accuracy and interpretability of participants' ratings.

To assess individual work performance, the study utilized the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) developed by Koopmans et al. (2013). This 18-item validated instrument was designed to measure individual work performance across a wide range of occupational settings. The IWPQ offered a concise yet comprehensive assessment by encompassing multiple facets of work performance, including employees' task efficiency, interpersonal behavior at work, and contributions to organizational functioning.

The questionnaire evaluated three core dimensions of performance: task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behavior. Originally developed with a four-factor structure in mind, factor analysis revealed a more robust three-factor model,

demonstrating solid construct validity. The instrument also showed high levels of internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha values of 0.82 for task performance, 0.85 for contextual performance, and 0.84 for counterproductive work behavior, indicating strong reliability for each subscale. Respondents rated their experiences based on the following scale: 1 (Seldom), 2 (Sometimes), 3 (Quite Often), 4 (Often), and 5 (Always).

Procedure

Before collecting data, a series of preliminary steps was taken to ensure that the data collection process was systematic, ethically defensible, and congruent with the objectives of the study.

Firstly, a letter was forwarded to the Dean of the UIC Graduate School requesting that she endorse the research paper to the UIC Research Ethics Committee (REC) for evaluation.

The data collection was carried out through an online survey that did not necessitate obtaining approval from employers or organizations. The researcher contacted remote employees working in the Davao Region (Region XI) through professional networks, social media platforms, online forums, and freelance job boards where remote employees were actively engaged.

An invitation for volunteers to participate in the study was published in the pertinent online groups, and emails and/or private messages were sent. The survey commenced with the Informed Consent Form (ICF) embedded in the initial segment of the Google Forms. Prior to viewing/answering the questionnaire items, respondents read the ICF, which detailed the purposes of the study, the obligations of the respondent, the estimated time to complete the survey, the assurances regarding confidentiality, and the voluntary nature of the respondent's involvement. The respondents demonstrated their willingness to volunteer by checking a box labeled "I agree to participate" prior to continuing to the questionnaire.

Respondents agreed to participate in the study voluntarily. They were fully aware that they retained the right to refuse to be involved with the survey at any time prior to completion of it without facing any penalty or experiencing adverse consequences.

Some respondents may have experienced minor discomfort as a result of the length of the survey instrument, requiring considerable time to complete. This concern was minimized by advising all respondents that they could take a break if needed or terminate their involvement if they felt fatigued or uncomfortable.

All data privacy requirements from Republic Act No. 10173 (Data Privacy Act of 2012) were followed. No personally identifiable information was gathered through this study. All responses were completely anonymous, and responses were numbered so there would be no way to associate the responses back to the participant. All data were stored on encrypted and password-protected computers and devices; only the researcher was allowed access to the data.

Only for the purpose of research was the data utilized, and it was not disseminated to any other parties. All data were disposed of at the end of the retention time frame provided by the institution to protect the confidentiality of the data.

To encourage participation from potential participants, follow-up reminders were sent to those who had not responded to the survey. The survey remained available to gather a sufficient number of participants to provide an accurate and representative sample of remote workers.

The researcher ensured that all of the data he/she gathered was handled appropriately (i.e., securely stored and encrypted). All responses remained confidential. Numerical codes were used when analyzing the data to protect the identity of the respondents.

After collecting the data, the researcher compiled and analyzed the data for statistical purposes. A statistician was hired to assist in selecting appropriate statistical methods for analyzing the data. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was chosen to determine if Work Flexibility, Self-Efficacy, and Well-being influenced Job Performance for remote workers. Statistical analyses were performed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient to analyze correlations between variables, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) to evaluate model fit.

The researcher employed the results to draw conclusions and to provide suggestions that would enable organizations and policymakers to formulate better remote work policies and develop methods to enhance the health and productivity of remote workers in virtual workplaces—specifically in the Davao Region (Region XI).

Data Analysis

Several statistical tools will be used to analyze the data.

Mean. It was used to measure the degree of Work Flexibility, Self-Efficacy, Well-being, and Job Performance among the respondents.

Standard Deviation. It was used to measure the consistency and variability of the responses and quantify the extent to which the individual scores varied from the general mean. It was also used to explore the relationships between the multiple variables.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). It was used to assess how Work Flexibility, Self-Efficacy, and Well-being positively and negatively impacted Job Performance. SEM provides a comprehensive analysis of the structural relationships among the variables,

thereby revealing the primary factors influencing Job Performance in remote worker environments.

When conducting SEM, the assumptions underlying multivariate analysis were examined, including linearity, multicollinearity, multivariate normality, and skewness/kurtosis. Additionally, the fit of the model was evaluated using numerous fit indices: chi-square (χ^2), degrees of freedom (df), p-value, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Arbuckle, 2012; Kline, 2016). These tools and indices assisted in establishing whether the proposed model was accurate and valid.

Ethical Considerations

This study was submitted for review and approval by the University of the Immaculate Conception Research Ethics Committee (UIC-REC), reflecting my commitment to ethical research standards and participant protection; the Protocol Code was provided in the pre-final submission. As a qualified researcher, I worked closely with my adviser and panel members to ensure academic rigor, ethical integrity, and sound methodology. I also used institutional resources, including the UIC Library for academic materials, research consultation services, secure data storage, and administrative support, to complete the study effectively.

The study involved formally employed remote workers selected fairly through cluster sampling. To address potential vulnerabilities such as stress or burnout, participants received full information, provided written informed consent, and had the right to withdraw at any time. Data were collected via 25–30 minute questionnaires, with confidentiality safeguarded under the Data Privacy Act of 2012; all responses were anonymized, securely stored, and accessible only to the researcher and authorized personnel.

Results and Discussion

This section presents and discusses the results of data collected through a standardized survey distributed to remote workers across various sectors in the Davao Region. The results were organized around the key variables of the study: work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance. Each section highlighted descriptive statistics, correlations between variables, and key trends, addressing the research objectives and validating the proposed structural equation model.

Level of Work Flexibility, e-Work Self-Efficacy, Well-Being and Individual Work Performance Among Remote Employees

Table 1. *Level of Work Flexibility*

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL)			
As an employee, I believe that...			
1. My personal life suffers because of work.	2.95	1.33	Moderate
2. My job makes my personal life difficult.	2.91	1.37	Moderate
3. I neglect personal needs because of work.	2.92	1.30	Moderate
4. I put my personal life on hold for work.	2.84	1.30	Moderate
5. I miss personal activities because of work.	2.95	1.29	Moderate
6. I struggle to juggle work and non-work.	2.93	1.31	Moderate
7. I am unhappy with the amount of time for non-work activities.	2.93	1.34	Moderate
Category Mean	2.92	1.32	Moderate
Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW)			
As an employee, I believe that...			
8. My personal life drains me of energy for work.	2.85	1.29	Moderate
9. I am too tired to be effective at work.	2.91	1.24	Moderate
10. My work suffers because of my personal life.	2.86	1.29	Moderate
11. It is hard to work because of personal matters.	2.99	1.30	Moderate
Category Mean	2.90	1.28	Moderate
Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE)			
As an employee, I believe that...			
12. My personal life gives me energy for my job.	3.49	1.17	High
13. My job gives me the energy to pursue personal activities.	3.33	1.18	Moderate
14. I have a better mood at work because of my personal life.	3.40	1.21	High
15. I have a better mood because of my job.	3.34	1.22	Moderate
Category Mean	3.39	1.19	Moderate
Overall Mean	3.17	0.67	Moderate

Table 1 presents the mean scores, standard deviations, and interpretive descriptions of work flexibility across the three categories: Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL), Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW), and Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE). The composite average of 3.17 (SD = 0.67) reflects a moderate level of flexibility among remote employees in the Davao Region, which indicates that work-life balance is sometimes observed. This suggests that while remote work offers some autonomy and adaptability, employees still face challenges in achieving an ideal balance between professional and personal demands (Davidescu et al., 2020b). Smit et al. (2023) further emphasized that while work flexibility can support employees in managing responsibilities and

reducing stress. This reflects a balanced yet imperfect integration between professional duties and personal life, indicative of a workforce that has adapted to remote work but continues to encounter structural and psychological challenges. While flexibility enhances autonomy and energy, the persistence of moderate interference from both work and personal domains indicates that boundary management remains an evolving skill among remote employees (Bolliger et al., 2022). The findings imply that organizations should not equate “remote work” with “complete flexibility.” To maximize the benefits of flexible arrangements, institutions may need to establish clearer expectations regarding working hours, workload distribution, and communication norms. Providing employees with training in digital self-management, time allocation, and psychological resilience may further enhance their ability to maintain work–life equilibrium (Mäkelä et al., 2023). The results underscore that work flexibility among remote employees is a dynamic construct, one that simultaneously offers empowerment and introduces new challenges. Its moderate overall level highlights the need for ongoing organizational and individual efforts to foster sustainable, healthy, and productive remote work environments (Bolliger et al., 2022).

Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL). The first dimension, WIPL, obtained a category mean of 2.92 with an SD of 1.32, corresponding to a moderate level, which indicates that work-life balance is sometimes observed. This indicates that while remote work offers flexibility in scheduling and location, the blurring of work–life boundaries remains a prevalent issue (Kerman et al., 2022). These results align with the findings of Hayman (2005), who noted that employees engaged in flexible work arrangements often experience overlap between professional and domestic domains, especially when organizational expectations extend beyond standard working hours. Remote employees may struggle with role spillover, where work-related stress and time demands encroach on personal routines, leading to mild dissatisfaction with non-work time. The moderate ratings imply that although respondents manage their responsibilities adequately, they still face occasional difficulties detaching from work obligations (Ferdous et al., 2021).

Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW). The second dimension, PLIW, registered a category mean of 2.90 (SD = 1.28), also interpreted as moderate, which indicates that work-life balance is sometimes observed. This suggests that while personal matters sometimes interfere with employees’ ability to perform work tasks effectively, such occurrences are not pervasive, indicating occasional instances of physical fatigue stemming from personal obligations (Tsipursky, 2023). This moderate level of interference reflects the dual demands faced by remote workers who operate in the same environment for both personal and professional functions. According to Allen et al. (2021), remote work environments can heighten the potential for domestic distractions and role conflict, particularly for employees without designated workspaces or those managing household responsibilities. Nonetheless, the moderate mean suggests that most respondents have developed adaptive coping mechanisms, such as time management and self-regulation, that help mitigate personal-life disruptions (Mohammed et al., 2022).

Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE). The third dimension, WPLE, obtained the highest category mean of 3.39 (SD = 1.19), interpreted as moderate to high, which indicates that work-life balance is sometimes or oftentimes observed. These findings highlight that many remote employees perceive positive spillover effects between work and non-work domains. Their work experiences and personal well-being appear to complement each other, fostering a sense of satisfaction and balance (Todisco et al., 2023). In the context of remote work, flexible scheduling may enable employees to manage personal tasks better, leading to increased well-being and motivation that positively influence individual work performance (Mäkelä et al., 2023).

Level of e-Work Self-Efficacy

Table 1.1 presents the mean scores, standard deviations, and descriptive interpretations for the respondents’ level of e-work self-efficacy, which encompasses four dimensions: e-skills self-efficacy, trust-building self-efficacy, self-care self-efficacy, and remote social self-efficacy. The data reveal an overall mean of 3.48 (SD = 0.55), interpreted as high, indicating that remote employees in the Davao Region generally perceive themselves as confident and capable of effectively managing the demands of digital and remote work environments (Tramontano et al., 2021).

Table 1.1. *Level of e-work self-efficacy*

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
E-skills Self-Efficacy			
As an employee, I ...			
1. Can manage my time effectively, even while juggling personal and professional commitments.	3.46	1.15	High
2. Organize my activities despite any distractions in my surroundings.	3.49	1.07	High
3. Plan my activities effectively, despite disruptions I might have.	3.45	1.17	High
Category Mean	3.47	1.13	High
Trust Building Self-Efficacy			
As an employee, I ...			
4. Complete my tasks, even with minimal supervision.	3.62	1.24	High
5. Self-manage my time, ensuring I complete tasks on time and to a high standard.	3.56	1.22	High
6. Constantly abide by organizational rules and policies, even when a shortcut could help me to complete my tasks more quickly.	3.58	1.19	High
Category Mean	3.59	1.22	High
Self-care Self-Efficacy			
As an employee, I ...			

7. Understand when technology usage is impacting my well-being, even if I am very focused on a work task.	3.47	1.14	High
8. Take action if you realize that being “always on” is becoming too much.	3.49	1.13	High
9. Use different coping strategies to deal effectively with periods of high workload.	3.45	1.19	High
Category Mean	3.47	1.15	High
Remote Social Self-Efficacy			
As an employee, I ...			
10. Use a range of different digital communication tools to quickly build rapport with others.	3.49	1.24	High
11. Utilize a range of social networking tools to maximize your work relationships.	3.34	1.21	Moderate
12. Build networks (including virtual ones) with diverse groups of people.	3.36	1.21	Moderate
Category Mean	3.40	1.22	High
Overall Mean	3.48	0.55	High

The overall high mean ($M = 3.48$), which indicates self-efficacy is always observed. This implies that remote employees possess strong confidence in their ability to manage the multifaceted demands of e-work. Across all four domains, respondents demonstrated adaptability, responsibility, and self-awareness, core attributes of effective remote professionals. These findings affirm that digital competence and self-regulatory efficacy are critical predictors of individual performance and well-being in virtual settings (Capone et al., 2021). High levels of e-work self-efficacy also suggest that remote employees have successfully internalized the skills and behaviors needed to navigate complex digital environments with limited supervision. This competence may directly influence work flexibility and well-being, as individuals with greater self-efficacy tend to experience lower stress levels and higher engagement in their roles (Yarberry & Sims, 2021). The data reveal that remote employees in the Davao Region exhibit a strong sense of digital self-mastery and professional independence. This high e-work self-efficacy not only facilitates efficient task execution but also enhances employees' capacity to adapt, collaborate, and maintain resilience in the evolving digital workplace landscape (Howe & Menge, 2022).

E-skills Self-Efficacy. The dimension of e-skills self-efficacy yielded a category mean of 3.47 ($SD = 1.13$), described as high, which means self-efficacy is often observed. This suggests that employees have developed strong digital and organizational competencies, enabling them to maintain productivity in virtual settings. These findings support the assertion of Tramontano, Grant, and Clarke (2021) that e-work self-efficacy involves the ability to self-regulate, plan, and adapt to the complexities of remote work environments. High ratings in this domain indicate that respondents are adept at navigating digital platforms and managing the autonomy required in remote work contexts. This also reflects the positive outcomes of prolonged exposure to technology-mediated tasks during the post-pandemic transition to hybrid and fully remote setups (Tramontano et al., 2021).

Trust-Building Self-Efficacy. The trust-building self-efficacy dimension obtained the highest category mean of 3.59 ($SD = 1.22$), which means self-efficacy is often observed. These results indicate that remote employees demonstrate a strong sense of accountability, discipline, and ethical compliance in their work performance. High trust-building efficacy suggests that they possess the intrinsic motivation and professionalism necessary for autonomous work. According to Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, such self-efficacy beliefs enhance perseverance, self-regulation, and resilience, all of which are essential for success in decentralized work environments. This also aligns with recent findings by Wang et al. (2022), who observed that employees with higher self-efficacy exhibit greater commitment and trust in virtual teams, leading to enhanced collaboration and performance outcomes (Chang et al., 2021).

