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The Paradox of Remote Work: How Flexibility, Autonomy, Monitoring, Self-Regulation and Distractions Shape Productivity and Task Avoidance in the UK Professional Services

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Abstract:-Remote work has become an important feature of contemporary employment, yet evidence remains unclear on how specific remote-work conditions relate to employee productivity and task avoidance. This study examined how work flexibility, work autonomy, remote-work monitoring, self-regulation and digital/non-digital distractions relate to employee productivity and task avoidance in UK professional service organisations. Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) Theory and Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory provided the theoretical foundation. The study adopted a quantitative cross-sectional survey design. Data were digitally collected from 206 remote and hybrid employees in selected UK professional service organisations. The measurement and structural models were assessed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). Work autonomy and remote-work monitoring were positively related to employee productivity, while distractions were negatively related to productivity. Flexibility and self-regulation were not significantly related to productivityFor task avoidance, self-regulation had a significant negative relationship, while distractions had a strong positive relationship. Flexibility, autonomy and monitoring were not significant. The five dimensions explained 14.0% of employee productivity and 27.6% of task avoidance. These findings show that remote-work conditions relate differently to productivity and task avoidance.The study unbundles remote work into five distinct conditions and examines productivity and task avoidance as separate outcomes within UK professional services. It contextually validates adapted measures and contributes to the measurement of the operationalised remote-work constructs. By integrating JD-R and COR theories, the study develops and empirically tests a conceptual model of remote work arrangements, employee productivity and task avoidance, providing a framework for understanding which remote-work conditions relate to productivity, task avoidance or both.

Keywords: *Conservation of Resource, Employee productivity, Job Demands-Resources Theory, Remote Work Arrangements, Self-Regulation, Task Avoidance, UK professional services*.

1. Introduction

Remote work has moved from being an occasional work arrangement to an established part of world of work. Extant literature suggests that the COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the shift towards remote work, particularly in knowledge-intensive occupations that could be performed through digital technologies (OECD, 2021). Professional services, including accounting, law, consulting and financial services, are well suited to remote working because much of their work is knowledge-based and can be performed digitally (Empson, 2021). In the UK, remote and hybrid working have remained common even after the pandemic, suggesting that the shift has become a more established feature of working life. Office for National Statistics [ONS] (2025) indicates that in Great Britain, 28% of working adults were hybrid workers between January and March 2025, with professional and other highly skilled occupations among those where hybrid working remains common.

The continued use of remote and hybrid working raises an important question about what these arrangements mean for employee performance. One possible benefit is the greater flexibility and autonomy they provide,

giving employees more control over when and how they organise their work (Chatterjee et al., 2022; Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021). Such control can serve as a useful work resource that supports performance. For example, Chatterjee et al. (2022) found that remote-work flexibility can support organisational performance. Similarly, Bloom et al. (2024) found that hybrid working improved employee retention and satisfaction without damaging performance. Together, these findings suggest that physical presence in the workplace is not always necessary for employees to remain productive.

Despite these reported benefits, remote work also presents challenges to productivity and work behaviour. Given less direct office supervision that comes with remote work, employees take greater responsibility for managing their time and maintaining focus. This can be difficult when digital distractions, household interruptions and blurred work-life boundaries compete for attention. Such work-from-home demands can affect performance (Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021), while difficulties in managing work-life boundaries can further disrupt work activities (Allen et al., 2021). These difficulties in maintaining focus may also lead employees to delay or avoid work tasks.For example, Bendixen and Scheel (2024) found that work intensification during homeworking was associated with increased procrastination.

Existing evidence therefore presents a mixed picture of remote work. While flexibility and hybrid working have been associated with positive performance and employee outcomes (Chatterjee et al., 2022; Bloom et al., 2024), other studies show that remote work can also create demands and behaviours that may weaken these benefits (Oakman & Yazdani, 2022; Ravid et al., 2023). This mixed evidence reflects the paradox of remote work:the same arrangement can provide useful resources, such as flexibility and autonomy, while also creating conditions for distraction, reduced oversight and task avoidance.

The mixed evidence on remote work is particularly relevant to UK professional services, where hybrid working remains widely used. ONS (2024) reported that 42% of businesses in professional, scientific and technical activities had adopted hybrid working in December 2023. This level of adoption makes the sector an important setting for understanding which conditions of remote work support productivity and which may encourage task avoidance. However, UK evidence does not fully explain which specific conditions of remote work shape productivity and task avoidance. Using representative UK data, Deole et al. (2023) found that increased working from home was associated with higher self-reported hourly productivity, but the relationship varied with factors such as autonomy and home-schooling demands.

Similarly, a UK longitudinal study found that changes in work distractions and self-control were associated with changes in employees' performance while working from home (Baumann et al., 2023). Evidence from professional services staff in UK universities also showed varied experiences: 47% reported becoming more productive while 66% considered their work more demanding (Watermeyer et al., 2023). These findings suggest that remote work itself may be less important than the conditions under which employees work remotely. However, the UK studies identified do not bring flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and distractions together to examine their relationships with both productivity and task avoidance.