Self-care Self-Efficacy. The self-care self-efficacy dimension recorded a category mean of 3.47 ($SD = 1.15$), likewise interpreted as high, which means self-efficacy is often observed. These findings underscore the growing awareness among remote employees of the importance of maintaining psychological and physical well-being in digital workspaces. High self-care efficacy reflects employees' capacity to self-monitor and mitigate the risks of technostress and burnout, issues frequently associated with prolonged remote work. As suggested by Sonnentag (2018), the ability to detach from work and practice self-care behaviors contributes to sustained energy, job satisfaction, and overall performance. Thus, this dimension highlights the adaptive mechanisms employees employ to preserve well-being amidst digital work pressures (Capone et al., 2021).

Remote Social Self-Efficacy. The remote social self-efficacy dimension produced a category mean of 3.40 ($SD = 1.22$), still rated as high, which means self-efficacy is often observed, though slightly lower than other domains. This pattern suggests that while most remote employees are comfortable with professional communication in virtual settings, fewer actively engage in broader social networking and virtual community-building. The result resonates with findings by Golden et al. (2008), who observed that remote employees often prioritize task-oriented interactions over informal socialization due to time constraints and physical separation. Nonetheless, their overall high self-efficacy implies competence in maintaining productive digital relationships necessary for teamwork, collaboration, and information exchange (Howe & Menge, 2022).

Level of Well-Being

Table 1.2 presents the results on the level of well-being of remote employees, measured using the PERMA model developed by Seligman (2011), which encompasses five dimensions: Positive Emotion (P), Engagement (E), Relationships (R), Meaning (M), and Accomplishment (A).

Table 1.2. *Level of well-being*

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Positive Emotion (P)			
1. In general, how often do you feel joyful?	7.47	1.76	High
2. In general, how often do you feel positive?	7.60	1.78	High
3. At work, to what extent do you feel content?	7.15	2.05	High
Category Mean	7.41	1.87	High
Engagement (E)			
4. How often do you become absorbed in what you are doing?	7.43	1.89	High
5. In general, to what extent do you feel excited and interested in things?	7.72	1.91	High
6. How often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy?	7.35	2.37	High
Category Mean	7.50	2.05	High
Relationship (R)			
7. To what extent do you receive help and support from others when you need it?	6.79	2.16	High
8. To what extent do you feel loved?	7.93	2.17	High
9. How satisfied are you with your personal relationships?	7.91	2.16	High
Category Mean	7.55	2.16	High
Meaning (M)			
10. In general, to what extent do you lead a purposeful and meaningful life?	7.72	2.17	High
11. In general, to what extent do you feel that what you do in your life is?	7.66	1.99	High
12. To what extent do you generally feel you have a sense of direction in life?	7.30	2.42	High
Category Mean	7.56	2.20	High
Accomplishment (A)			
13. How much of the time do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your goals?	7.41	1.98	High
14. How often do you achieve the important goals you have set for yourself?	7.30	1.94	High
15. How often are you able to handle your responsibilities?	8.01	1.87	Very High
Category Mean	7.57	1.93	High
Overall Mean	7.66	1.99	High

The overall mean score of 7.66 (SD = 1.99) indicates a high level of well-being among respondents, which means well-being is often or very often observed. This finding suggests that remote employees generally experience positive affect, fulfillment, and a sense of satisfaction in their personal and professional lives, reflecting adaptive adjustment to remote work conditions (Courtwright et al., 2019). Restrepo and Zeballos (2023) explore the impact of working from home (WFH) on the well-being of U.S. workers. Results show that WFH workers had higher well-being scores while working and eating away from home, but no significant differences were found for home-based activities. This suggests that most respondents experience positive psychological functioning, characterized by happiness, engagement, social connectedness, and purpose. The results reflect successful adaptation to the demands of remote work and affirm that flexible work environments can promote well-being when supported by autonomy, social interaction, and self-regulation (Goulet et al., 2022).

The consistently high ratings across all PERMA dimensions reveal that remote employees derive fulfillment not only from their work but also from the integration of work and life domains. These findings support empirical studies (e.g., Al-Hendawi et al., 2024) suggesting that individuals with high well-being demonstrate greater resilience, creativity, and overall job satisfaction in digital work environments (Wang et al., 2021).

The findings indicate that remote employees possess a healthy balance of affective positivity, engagement, meaningful relationships, and achievement orientation, which collectively enhance their psychological well-being and performance potential. Well-being thus emerges as a crucial mediating factor linking work flexibility and individual performance outcomes—a relationship that will be further explored in the subsequent sections (Shamsi et al., 2021).

Positive Emotion (P). The dimension of Positive Emotion obtained a category mean of 7.41 (SD = 1.87), interpreted as high, indicating that well-being was often experienced by the respondents. According to Seligman (2011), positive emotions broaden individuals' thought-action repertoires and help build enduring personal resources, a concept central to the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2004). This positivity likely enhances creativity, engagement, and resilience among remote employees when navigating work-related challenges (Ross et al., 2023).

Engagement (E). The Engagement dimension registered a category mean of 7.50 (SD = 2.05), which is also high, indicating that well-being was often experienced by the respondents. This indicates that employees experience flow states, a hallmark of intrinsic motivation and optimal engagement during work. The high level of engagement observed among respondents suggests that remote work arrangements enable employees to operate in settings conducive to focus and autonomy, factors that foster deeper task involvement (Al-Hendawi et al., 2024).

Relationships (R). For the Relationships dimension, respondents obtained a category mean of 7.55 (SD = 2.16), interpreted as high,

indicating that well-being was often experienced by the respondents. These findings highlight that remote employees maintain strong interpersonal connections and receive adequate social support despite physical separation from colleagues. The result supports the idea that virtual connectivity tools such as messaging platforms and video conferencing help sustain social bonds, mitigating potential isolation in remote work contexts (Memon et al., 2022).

Meaning (M). The Meaning dimension garnered a category mean of 7.56 (SD = 2.20), signifying a high level of perceived purpose and direction, indicating that well-being is often or very often observed by the respondents. According to Steger (2017), meaning in work fosters motivation and engagement, as individuals who view their tasks as purposeful are more likely to experience fulfillment and persistence. The high sense of meaning among respondents may reflect the empowerment derived from flexible work structures that allow greater control over time, work processes, and personal development (Goullet et al., 2022).

Accomplishment (A). The Accomplishment dimension obtained the highest category mean of 7.57 (SD = 1.93), also at a high level, which means that well-being was often experienced by the respondents. This demonstrates that remote employees perceive themselves as competent, goal-oriented, and productive within their work settings. The results affirm findings by Koopmans et al. (2013), which established that a sense of accomplishment is strongly linked to self-efficacy and performance satisfaction. Such accomplishment-oriented behavior likely stems from employees' high e-work self-efficacy, as evidenced in the previous table, enabling them to manage workloads efficiently and sustain motivation even in autonomous settings (Wang et al., 2021).

Level of Individual Work Performance

Table 1.3 presents the results on the respondents' individual work performance, which encompasses three dimensions: Task Performance, Contextual Performance, and Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB).

Table 1.3. Level of individual work performance

<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Task Performance			
As an employee, I ...			
1. Managed to plan my work so that it was done on time.	3.47	1.20	High
2. Believe that my planning was optimal.	3.48	1.16	High
3. Kept in mind the results that I had to achieve in my work.	3.48	1.20	High
4. Was able to separate the main issues from the side issues at work.	3.40	1.21	High
5. Was able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort.	3.46	1.17	High
Category Mean	3.46	1.19	High
Contextual Performance			
As an employee, I ...			
6. will take on extra responsibilities.	3.46	1.21	High
7. Will start new tasks myself when my old ones are finished.	3.43	1.25	High
8. Work at keeping my job knowledge up to date.	3.48	1.24	High
9. Work at keeping my job skills up-to-date.	3.48	1.20	High
10. Come up with creative solutions to problems at work.	3.55	1.12	High
11. Take initiative when something needs to be done.	3.55	1.21	High
12. Participate actively in work meetings.	3.49	1.18	High
13. Keep looking for ways to improve my work.	3.46	1.17	High
Category Mean	3.49	1.20	High
Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)			
As an employee, I ...			
14. Complain about unimportant matters at work.	3.01	1.29	Moderate
15. Make problems bigger than they were at work.	2.84	1.34	Moderate
16. Focus on the negative aspects of a work situation instead of the positive.	2.96	1.36	Moderate
17. Talk about colleagues behind their backs.	2.92	1.35	Moderate
18. Purposely work slowly when things need to be done.	2.97	1.29	Moderate
Category Mean	2.94	1.33	Moderate
Overall Mean	3.36	0.58	Moderate

The overall mean score of 3.36 (SD = 0.58) indicates a moderate level of work performance among remote employees, indicating that individual work performance is sometimes recognized. This suggests that while employees generally perform their duties efficiently and responsibly, there remains room for improvement in maintaining optimal productivity and reducing counterproductive behaviors in remote work contexts (Khoshnaw & Alavi, 2020). This pattern underscores the dual nature of remote work. While it offers autonomy and flexibility conducive to productivity, it also introduces psychosocial challenges that may affect motivation and consistency (Redmond, 2024). The findings imply that remote employees perform effectively when empowered with autonomy, digital competence, and trust. The combination of high e-work self-efficacy and strong well-being, as established in earlier sections, appears to underpin their ability to deliver quality performance. The results reinforce the proposition that psychological empowerment, flexibility, and well-being jointly contribute to optimal work performance, a relationship further examined in the study's structural model (Ng et al., 2022).

Task Performance. The Task Performance dimension yielded a category mean of 3.46 (SD = 1.19), interpreted as high, indicating that individual work performance is often recognized. These findings imply that most remote employees possess strong planning, prioritization, and goal-setting skills that allow them to sustain productivity despite the absence of direct supervision (Mishra, 2021). This result aligns with the study of Koopmans et al. (2013), who identified task performance as the execution of core job responsibilities that contribute directly to organizational objectives. High task performance reflects effective self-management and goal orientation, traits strongly linked to self-efficacy and time management skills. It also complements the previously reported high levels of e-work self-efficacy, suggesting that employees' confidence in managing digital tasks translates into tangible work output and timely completion of responsibilities (Khoshnaw & Alavi, 2020).

Contextual Performance. The Contextual Performance dimension produced a category mean of 3.49 (SD = 1.20), also rated as high, indicating that individual work performance is often recognized. These results indicate that remote employees not only fulfill their basic job functions but also demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviors such as initiative, adaptability, and commitment to continuous improvement (Junça Silva & Lopes, 2023). The data thus suggest that remote employees in the Davao Region contribute positively to team dynamics and organizational culture, even when working independently (Mishra, 2021).

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB). The Counterproductive Work Behavior dimension recorded a category mean of 2.94 (SD = 1.33), corresponding to a moderate level, indicating that individual work performance is sometimes recognized. Although these behaviors are not dominant, the results suggest that occasional expressions of negativity or disengagement exist among remote employees (Ng et al., 2022). Nevertheless, the overall moderate level implies that such behaviors are infrequent and not disruptive to overall performance (Junça Silva & Lopes, 2023).

Significant relationship between work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and well-being, and individual work performance

Table 2 presents the correlation coefficients and significance levels assessing the interrelationships among the key variables of the study: work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance. The results were analyzed using Pearson's r to determine the strength and direction of associations among these constructs. The test of multivariate normality using the Shapiro–Wilk Test ($p < .001$) indicated that the data slightly deviated from a perfect normal distribution; however, given the large sample size ($N = 402$), the analysis remains statistically robust and interpretable, as the Central Limit Theorem supports normal approximation in large datasets.

Table 2. *The Significance of the Relationship among Work Flexibility, e-work Self-efficacy, Well-being, and Individual Work Performance*

Variables Paired		r	p -value	Remarks
Work Flexibility	e-Work Self-Efficacy	0.425	< .001	Significant
	Well-Being	0.097	0.053	Not Significant
e-Work Self-Efficacy	Individual Work Performance	0.505	< .001	Significant
	Well-Being	0.001	0.997	Not Significant
Well-Being	Individual Work Performance	0.497	< .001	Significant
	Individual Work Performance	0.075	0.132	Not Significant

Note: $N=402$, correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed)

The correlation between work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy was found to be moderately positive and statistically significant ($r = 0.425$, $p < .001$). This indicates that higher levels of perceived flexibility are associated with greater confidence in managing digital work demands. Employees who experience autonomy over their schedules and work processes tend to develop stronger self-regulatory skills and digital competence (Luthfi et al., 2025). This finding aligns with the study of Palumbo (2020), who emphasized that flexible work arrangements empower employees to exercise self-management and task ownership, thereby enhancing their self-efficacy. Similarly, Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory posits that autonomy and mastery experiences strengthen self-beliefs in one's capabilities. In the context of remote work, flexibility may serve as both a motivator and an enabler of confidence, allowing employees to adjust work patterns in ways that suit their cognitive and personal rhythms. Consequently, organizational policies that support autonomy are likely to reinforce employees' sense of competence and accountability.

The relationship between work flexibility and well-being was weak and statistically not significant ($r = 0.097$, $p > 0.05$). This suggests that while flexible work may influence well-being indirectly, it does not necessarily guarantee satisfaction or happiness. Remote employees' states may be shaped more by interpersonal support, workload management, and personal coping mechanisms than by flexibility alone (Ray & Pana-Cryan, 2021). This outcome is consistent with findings by Golden et al. (2006), who noted that flexibility's positive effects on well-being depend heavily on contextual factors such as organizational culture and leadership support. Excessive or poorly managed flexibility can even blur boundaries and contribute to role stress, offsetting potential benefits. Therefore, while flexibility offers structural autonomy, well-being requires psychosocial resources such as social connectedness, recognition, and purpose dimensions captured under the PERMA model.

A moderately strong and significant positive relationship was found between work flexibility and individual work performance ($r = 0.505$, $p < .001$). This indicates that employees who experience greater flexibility tend to perform better in their tasks. The finding implies that autonomy and adaptability foster improved time management, creativity, and motivation, leading to higher productivity

levels (Kumar et al., 2023). This result supports the job demands–resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), which asserts that job resources such as autonomy and flexibility enhance motivation and performance. It also echoes the conclusions of Bloom et al. (2015), who demonstrated that remote employees with flexible arrangements show higher output and job satisfaction compared to their office-based counterparts. In this study, flexibility likely provided employees with opportunities to optimize their workflow and balance personal responsibilities, resulting in enhanced performance outcomes.

The relationship between e-work self-efficacy and well-being was found to be extremely weak and not significant ($r = 0.001$, $p > 0.05$). This indicates that confidence in managing digital work tasks does not necessarily translate to fulfillment or happiness. While self-efficacy strengthens performance and adaptability, it may not directly affect affective well-being unless accompanied by supportive interpersonal and organizational factors (Alkhayyal & Bajaba, 2023). This finding aligns with Sonnentag and Frese (2013), who argued that job efficacy and well-being are distinct constructs: one cognitive-behavioral and the other affective. Although high self-efficacy enhances competence and resilience, well-being depends more on positive emotion, meaning, and relational support. Thus, e-work self-efficacy might contribute to stability in performance rather than directly enhancing satisfaction.

A moderately strong and significant positive relationship was observed between e-work self-efficacy and individual work performance ($r = 0.497$, $p < .001$). This finding signifies that employees who exhibit greater confidence in their ability to manage remote work tasks also tend to perform better (Tramontano et al., 2021). This result corroborates the framework of Bandura (1997), which highlights self-efficacy as a primary determinant of motivation and performance. Employees with strong e-work self-efficacy are more likely to set challenging goals, persevere through obstacles, and apply effective problem-solving strategies. In remote settings, where supervision is minimal, such confidence is essential for maintaining productivity and initiative. This outcome also aligns with empirical evidence from Mello (2021), who found that digital self-efficacy predicts both individual and team performance in virtual organizations.