The wider literature shows similar fragmentation. Remote-work flexibility has been linked with performance (Chatterjee et al., 2022), while other studies have examined work-from-home demands and resources (Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021), electronic monitoring (Ravid et al., 2023; König, 2025), and boundary management (Allen et al., 2021; Scheibe et al., 2024). Reviews also show that remote work can produce different employee and performance outcomes depending on how it is experienced and managed (Aleem et al., 2023; McPhail et al., 2024). However, these studies largely examine different aspects of remote work separately, leaving limited understanding of how flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and distractions relate to employee outcomes when considered together.

Another important but less examined outcome of remote work is task avoidance. Although remote-work research has examined employee performance and related outcomes, less attention has been given to avoidance behaviours within the same framework. Existing studies provide some evidence, with Bendixen and Scheel (2024) examining procrastination during homeworking and Chakraborty et al. (2024) examining cyberloafing in remote work. However, examining productivity without task avoidance may provide an incomplete picture of employee behaviour, since employees can remain productive overall while still delaying or avoiding particular work tasks.

The present study addresses these gaps by examining remote work through five dimensions: work flexibility, work autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation, and digital/non-digital distractions. It examines their individual and combined relationships with employee productivity and task avoidance among employees in UK professional services. Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory provides the main theoretical basis for explaining how

different resources and demands associated with remote work may shape these outcomes (Bakker et al., 2023). Thus, rather than asking simply whether remote work works, the study examines which conditions of remote work are associated with productive or avoidant work behaviour.

Following this background, the study asks: How do work flexibility, work autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and digital/non-digital distractions shape employee productivity and task avoidance in the UK professional services sector?

The rest of the study is organised into four sections. The next section critically reviews the theoretical and empirical literature and develops the hypotheses. Section three presents the research methodology. Section four presents and discusses the findings. Section five concludes the study and presents its implications, recommendations, limitations, directions for future research and contribution to knowledge.

2. Critical Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

This section critically reviews the literature on remote work arrangements, employee productivity and task avoidance behaviour. It evaluates empirical evidence on work flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and digital/non-digital distractions, highlighting areas of agreement, conflicting findings and gaps in existing knowledge. Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory and Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory provide the theoretical basis for explaining these relationships and developing the study's hypotheses.

2.1 Job Demands-Resources and Conservation of Resources Theories

Originally developed by Demerouti et al. (2001), Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory provides a framework for explaining how remote work arrangements can influence employee productivity. The theory distinguishes between job demands, which require sustained effort and may create psychological or physical costs, and job resources, which support goal achievement and employee functioning (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker et al., 2023).This distinction is relevant to remote work because conditions such as flexibility and autonomy can provide useful job resources, while monitoring, digital distractions and household interruptions can create additional job demands (Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021; Wang et al., 2021).

Empirical studies similarly show that remote work can involve both resources and demands. For instance, Prodanova and Kocarev's (2021) study found that technology anxiety and smartphone dependency created interruptions that affected employees' work efficacy and performance while working from home. Similarly, Wang et al. (2021) identified work-home interference, ineffective communication, procrastination and loneliness as challenges of remote-work. However, their findings also showed that remote-work conditions do not operate uniformly: autonomy was associated with lower loneliness, monitoring and workload with greater work-home interference, while workload was unexpectedly associated with lower procrastination. Self-discipline also influenced how employees responded to remote-work conditions. These (e.g. Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021; Wang et al., 2021) findings demonstrate that remote work contains both resources and demands whose effects can differ across employee outcomes.

Evidence from work-life boundary research further shows how remote-work conditions can function as resources or demands. For instance, Allen et al. (2021) found that employees' ability to separate work and non-work roles was associated with better work-non-work balance, while Scheibe et al. (2024) linked boundary-management practices with work-life balance and unfinished tasks. Similarly, flexibility and autonomy have been associated with favourable remote-work outcomes (Chatterjee et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021), whereas interruptions and distractions can hinder effective working (Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021). Monitoring is more complex, as it may provide structure and accountability but also create additional demands. Ravid et al. (2023) found no evidence that electronic performance monitoring directly improved employee performance.JD-R Theory therefore helps explain why flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and distractions may have different relationships with productivity, rather than assuming that remote work has a uniform effect.

While JD-R explains the demands and resources surrounding remote work, Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory provides an additional explanation for task avoidance behaviour. Originally developed by Hobfoll (1989), Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory proposes that individuals seek to acquire, retain and protect valued resources, and experience stress when these resources are threatened or depleted. This perspective is considered useful because employees may respond to demanding or resource-depleting work conditions by reducing effort, postponing tasks or turning temporarily to non-work activities to conserve remaining resources.