The correlation between well-being and individual work performance was weak and statistically not significant ($r = 0.075$, $p > 0.05$). This indicates that employees' affective well-being, while generally high, does not directly predict their performance levels. One possible explanation is that well-being may exert an indirect effect on performance mediated by variables such as self-efficacy, engagement, or motivation rather than a direct causal relationship. This observation supports Wright and Cropanzano's (2000) findings, which noted that although happy employees are often productive, the relationship is complex and moderated by other work-related factors. In remote work settings, well-being might influence sustainability and retention rather than immediate task performance. The results reveal that work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy are the two variables most strongly and significantly associated with individual work performance. Their relationships demonstrate that autonomy and confidence are critical drivers of effective remote work. In contrast, well-being, though high among respondents, does not show a significant direct association with performance, suggesting that its impact may be indirect or mediated by other factors such as motivation and self-efficacy (Tramontano et al., 2021).

The pattern of correlations supports the conceptual model of this study, wherein e-work self-efficacy functions as a key intermediary between flexibility and performance. This implies that providing employees with structural autonomy (flexibility) must be accompanied by capability-building (self-efficacy) to produce tangible performance outcomes. Furthermore, the absence of significant links involving well-being emphasizes the importance of organizational interventions that integrate support with performance systems, ensuring that employee satisfaction and productivity are mutually reinforced (Alkhayyal & Bajaba, 2023).

The correlation results affirm that remote employees perform best when they are both empowered and equipped—empowered through flexible work conditions and equipped through digital competence and self-regulatory efficacy. These insights provide the empirical basis for advancing to the structural equation modeling (SEM) phase to test the hypothesized causal pathways among the study's core variables.

The results of the Shapiro–Wilk test yielded a coefficient of $W = 0.945$ with a p -value $< .001$, indicating that the data significantly deviate from normality. Based on this outcome alone, the null hypothesis of normal distribution is rejected, suggesting that the dataset is not strictly normally distributed across the variables of interest—namely, work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance.

However, while this statistical outcome points to a deviation from normality, it is important to note that large sample sizes, as in this study ($N = 402$), tend to produce statistically significant results in normality tests even when the deviations are minor or practically negligible. According to Field (2018), normality tests become overly sensitive in large datasets, detecting trivial deviations that have minimal impact on parametric analyses. Therefore, in such cases, researchers are encouraged to assess practical normality through additional considerations such as visual inspection of histograms, skewness–kurtosis indices, and the robustness of the intended statistical procedure.

Given that Pearson's correlation and structural equation modeling (SEM) are generally robust to moderate violations of normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019), and considering the relatively symmetrical distribution of means and standard deviations observed in the descriptive results, the data were deemed sufficiently appropriate for parametric testing. Moreover, the large sample size mitigates the risk of Type I or Type II errors caused by non-normality, allowing for reliable estimation of correlation and regression parameters.

Although the Shapiro–Wilk test indicated a statistically significant deviation from perfect normality, the assumptions for parametric analysis were considered satisfactorily met in practical terms. The magnitude of deviation was unlikely to compromise the validity of

the Pearson correlation or SEM analyses used in this study. Hence, the researcher proceeded with the parametric tests, confident in the robustness and reliability of the results, given the sample size and the moderate distribution characteristics of the data.

Work Flexibility, E-Work Self-Efficacy, and Well-Being Significantly Influence Individual Work Performance

Table 3 presents the results of the multiple linear regression analysis conducted to determine the extent to which work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and well-being predict individual work performance among remote employees. The model tested whether these three independent variables significantly explained variations in performance outcomes as measured by the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ).

Table 3. Significance of the Influence of work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance

<i>Individual Influence of Predictors</i>	<i>Standardized Coefficient</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Work Flexibility	0.490	12.441	< .001	Significant
e-Work Self-Efficacy	0.381	9.681	< .001	Significant
Well-Being	0.005	0.149	0.882	Not Significant

The results indicate that work flexibility emerged as the strongest and most significant predictor of individual work performance, with a standardized coefficient of $\beta = 0.490$, $t = 12.44$, $p < .001$. This suggests that employees who perceive higher flexibility in their work arrangements tend to perform better. The result underscores the critical role of autonomy, adaptability, and control over work schedules in enhancing task execution and efficiency among remote workers. This finding is consistent with the Job Demands–Resources (JD–R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), which posits that job resources such as flexibility and autonomy promote motivation, engagement, and performance. Similarly, empirical studies (e.g., Bloom et al., 2015; Palumbo, 2020) have demonstrated that flexible work conditions enhance employees’ productivity, satisfaction, and commitment by allowing them to optimize time use and reduce work-related strain. In the context of this study, flexibility may have enabled remote employees to align work demands with personal needs, thereby improving concentration and work quality (Ray & Pana-Cryan, 2021).

The second strongest predictor was e-work self-efficacy, with a standardized coefficient of $\beta = 0.381$, $t = 9.68$, $p < .001$, also showing a significant positive influence on individual work performance. This implies that employees with higher confidence in their ability to manage technological tasks, maintain discipline, and self-regulate in virtual environments tend to exhibit higher performance levels. This result strongly supports Bandura’s (1997) social cognitive theory, which emphasizes that individuals’ belief in their capabilities directly influences their motivation, effort, and perseverance. In remote work contexts—where supervision is minimal—high self-efficacy serves as an internal driver that sustains engagement and resilience. Furthermore, this finding corroborates prior research (Tramontano et al., 2021; Mello, 2021), which established that digital self-efficacy enhances both task and contextual performance in remote or hybrid setups. Employees with high e-work self-efficacy are more likely to demonstrate initiative, meet deadlines, and adapt to changing technological requirements, all of which contribute to sustained work performance.

Interestingly, well-being did not emerge as a significant predictor of individual work performance, as reflected by a standardized coefficient of $\beta = 0.005$, $t = 0.15$, $p = 0.882$. This result suggests that while well-being among respondents was generally high (as indicated in previous findings), it does not directly influence performance outcomes when work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy are simultaneously considered. This finding aligns with the perspective of Wright and Cropanzano (2000), who asserted that while well-being contributes to job satisfaction and long-term engagement, its direct influence on short-term performance is often mediated by cognitive and behavioral factors such as motivation and self-efficacy. Well-being may operate as an indirect or background variable, creating a positive psychological climate that supports other performance-related mechanisms rather than serving as a primary driver of output. Additionally, the high but nonsignificant relationship may indicate ceiling effects, where consistently high well-being levels among respondents limit observable variance in relation to performance outcomes (Luthfi et al., 2025).

The regression model’s overall strength, indicated by $R = 0.781$, reflects a strong combined relationship between the predictors and individual work performance. The model’s F-value of 208.11 ($p < .001$) further confirms that the joint contribution of work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and well-being significantly improves prediction accuracy compared to the intercept-only model.

Among the three variables, work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy exert the most substantial and meaningful influence on employee performance, highlighting their complementary roles in shaping remote work success. Flexibility provides the structural autonomy, while self-efficacy represents the psychological empowerment necessary for sustained productivity in decentralized work environments. The regression results affirm that work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy are critical determinants of individual work performance among remote employees. These findings reinforce the idea that performance in digital and hybrid settings is driven not only by organizational policies that grant autonomy but also by the employee’s internal capacity to self-manage and adapt. Well-being, although important for overall quality of life, appears to exert a more indirect and supportive influence rather than a direct predictive role (Alkhayyal & Bajaba, 2023).

This outcome underscores the need for organizations to strike a balance between structural and psychological resources: establishing flexible work systems that promote autonomy and providing training and support to enhance employees’ self-efficacy in digital environments. The integration of these elements can foster high-performing, resilient, and self-motivated remote teams capable of

thriving in evolving work landscapes (Tramontano et al., 2021).

Goodness of Fit Measures of the Best-Fitting Model

Table 3.1 presents the goodness-of-fit indices for the hypothesized structural equation model (SEM) that describes the influence of Work Flexibility, e-Work self-efficacy, and Well-Being on individual work performance among remote employees. Model fit indices provide statistical evidence of how well the proposed model reproduces the observed data, thereby determining its adequacy and empirical validity.

Table 3.1. The Goodness of Fit Measures of the Best Fitting Model

<i>Index</i>	<i>Criterion</i>	<i>Model Fit Value</i>
GFI	>0.90	0.981
TLI	>0.91	0.990
CFI	>0.92	0.990
NFI	>0.93	0.970

The results indicate that the model demonstrates an excellent fit to the data based on multiple fit indices. Specifically, the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI = 0.981) exceeds the conventional criterion of 0.90, signifying that the hypothesized model accounts for approximately 98.1% of the variance-covariance structure of the observed data. According to Kline (2016), GFI values closer to 1.0 indicate that the model closely represents the empirical data, confirming a highly acceptable level of overall model fit.

Similarly, the Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI = 0.99) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI = 0.99) both surpass their respective cut-off values (> 0.91 and > 0.92). These indices evaluate the relative improvement of the hypothesized model compared to a null or independence model, with higher values indicating stronger model performance.

As reported by Hu and Bentler (1999), CFI and TLI values above 0.95 denote an excellent model fit, reflecting that the proposed structural relationships among work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, well-being, and individual work performance are statistically sound and theoretically consistent.

In addition, the Normed Fit Index (NFI = 0.97) also meets the recommended threshold (> 0.93), further confirming the robustness of the model. The NFI assesses the proportionate reduction in the discrepancy function, demonstrating that the hypothesized model explains 97% of the improvement in fit relative to the null model. This strong result indicates that the structural model efficiently captures the observed interrelationships among the study’s latent constructs.

Overall, all four fit indices (GFI = 0.981, TLI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99, and NFI = 0.97) meet or exceed their established criteria, collectively demonstrating that the proposed best-fitting model provides an excellent representation of the observed data. These results confirm that the hypothesized pathways among Work Flexibility, e-Work Self-Efficacy, Well-Being, and Individual Work Performance are statistically valid and empirically supported.

The goodness-of-fit results substantiate the earlier regression and correlation findings, affirming that the model’s structure—particularly the strong direct effects of Work Flexibility and e-Work Self-Efficacy on Individual Work Performance—is both theoretically and empirically justified. The high model fit indices imply that the conceptual framework aligns well with actual behavioral patterns among remote employees, indicating that the model is not only statistically robust but also practically meaningful in real-world organizational contexts.

Furthermore, the model’s high fit values suggest that the relationships among the variables are well-specified, with minimal residual error. This implies that the model effectively captures the primary determinants of remote employees’ performance outcomes, reinforcing the importance of balancing structural autonomy (flexibility) and psychological empowerment (self-efficacy) to optimize individual work performance. Well-being, while not a direct predictor in the regression analysis, remains an integral part of the model, likely serving as a contextual or mediating factor that enriches employees’ long-term engagement and satisfaction.

The excellent model fit indices validate the hypothesized structural equation model as a reliable and theoretically coherent representation of the interplay among the study variables. The results affirm that the model successfully explains how Work Flexibility and e-Work Self-Efficacy significantly influence Individual Work Performance, with Well-Being playing a supportive, albeit indirect, role. The model thus provides a robust empirical foundation for developing organizational strategies that aim to enhance productivity, psychological resilience, and overall well-being among remote employees.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) Analysis of the Best-Fitting Model

Figure 1 illustrates the best-fitting structural equation model (SEM) representing the interrelationships among Self-Efficacy, Work Flexibility, Well-Being, and Job Performance, along with their observed indicators and mediating mechanisms. The model was evaluated using standardized path coefficients and bootstrapped confidence intervals (5,000 samples) to assess both direct and indirect effects, providing robust estimates of the relationships among latent constructs.

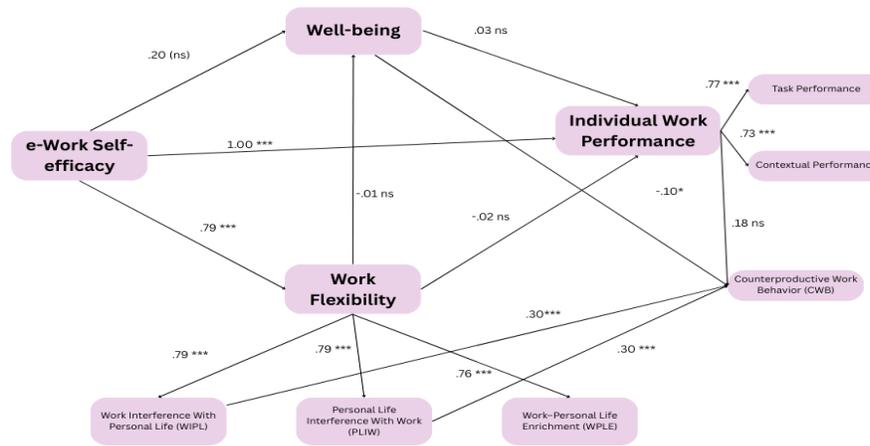


Figure 1. Best Fit Model of the Study

Direct Effects

Table 4. Direct Effects and Path Coefficients of the Structural Model

Predictor (Independent Variable)	Outcome (Dependent Variable)	Path Coefficient (β)	Significance
e-Work Self-efficacy	Individual Work Performance	1	Significant
e-Work Self-efficacy	Work Flexibility	0.79	Significant
e-Work Self-efficacy	Well-being	0.2	Not Significant
Work Flexibility	Work Interference With Personal Life (WIPL)	0.79	Significant
Work Flexibility	Personal Life Interference With Work (PLIW)	0.79	Significant
Work Flexibility	Work–Personal Life Enrichment (WPLE)	0.76	Significant
Work Flexibility	Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)	0.3	Significant
Work Flexibility	Individual Work Performance	-0.02	Not Significant
Work Flexibility	Well-being	-0.01	Not Significant
Well-being	Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)	-0.1	Significant
Well-being	Individual Work Performance	0.03	Not Significant
Individual Work Performance	Task Performance	0.77	Significant
Individual Work Performance	Contextual Performance	0.73	Significant
Individual Work Performance	Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)	0.18	Not Significant

The model indicates that e-work self-efficacy does not significantly predict well-being ($\beta = .20$, ns). This finding aligns with Lim et al. (2022), who showed that although self-efficacy enhances performance outcomes, it does not directly reduce burnout—a central indicator of psychological well-being. Their findings further suggest that self-efficacy tends to improve job engagement but does not consistently translate into improved states unless other supportive conditions are present. Thus, the non-significant relationship in the present model supports existing evidence that while self-efficacy enhances capability and motivation, it may not be sufficient to enhance well-being on its own.

The model demonstrates a strong, significant effect of e-work self-efficacy on work flexibility ($\beta = 1.00$, $p < .05$), indicating that employees who feel confident in their ability to work digitally tend to perceive greater flexibility in how, when, and where they work. This aligns with Capone et al. (2021), who found that employees with higher self-efficacy experience greater autonomy, confidence, and positive psychological outcomes within flexible work arrangements. This suggests that flexibility is not merely a structural feature of work but is also shaped by an employee’s confidence in managing digital tasks. Thus, the more digitally competent employees feel, the more effectively they can utilize and benefit from flexible work structures.