Empirical research supports this resource-conservation explanation of task avoidance behaviour. Chen et al. (2022) found that resource-depleting work conditions were associated with workplace procrastination, while

Zhou et al. (2023) showed that workplace stressors can contribute to cyberloafing through resource-related processes. More recent evidence shows that employees may engage in cyberloafing in response to resource-depleting work pressures. Lu et al. (2024) found that role stress increased emotional exhaustion, which in turn was associated with greater cyberloafing.These findings (i.e. Chen et al. 2022; Lu et al. 2024; Zhou et al., 2023) suggest that when remote-work demands drain employees' time, energy or attention, task avoidance may emerge as a way of conserving remaining resources.

The two theories provide different but related explanations for the outcomes of remote work. JD-R Theory explains how the balance between remote-work resources and demands can influence employee productivity, while COR Theory explains how employees may respond to resource depletion through task avoidance behaviours, including procrastination and cyberloafing. Together, they provide a basis for explaining why the same remote-work conditions may produce different performance and behavioural outcomes.

2.2 Remote Work Arrangements and Employee Productivity

Evidence on remote work and productivity remains mixed. For instance, Chatterjee et al. (2022), found that remote-work flexibility significantly enhanced organisational performance and that organisational policy and top-management support were important to its implementation. Bloom et al. (2024) provide methodologically stronger causal evidence from a six-month randomised controlled trial involving 1,612 employees. The study concludes that hybrid working improved job satisfaction and reduced quit rates by one-third but did not significantly damage performance ratings, promotions or lines of code written. These studies challenge the assumption that employees necessarily perform less effectively when they spend part of their working time away from the office.

However, the evidence does not establish that remote work itself causes higher productivity. Chatterjee et al. (2022) specifically examined remote-work flexibility, while Bloom et al. (2024) evaluated a particular hybrid arrangement of two home-working days each week. Their findings therefore concern particular forms or conditions of remote working rather than all remote-work arrangements. This distinction is important because reviews of the broader literature continue to report varied outcomes. For example, Aleem et al.' (2023) study describes the remote-work literature as fragmented across several employee, organisational, family and management themes. Similarly, McPhail et al. (2024) identified varied consequences of remote working for people and productivity, including greater flexibility and autonomy, improved work-life balance and productivity for some employees, but also social isolation, blurred work-life boundaries, communication difficulties and wellbeing concerns for others.

Meanwhile, extant literature from the UK further demonstrates the importance of individual differences. For instance, Baumann et al. (2023), using three-wave longitudinal data from UK workers, found that trait self-control was positively associated with performance and negatively associated with work distractions. Interestingly, employees with lower self-control improved over the four-month period: their reported distractions declined while their self-assessed performance increased. These findings challenge the assumption that employees with weaker self-regulation will inevitably perform poorly when working remotely. The study instead suggests that employees can adjust to remote-working demands over time.

Research also shows that distractions can shape employee performance during remote work.For instance, Prodanova and Kocarev (2021) found that technology anxiety and smartphone dependency created interruptions that affected work efficacy and subsequent performance. Baumann et al.'s (2023) study similarly found a negative association between self-control and reported work distractions among UK employees. Collectively, these findings indicate that productivity during remote work may depend partly on employees' ability to maintain attention rather than simply on their physical work location.

In a related development, electronic performance monitoring has become increasingly common as technology allows organisations to observe employee activities, including in remote-working settings (Kalischko& Riedl, 2021; König, 2025). However, as Nian et al.'s (2026) study suggests, evidence does not show consistent performance benefits. Siegel et al. (2022), in a meta-analysis of 70 independent samples, found no significant relationship between electronic monitoring and employee performance, but found small increases in stress and counterproductive work behaviour. Similarly, Ravid et al. (2023), drawing on 94 independent samples involving 23,461 workers, found no evidence that electronic performance monitoring improved performance. Instead, monitoring was associated with greater stress, although transparent and less invasive monitoring was associated with more favourable employee attitudes. In a recent study, König's (2025) review concluded that the overall relationship between monitoring and performance appears neutral, while monitoring shows a small positive relationship with strain and a small negative relationship with job attitudes.Together, these findings challenge

the assumption that greater monitoring necessarily improves employee performance and suggest that its effects depend partly on how monitoring is designed and experienced.

Overall, the literature suggests that remote-work productivity depends on the conditions surrounding remote work rather than remote work alone. However, the evidence remains fragmented. Chatterjee et al. (2022) focused on flexibility, Ravid et al. (2023) examined monitoring, Baumann et al. (2023) considered self-control and distractions, while Allen et al. (2021) and Scheibe et al. (2024) examined boundary management. Aleem et al.'s (2023) systematic review similarly highlights the fragmented nature of remote-work research. Consequently, limited evidence explains how flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and distractions individually and jointly relate to employee productivity, particularly in UK professional services. To address this conceptual and contextual gap, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H01: Work flexibility has a significant relationship with employee productivity.

H02: Work autonomy has a significant relationship with employee productivity.

H03: Remote-work monitoring has a significant relationship with employee productivity.

H04: Remote-work self-regulation has a significant relationship with employee productivity.

H05: Digital/non-digital distractions have a significant relationship with employee productivity.

H06: Remote work arrangements, considered jointly through the five dimensions, have a significant relationship with employee productivity.

2.3 Remote Work Arrangements and Task Avoidance Behaviour

The remote-work literature has given considerable attention to employee performance, productivity and wellbeing (Gualano et al., 2022; McPhail et al., 2024). Similarly, emerging evidence also identifies avoidance behaviours in remote-working environments. Wang et al. (2021), for example, identified procrastination as one of four key challenges experienced by remote workers, while Chakraborty et al. (2024) examined phubbing and cyberloafing among employees working remotely. Wang et al.'s (2021) study provides particularly useful evidence because procrastination emerged directly from interviews with remote workers as one of four major challenges, alongside work-home interference, ineffective communication and loneliness. Their subsequent survey of 522 employees also examined how autonomy, monitoring, workload, social support and self-discipline were associated with these challenges.

Wang et al. (2021) showed that the relationship between autonomy and remote-work outcomes is not always straightforward.Job autonomy was associated with lower loneliness but was not shown to directly reduce procrastination, while workload, perhaps counter-intuitively, was associated with lower procrastination. Thus, although greater discretion is often presented as an advantage of remote work, these findings do not establish that autonomy itself prevents employees from delaying tasks. This leaves the relationship between autonomy and task avoidance unclear and warrants its direct examination.

Beyond autonomy, employees' ability to manage their own behaviour also appears important in remote work. Wang et al. (2021) found that self-discipline influenced how employees responded to several remote-work challenges. UK evidence similarly shows that self-regulation can shape how employees perform and manage distractions while working remotely. Baumann et al. (2023) found that self-control was associated with better performance and fewer distractions among employees working from home. However, employees with initially lower self-control improved over time. This suggests that self-regulation matters, but its influence may vary across employees and over time.

The role of distractions becomes even clearer when task avoidance is considered. Studies of cyberloafing show how digital distractions can draw employees away from their work tasks (Wang et al., 2021; Chakraborty et al., 2024). For instance, Chakraborty et al. (2024) studied 222 remote employees and examined phubbing and cyberloafing within remote working. Their structural model found positive relationships between social-networking needs, perceptions of others' online behaviour and phubbing, while also examining the connection between phubbing and cyberloafing. This shows that digital behaviour can compete with work activity in remote settings. However, the study concentrated mainly on digitally mediated behaviour and does not establish whether non-digital household distractions operate in the same way.

Evidence from procrastination research further supports the link between remote-work conditions and task avoidance. Bendixen and Scheel (2024) for example, examined work intensification, procrastination and irritation during pandemic homeworking. Their study treated working from home as a potential condition that could strengthen the relationship between work intensification and procrastination. Meanwhile, Scheibe et al. (2024) investigated boundary-management tactics in relation to productivity, work-life balance and unfinished tasks among teleworkers. Together, these studies show that delaying or leaving work unfinished is a meaningful issue in remote settings, but they approach the behaviour through different concepts and mechanisms.

In similar vein, evidence concerning monitoring and avoidance in remote work remains particularly uncertain. Wang et al. (2021) identified monitoring as an important characteristic of virtual work, but their quantitative results associated monitoring with greater work-home interference rather than establishing that it reduced procrastination. Ravid et al.'s (2023) broader meta-analysis similarly found no evidence that electronic monitoring improved employee performance and found monitoring associated with increased stress. Therefore, while monitoring can reduce task avoidance, existing findings do not consistently support this expectation.

Consequently, the literature provides an incomplete understanding of task avoidance. Wang et al. (2021) examined procrastination alongside autonomy, monitoring and self-discipline; Chakraborty et al. (2024) concentrated on phubbing and cyberloafing; Bendixen and Scheel (2024) connected work intensification with procrastination; and Scheibe et al. (2024) examined unfinished tasks through boundary management. What remains unclear is how flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and digital/non-digital distractions relate to task avoidance in remote work when examined together, and whether the conditions associated with productivity show similar relationships with avoidant behaviour.

It is important to examine productivity and task avoidance separately because one is not simply the opposite of the other. Extant literature assesses these two outcomes differently. For instance, Bloom et al. (2024) examined performance ratings and objective work output, whereas Wang et al. (2021), Chakraborty et al. (2024) and Bendixen and Scheel (2024) examined procrastination or cyberloafing-related behaviours. Nevertheless, extant literature provides limited evidence on whether the same remote-work conditions relate similarly or differently to employee productivity and task avoidance. Examining both outcomes within one study therefore addresses this conceptual gap by allowing their relationships with flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and distractions to be compared.

There is also a contextual gap in extant literature. In particular, although remote working and productivity have been examined among UK employees (Deole et al., 2023) and professional services staff (Watermeyer et al., 2023), limited evidence explains how flexibility, autonomy, monitoring, self-regulation and digital/non-digital distractions jointly relate to both employee productivity and task avoidance within the UK professional services context. Figure 2.1 also captures the proposed relationships in the study. As a result, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H07: Work flexibility has a significant relationship with task avoidance behaviour.