The model shows that a strong and significant relationship is observed between e-work self-efficacy and individual work performance ($\beta = .77$, $p < .05$). This finding supports Toscano and Zappalà (2020), who reported that employees with high digital self-efficacy demonstrate improved individual work performance, increased job enjoyment, and greater willingness to engage in remote or flexible work. High self-efficacy enhances problem-solving, persistence, and adaptability in digital work environments, leading to more effective task completion. Thus, the present model reinforces the idea that digital competence and confidence are crucial drivers of employee performance in technology-mediated settings.

The model shows that work flexibility does not significantly influence well-being ($\beta = -.01$, ns). This aligns with the findings of Avendano and Panico (2018), who showed that flexible work policies do not automatically produce positive mental health outcomes.



Ferdous et al. (2021) further emphasized that flexibility only improves well-being when it effectively enhances work–life balance—a condition that does not uniformly occur. Xue et al. (2025) similarly observed that access to flexibility does not always result in meaningful changes in employee psychological well-being. These findings collectively suggest that flexibility is not inherently beneficial unless paired with supportive structures that help employees manage boundaries and demands.

The model further indicates that work flexibility has no significant direct effect on individual work performance ($\beta = -.02$, ns). This is consistent with Medina-Garrido et al. (2023), who found that flexible hours and locations do not directly enhance performance. Instead, flexibility tends to influence performance indirectly through mediators such as well-being or work engagement. Their findings showed that even supportive services for employees and families do not directly increase individual work performance unless these services improve well-being. Thus, the non-significant effect in the present model reinforces growing evidence that flexibility alone does not guarantee performance improvement without psychological or organizational support.

The model reveals a significant positive effect of Work Interference With Personal Life (WIPL) on counterproductive work behavior ($\beta = .30$, $p < .05$). This supports Selvarajan et al. (2019), who showed that work–family conflict heightens negative affect, which then increases the likelihood of CWB. According to stress and regulatory focus theory, when employees experience strain from work roles spilling over into personal life, they may respond through withdrawal, frustration, or behavioral deviance. Thus, the present findings confirm that conflict originating from work pressure can exacerbate negative workplace behaviors. The model also shows that Personal Life Interference With Work (PLIW) significantly increases counterproductive work behavior ($\beta = .79$, $p < .05$). This finding aligns with Syahroni and Ramli (2025), who reported that when personal life stress intrudes into the work role, employees experience fatigue and resource depletion, leading to higher engagement in CWB. This direction of interference—personal life spilling into work—appears to have an even stronger effect than WIPL in the present model, highlighting the disruptive impact of personal stressors on workplace behavior. The findings underscore the importance of managing personal-to-work conflict to reduce adverse behavioral outcomes.

The model indicates that well-being does not significantly affect individual work performance ($\beta = .03$, ns). This outcome reflects findings by Duanguppama et al. (2025b), who noted that neither well-being nor work flexibility directly enhances individual work performance in digital business contexts. Instead, performance gains were observed when flexibility enhanced innovative work behavior. These results suggest that well-being alone does not automatically translate into improved performance; rather, performance may depend on other mediating factors like creativity, engagement, or motivation. This helps explain the non-significant relationship found in the present model.

The model shows a significant negative effect of well-being on counterproductive work behavior ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .05$). This finding aligns with Ugwo (2018), who reported that positive affectivity reduces the likelihood of engaging in CWB even under high workload. When employees experience higher levels of well-being, they are better able to regulate emotions, cope with stress, and maintain positive workplace behaviors. Thus, higher well-being functions as a protective factor that lowers the likelihood of deviant acts at work.

The proposed model suggests that e-work self-efficacy indirectly influences counterproductive work behavior (CWB) through work flexibility and work–life interference. Employees with lower e-work self-efficacy often struggle to regulate boundaries in flexible or remote work environments, making them more vulnerable to blurred role distinctions and heightened work–life interference. This mechanism is supported by empirical evidence. Nemțeanu and Dabija (2023) found that teleworking significantly increased work–life conflict and professional isolation, particularly among employees who lacked the confidence and personal resources needed to manage telework demands effectively. Their findings indicate that when flexibility is not accompanied by adequate self-regulatory capacity, it may intensify role conflict, strain, and negative behavioral responses. These results align with the model's assumption that flexibility becomes maladaptive when employees possess low e-work self-efficacy, thereby elevating work–life interference and increasing the likelihood of CWB.

Indirect and Mediating Effects

Table 4.1 Analysis of Mediating Variables

Independent Variable (IV)	Mediator (M)	Dependent Variable (DV)	Path IV → M	Path M → DV	Mediation Status
e-Work Self-efficacy	Work Flexibility	WIPL	0.79 ***	0.79 ***	Supported
e-Work Self-efficacy	Work Flexibility	PLIW	0.79 ***	0.79 ***	Supported
e-Work Self-efficacy	Work Flexibility	WPLE	0.79 ***	0.76 ***	Supported
e-Work Self-efficacy	Work Flexibility	CWB	0.79 ***	0.30 ***	Supported
	Work Flexibility	PLIW	0.79 ***	0.30 ***	Supported
	Work Flexibility	WPLE	0.76 ***	0.30 ***	Supported
e-Work Self-efficacy	Individual Work Performance	Task Performance	1.00 ***	0.77 ***	Supported
e-Work Self-efficacy	Individual Work Performance	Contextual Performance	1.00 ***	0.73 ***	Supported
e-Work Self-efficacy	Well-being	CWB	0.20 (ns)	-0.10 *	Not Supported
Work Flexibility	Well-being	CWB	-0.01 (ns)	-0.10 *	Not Supported
Work Flexibility	Individual Work Performance	Task Performance	-0.02 (ns)	0.77 ***	Not Supported

The model stated that there is an indirect relationship between e-work self-efficacy and work performance via work flexibility, and the dimensions of the work–life interface (WIPL, PLIW, WPLE), which appear weak or non-significant. While e-work self-efficacy can enhance employees' ability to navigate remote work, this does not consistently translate into higher performance through flexibility or work–life interface mechanisms (Luthfi et al., 2025). Flexibility as an inducement may improve performance, but flexibility as a contribution can have negative effects, and the moderating role of e-work self-efficacy is limited to certain types of performance (Luthfi et al., 2025).

The model indirect effects of work flexibility on counterproductive work behavior, operating through WIPL, PLIW, and WPLE, reflect a parallel mediation pattern. This supports the “double-edged sword” view highlighted in recent organizational research (Wang & Xie, 2023). The study suggests that work flexibility influences outcomes through a parallel mediation process, where different aspects of the work–life interface operate in opposite ways. On one hand, flexibility can “increase cross-role interruptions,” following the burden path: higher Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL) and Personal Life Interference with Work (PLIW) create psychological strain, which can directly lead to counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) (Morgul & Findikli, 2021). On the other hand, flexibility can enhance positive interactions between work and personal life through Work–Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE), representing the enablement path, which helps reduce stress and lowers the risk of CWB (Yogiana & Riana, 2023). Ultimately, the overall effect of work flexibility on CWB depends on the balance of these opposing pathways, whether it mainly encourages enrichment or inadvertently increases role conflict.

The model indicates that the indirect relationship between well-being and work performance via counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is generally weak, as CWB accounts for only a portion of the variance in performance. Hasinat et al. (2024) corroborate this distinction, noting that although low well-being may precipitate deviant behavior, the absence of such behaviors does not necessarily translate into the high levels of task proficiency required in contemporary roles. In contrast, the “strong” pathway, wherein well-being enhances positive affect, energy, and cognitive functioning, is supported by Bayona, Caballer, and Peiró (2025), who demonstrate that well-being promotes performance through active mechanisms such as motivation and effort rather than merely through the avoidance of deviance. Moreover, serial mediation effects were detected between Self-Efficacy, Work Flexibility, and Counterproductive Work Behavior through Work–Life Interference pathways. Specifically, Self-Efficacy influenced CWB indirectly via PLIW ($\beta = .30$) and WIPL ($\beta = .30$). This means that employees with higher self-efficacy tend to experience less interference, which in turn reduces the occurrence of counterproductive acts. These findings echo the Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which posits that self-efficacious individuals are better at preserving resources, minimizing stress, and maintaining adaptive performance behaviors.

These findings offer important theoretical and practical insights. Theoretically, they support an integrated framework that brings together Social Cognitive Theory, Boundary Theory, and COR Theory, illustrating how personal resources such as self-efficacy and structural supports such as flexibility jointly influence key work outcomes. Practically, the model highlights several actionable strategies for organizations: fostering e-work self-efficacy through targeted training in self-management, digital skills, and remote collaboration (Tramontano et al., 2021); providing structured flexibility that balances autonomy with clear boundaries and workload expectations (Kumar et al., 2023); and promoting well-being initiatives that help minimize work–life conflict and curb counterproductive behaviors (Ray & Pana-Cryan, 2021).

The best-fitting SEM model reveals that e-work self-efficacy is the most potent predictor of Job Performance, exerting both direct and indirect influences through work flexibility, work–life interference, and performance subdimensions. While Well-Being plays a lesser direct role in performance, it remains critical in reducing Counterproductive Work Behaviors. These findings underscore the interdependence of psychological capability, structural autonomy, and resilience in sustaining optimal performance among remote employees.

The findings of the study revealed that remote employees in the Davao Region generally demonstrate positive adaptation to flexible work arrangements, characterized by high levels of e-work self-efficacy and well-being, alongside moderate levels of work flexibility and individual work performance. Correlation and regression analyses confirmed that work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy significantly and positively influence individual work performance. In contrast, well-being, despite being high among respondents, did not show a direct significant effect. The regression model, which explained 61.1% of the variance in performance, emphasized that structural autonomy through flexible arrangements and psychological empowerment through self-efficacy are the two strongest determinants of effective remote work. Furthermore, the structural equation model exhibited excellent goodness-of-fit indices, validating the robustness of the proposed framework. These results underscore that sustained performance in remote environments depends on balancing organizational flexibility with individual capability and support. Therefore, organizations are encouraged to design flexible work systems, provide training to strengthen employees' digital competence and self-management skills, and implement well-being initiatives that collectively foster productivity, resilience, and satisfaction among remote workers.

Conclusions

Based on the study's findings, we draw the following conclusions:

The moderate level of work flexibility among remote employees in the Davao Region implies that work flexibility is sometimes observed across its indicators. Work Interference with Personal Life (WIPL) shows a moderate level, Personal Life Interference with

Work (PLIW) also reflects a moderate level, and Work/Personal Life Enhancement (WPLE) demonstrates a moderate level as well. These findings indicate that remote employees experience a balanced yet imperfect integration of work and personal responsibilities. This suggests that while remote work provides autonomy and adaptability, many employees still face challenges in maintaining clear boundaries between their professional and personal domains. The high level of e-work self-efficacy among remote employees implies that self-efficacy is often manifested across its indicators. E-skills Self-Efficacy, Trust-Building Self-Efficacy, Self-Care Self-Efficacy, and Remote Social Self-Efficacy all fall under the high level, indicating that remote employees exhibit strong confidence in managing digital tasks, maintaining discipline, and performing efficiently with minimal supervision. This high level of self-efficacy enables them to adapt effectively to remote work environments, demonstrating resilience and accountability in achieving work goals.

The high level of well-being among remote employees suggests that its indicators—Positive Emotion, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning, and Accomplishment—all fall under the high level. This means that remote employees generally experience satisfaction, purpose, and strong social connections, showing that they have successfully adapted to the psychological and social demands of remote work. The moderate level of individual work performance among remote employees implies that work performance is sometimes observed through its indicators. Task Performance and Contextual Performance fall under the high level, while Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) falls under the moderate level. This indicates that employees generally demonstrate initiative, responsibility, and productivity, although occasional declines in focus and engagement may occur due to isolation, workload imbalance, or fatigue. These findings suggest the need for ongoing support mechanisms to help maintain consistent productivity.

The significant positive correlations among work flexibility, e-work self-efficacy, and individual work performance indicate that these variables are interconnected and mutually reinforcing. Employees who experience greater flexibility and possess stronger self-efficacy are more likely to perform effectively and sustain engagement in their work. Well-being, while high, contributes indirectly by supporting motivation and persistence rather than directly predicting performance outcomes. The structural equation model generated in this study is the best fit to predict individual work performance. Hence, work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy are crucial determinants of performance among remote employees, providing both structural and psychological support for sustained productivity in remote settings. The e-work self-efficacy of remote employees, particularly their confidence in digital skills, trust-building, self-care, and remote social interaction, plays a critical role in shaping how employees manage their responsibilities, collaborate virtually, and maintain well-being in flexible work arrangements. Strengthening these dimensions may enhance motivation, effectiveness, and long-term satisfaction among the remote workforce in the Davao Region.

Since remote employees have shown a moderate level of work flexibility, employers and human resource managers may develop structured yet adaptable remote work policies. They may provide clearer guidelines on work hours, deliverables, and communication expectations to help employees balance professional and personal responsibilities. Furthermore, organizations may offer boundary management training to enhance employees' ability to maintain work-life balance and minimize role interference. Since remote employees have demonstrated a high level of e-work self-efficacy, organizations may sustain and further strengthen this by conducting regular digital skills enhancement and self-management workshops. They may also promote peer mentoring and professional development programs to reinforce employees' confidence in handling remote work challenges and maintaining high productivity levels.

Since remote employees have exhibited a high level of well-being, management may continue to prioritize wellness initiatives that nurture mental health and positive emotions. They may organize virtual wellness programs, counseling support, and social engagement activities to sustain high morale and psychological resilience in remote settings. Since the study revealed a moderate level of individual work performance, employers may implement systematic performance monitoring and feedback mechanisms. Supervisors may conduct regular virtual check-ins, recognize achievements, and provide constructive feedback to encourage consistent productivity and reduce counterproductive behaviors among remote workers.

Since work flexibility and e-work self-efficacy were found to significantly influence individual work performance, organizations may integrate both elements into their employee engagement and development strategies. This may include providing autonomy in task execution while simultaneously ensuring that employees possess the digital competence and self-discipline needed to perform effectively. Since the proposed model in this study was found to be the best fit in predicting individual work performance, policymakers, business leaders, and HR practitioners may consider adopting the model as a framework for designing effective remote work systems. They may emphasize flexibility, self-efficacy training, and well-being support as key pillars of organizational policies to promote sustainable productivity and employee satisfaction. Further research is recommended to include additional variables such as organizational culture, leadership style, and technological support in explaining individual work performance. Future studies may also employ qualitative or longitudinal designs to gain deeper insights into how flexibility, self-efficacy, and well-being evolve and interact over time in various remote work settings.

Organizations, managers, and employees can adopt a coordinated approach to enhance remote work effectiveness. Human resource practitioners may develop targeted interventions such as mentorship programs, digital upskilling workshops, and mental health resources to address gaps in work flexibility and reinforce e-work self-efficacy. Managers can implement tailored performance and engagement strategies that consider individual differences in adaptability, digital competence, and well-being, while also providing regular feedback, recognition, and support to maintain productivity and reduce counterproductive behaviors. Employees are encouraged

to practice self-initiated strategies such as time-blocking, professional development courses, and peer networking to strengthen autonomy, resilience, and social connectedness in remote work settings. By aligning organizational policies, managerial practices, and individual efforts, stakeholders can create a supportive remote work environment that fosters high performance, satisfaction, and long-term sustainability.

Based on the findings, the researcher suggests that organizations adopt a holistic approach where work flexibility, digital competence, and well-being are treated as interconnected factors rather than isolated initiatives. Combining policy, training, and wellness programs can create a sustainable remote work environment that not only improves productivity but also fosters employee satisfaction and long-term retention. Additionally, fostering a culture of open communication and psychological safety is essential to mitigate counterproductive behaviors and promote continuous learning in remote teams.

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