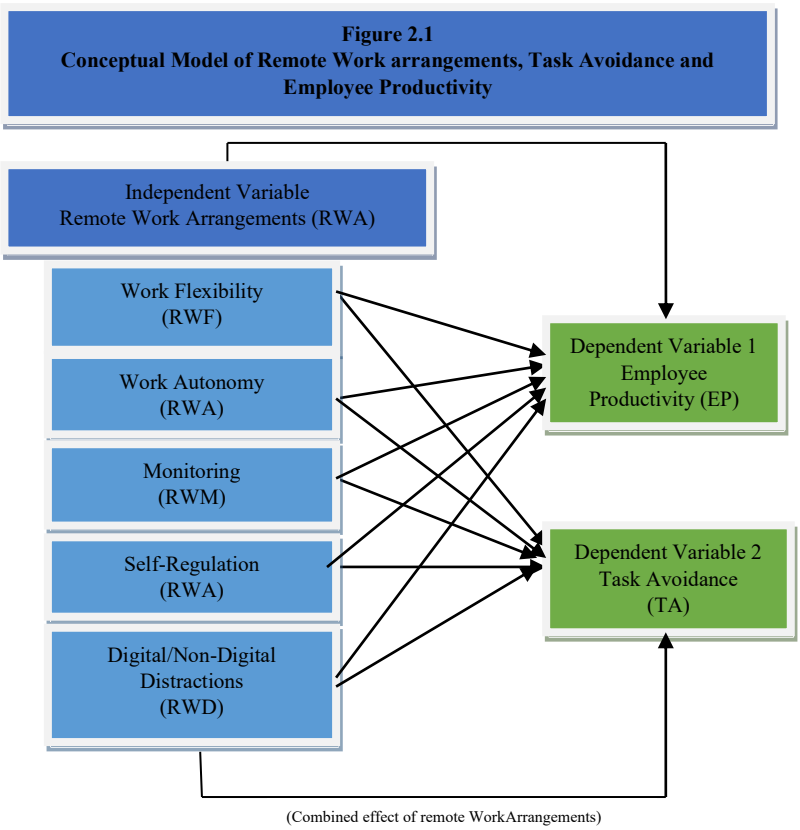
H08: Work autonomy has a significant relationship with task avoidance behaviour.

H09: Remote-work monitoring has a significant relationship with task avoidance behaviour.

H10: Remote-work self-regulation has a significant relationship with task avoidance behaviour.

H11: Digital/non-digital distractions have a significant relationship with task avoidance behaviour.

H12: Remote work arrangements, considered jointly through the five dimensions, have a significant relationship with task avoidance behaviour.



3. Methods

This section explains the methodology adopted to examine the relationships between remote work arrangements, employee productivity and task avoidance. It covers the research design, sampling, measurement, data collection, validity and reliability, ethical considerations, and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design and Approach

The study adopted a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. Quantitative research is appropriate where theoretically specified relationships are examined using numerical data and statistical hypothesis testing (Barroga et al., 2023). A qualitative design could have provided deeper accounts of employees' remote-working experiences, while a longitudinal design could have captured changes over time. However, cross-sectional designs are suitable for examining relationships among variables measured at a particular point in time, although they provide limited evidence about temporal causality (Maier et al., 2023).

The cross-sectional quantitative design was therefore preferred because the study examined relationships between work flexibility, work autonomy, remote-work monitoring, self-regulation, digital/non-digital distractions, employee productivity and task avoidance rather than changes in these relationships over time. A deductive approach was also adopted. Deduction begins with established theory, develops hypotheses before data collection and subsequently tests them against empirical evidence (Casula et al., 2021). An inductive approach would have been more suitable for developing explanations from emerging observations. Deduction was preferred because the study's hypotheses had already been developed from Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory, Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory and existing empirical evidence.

3.2 Population, Sampling and Sample Size

The study population comprised employees in UK professional services, including accounting, finance, consultancy, legal services, IT and related knowledge-based occupations. Participants were required to be employed in the UK and to have experience of fully remote or hybrid working, including working remotely for at least one day per week. These criteria ensured that respondents had direct experience of the working conditions examined in the study. Probability sampling could have provided stronger statistical

representativeness, but no complete sampling frame of UK professional-services employees with remote-working experience was available. Purposive sampling was therefore adopted. Unlike unrestricted convenience sampling, this approach allowed participation to be limited to respondents who satisfied the study's eligibility criteria. To this end,a minimum of 200 usable responses were targeted. Rather than relying solely on the traditional 10-times rule, which can inaccurately estimate PLS-SEM sample requirements, sample adequacy was informed by the inverse-square-root approach proposed by Kock and Hadaya (2018). The target also provided a practical balance between statistical requirements and access to eligible respondents.

3.3 Measures and Instrumentation

Data were collected using a structured, self-administered online questionnaire. Although new measures could have been developed specifically for the study, existing validated scales were adapted because they had already undergone psychometric evaluation. Work flexibility was adapted from the perceived job flexibility measure of Hill et al. (2001), while work autonomy was adapted from Breaugh's (1985, 1989) Work Autonomy Scale, covering method, scheduling and criteria autonomy. Breaugh reported satisfactory reliability and evidence of construct validity, with later validation supporting its multidimensional structure.

Remote-work monitoring was adapted from Snyder's electronic monitoring measure and contextualised to reflect monitoring practices in remote work. Self-regulation was adapted from the self-leadership measures applied to part-time teleworkers by Müller and Niessen (2019). Their measures captured behavioural self-regulation strategies such as self-goal setting, self-cueing, self-reward and visualisation of successful performance. The measures demonstrated acceptable reliability and validity in the original teleworking context, while subsequent research has supported the relevance of self-leadership strategies to home working (Patterer et al., 2024).

Digital distractions were informed by the technology-related interruptions and smartphone dependency measures used by Prodanova and Kocarev (2021), while non-digital distractions were informed by established work-nonwork boundary measures. The distinction was retained because technology-based interruptions and household interruptions represent different sources of distraction in remote work.Employee productivity was measured using relevant task-performance items from the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) developed by Koopmans et al. (2013). The original instrument demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency and construct validity across occupational groups. Task avoidance was adapted from the Procrastination at Work Scale (PAWS) developed by Metin, Taris and Peeters (2016). Its original validation supported the two dimensions of soldiering and cyberslacking, with subsequent cross-national validation providing further evidence of its reliability and validity.

3.4 Validity and Reliability

The study adapted established measures rather than developing an entirely new questionnaire. However, evidence of reliability and validity from earlier studies was treated as support for the choice of the measures, not as proof that the adapted versions were valid in the present context. The original measures had varying levels of psychometric support. Breaugh's (1985, 1989) Work Autonomy Scale provided evidence of internal consistency, convergent and discriminant validity, and supported the distinction between method, scheduling and criteria autonomy. The self-regulation items were adapted from the self-leadership measures used by Müller and Niessen (2019) among part-time teleworkers, making them particularly relevant to the remote-work setting. The Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) was developed and tested among 1,181 workers, with factor and Rasch analyses supporting its construct validity (Koopmans et al., 2013). Similarly, Metin et al. (2016) established the factorial validity of the Procrastination at Work Scale (PAWS), distinguishing soldiering from cyberslacking.

The other remote-work measures were also drawn from established studies, although the nature of their reported psychometric evidence varied. In particular, work flexibility was adapted from Hill et al. (2001), who measured employees' perceived flexibility over where and when they worked; an originating reliability coefficient could not be verified and was therefore not reported. Remote-work monitoring was informed by Snyder (2010), whose original measure assessed perceived monitoring of electronic communication use and content rather than providing a fully validated multidimensional monitoring scale. Digital-distraction items were adapted from the smartphone dependency and work-interruption measures used by Prodanova and Kocarev (2021). Their measurement model met accepted requirements for internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity, with SRMR=.05 and NFI=.93. Non-digital distraction items were adapted to capture household and environmental interruptions relevant to working from home.

Because several items were adapted and contextualised, their original psychometric properties were not assumed to transfer automatically to UK professional services. Before the main survey, two experienced professionals from each of the selected UK professional services, legal, accounting, finance, consultancy and IT, reviewed the adapted items for content relevance, clarity and contextual suitability. Each reviewer had at least 10 years of professional experience. Their feedback was used to refine unclear or contextually inappropriate wording without changing the underlying meaning of the constructs. This process was followed by pilot testing with respondents similar to the target population. Feedback was used to refine unclear wording without changing the intended meaning of the constructs.

The adapted measures were then revalidated using the main study data through PLS-SEM. Indicator loadings were assessed for indicator reliability; Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were examined for internal consistency; and average variance extracted (AVE) was used to assess convergent validity. Discriminant validity was assessed using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) rather than relying only on the traditional Fornell–Larcker criterion. This combination provided a more rigorous assessment of whether the adapted measures remained reliable and empirically distinct in the present study.

3.5 Data Collection and Ethical Considerations

The questionnaire was administered online to facilitate access to professional-services employees across the UK. Employer-administered questionnaires could have improved organisational access but might also have discouraged honest responses concerning monitoring, procrastination and cyberslacking. Anonymous direct participation was therefore preferred. Ethical approval was granted by the University of Central Lancashire Research Ethics Committee (REC) before data collection. Participants received information explaining the purpose and requirements of the study and provided informed consent before participating. Participation was voluntary, no directly identifying information was collected, and responses were securely stored and reported only in aggregate form.

3.6 Data Analysis

Data were initially screened and summarised using SPSS, including checks for missing data and descriptive statistics. Hypotheses were subsequently tested using PLS-SEM in SmartPLS. Covariance-based SEM could have been used where confirmation of an established theoretical model was the primary purpose. However, PLS-SEM was preferred because the study focused on explaining and predicting two outcomes using several latent remote-work constructs. Following contemporary PLS-SEM guidance (Sarstedt et al., 2022), analysis proceeded in two stages. First, the measurement model was assessed for indicator reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Second, the structural model was evaluated using collinearity statistics, path coefficients, bootstrapped significance, R^2, f^2 and Q^2. Where appropriate, PLSpredict was also used to assess out-of-sample predictive performance (Shmueli et al., 2019). This approach enabled the five remote-work dimensions to be examined individually and jointly in relation to both employee productivity and task avoidance.

4. Results

This section presents the findings of the study conducted between July and September 2025. A total of 206 valid responses were obtained from employees in selected UK professional services. The analysis begins with respondents' demographic and employment characteristics (see Table 4.1).

4.1 Demographic and Employment Characteristics of Respondents

Table 4.1: Demographic and Employment Characteristics (N = 206)

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age	16–35 years	129	62.6
	36–55 years	55	26.7
	56 years and above	22	10.7
Gender	Male	91	44.2
	Female	115	55.8
Education	Bachelor's degree	60	29.1

	Master's degree	63	30.6
	Doctorate	22	10.7
	Professional certification	61	29.6
Industry	Legal services	46	22.3
	Accounting/Audit	56	27.2
	IT services	66	32.0
	Architecture	38	18.4
Firm size	Large (above 250 employees)	142	68.9
	Medium (51–250 employees)	47	22.8
	Small (2–50 employees)	17	8.3
Remote-working frequency	Fully remote	62	30.1
	3–4 days per week	59	28.6
	1–2 days per week	85	41.3

As Table 4.1 shows, most respondents were aged 16-35 (62.6%), while females (55.8%) slightly outnumbered males (44.2%). Respondents were highly educated, with master's degree holders forming the largest group (30.6%). IT services had the highest representation (32.0%), followed by accounting/audit (27.2%), legal services (22.3%) and architecture (18.4%). Most respondents worked in large firms (68.9%). All had remote-working experience: 41.3% worked remotely 1-2 days weekly, 28.6% worked remotely 3-4 days, and 30.1% worked fully remotely. Overall, the sample largely comprised younger, highly educated professionals working in large firms under hybrid arrangements.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of the Study Constructs

Table 4.2: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Study Constructs

Construct	Mean	SD	RWF	WA	RWM	RWS	RWD	EP	TA
Work Flexibility (RWF)	1.846	0.836	1						
Work Autonomy (WA)	1.790	0.686	.460**	1					
Remote-Work Monitoring (RWM)	1.906	0.730	.299**	.219**	1				
Remote-Work Self-Regulation (RWS)	1.867	0.676	.221**	.281**	.240**	1			
Remote-Work Distractions (RWD)	2.498	1.209	.031	−.004	.328**	.018	1		
Employee Productivity (EP)	1.712	0.612	.202**	.287**	.191**	.134	−.072	1	
Task Avoidance (TA)	3.348	1.134	−.080	−.015	.111	−.159*	.465**	−.219**	1

*Note: N = 206. Pearson's correlation (two-tailed). *p < .05; **p < .01. Composite scores were calculated as the mean of the relevant construct items.*

To provide an initial understanding of the study variables, composite scores were calculated from their respective questionnaire items. Means and standard deviations were computed, followed by Pearson's

correlation analysis to examine the direction and strength of the bivariate relationships among the constructs (see Table 4.2). The analysis was based on 206 respondents.

The descriptive results showed that employee productivity recorded the lowest mean (M = 1.712, SD = 0.612), while task avoidance recorded the highest (M = 3.348, SD = 1.134). The other means ranged from 1.790 for work autonomy to 2.498 for remote-work distractions. Employee productivity correlated significantly with work flexibility (r = .202, p = .004), work autonomy (r = .287, p < .001) and remote-work monitoring (r = .191, p = .006), but not with self-regulation or distractions. Task avoidance correlated positively with distractions (r = .465, p < .001) and negatively with self-regulation (r = −.159, p = .023) and employee productivity (r = −.219, p = .002). Its correlations with flexibility, autonomy and monitoring were not significant.

4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Measurement Model and Hypothesis Testing

EFA was conducted first, followed by assessment of the PLS-SEM measurement and structural models.

4.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The data were suitable for factor analysis, with KMO = .847 and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, $\chi^2(820) = 5{,}105.27$, $p < .001$. The specified seven-factor solution explained 64.10% of the total variance. Primary rotated factor loadings ranged from approximately .597 to .893, generally supporting the proposed factor structure.

4.3.2 Measurement Model

RWS3 recorded a low outer loading of .497 and was removed. The remaining constructs as seen in Table 4.3 met the reliability and convergent validity requirements.

Table 4.3: Construct Reliability and Convergent Validity Assessment

Construct	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Work Flexibility (RWF)	.873	.905	.657
Work Autonomy (WA)	.825	.868	.526
Remote-Work Monitoring (RWM)	.814	.866	.565
Remote-Work Self-Regulation (RWS)	.791	.849	.533
Remote-Work Distractions (RWD)	.944	.955	.781
Employee Productivity (EP)	.776	.847	.526
Task Avoidance (TA)	.943	.952	.713

Cronbach's alpha and CR values exceeded .70, while AVE exceeded .50 for all retained constructs (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.4: Discriminant Validity Assessment Using the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	RWF	WA	RWM	RWS	RWD	EP
Work Autonomy (WA)	.537					
Remote-Work Monitoring (RWM)	.360	.260				
Remote-Work Self-Regulation (RWS)	.296	.384	.335			

Remote-Work Distractions (RWD)	.069	.069	.372	.078	
Employee Productivity (EP)	.248	.353	.253	.225	.107

Discriminant validity was also assessed using the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) to establish whether the study constructs were sufficiently distinct from one another. As shown in Table 4.4, all HTMT values were below .85, supporting discriminant validity among the constructs.

4.3.3 Hypothesis Testing

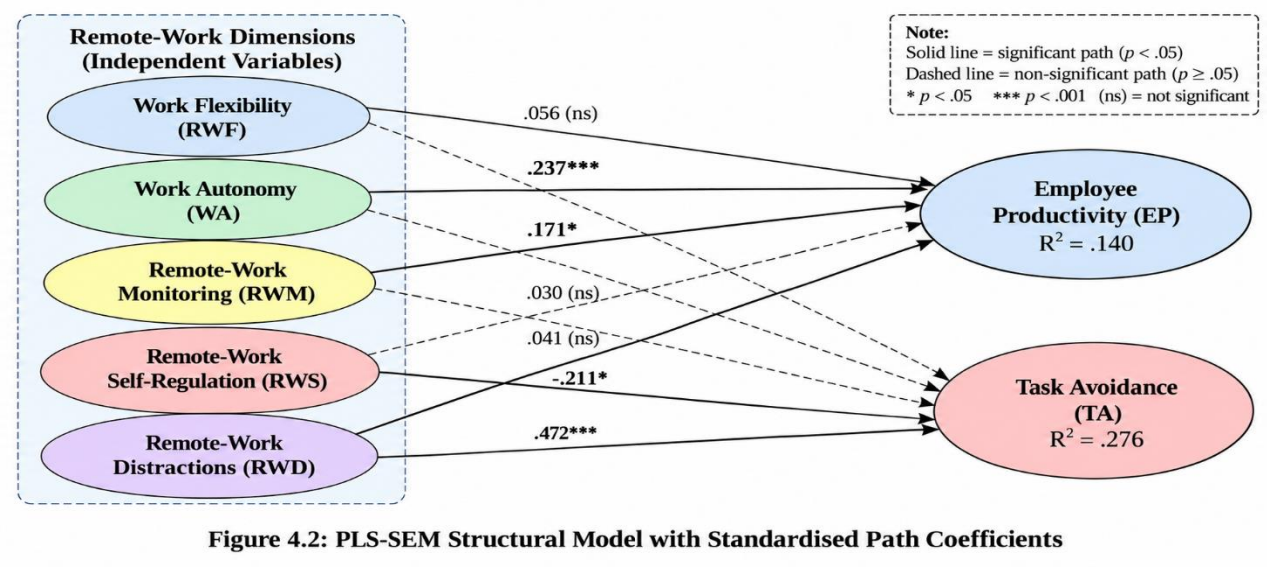


Figure 4.2: PLS-SEM Structural Model with Standardised Path Coefficients

Table 4.5: PLS-SEM Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	Structural Path	β	p-value	Decision
H01	Work Flexibility → Employee Productivity	.056	.391	Not supported
H02	Work Autonomy → Employee Productivity	.237	<.001	Supported
H03	Remote-Work Monitoring → Employee Productivity	.171	.020	Supported
H04	Remote-Work Self-Regulation → Employee Productivity	.030	.742	Not supported
H05	Remote-Work Distractions → Employee Productivity	-.136	.018	Supported
H06	Remote-Work Dimensions → Employee Productivity	-	R^2 = .140	Supported
H07	Work Flexibility → Task Avoidance	−.102	.168	Not supported
H08	Work Autonomy → Task Avoidance	.091	.214	Not supported
H09	Remote-Work Monitoring → Task Avoidance	.041	.519	Not supported
H10	Remote-Work Self-Regulation → Task Avoidance	-.211	.011	Supported
H11	Remote-Work Distractions → Task Avoidance	.472	<.001	Supported
H12	Remote-Work Dimensions → Task Avoidance	-	R^2 = .276	Supported

Note: β = standardised path coefficient; R^2 = coefficient of determination; significance level = p < .05.

Figure 4.2 presents the PLS-SEM structural model, while Table 4.5 summarises the corresponding hypothesis tests. The five remote-work dimensions explained 14.0% of the variance in employee productivity (R^2 = .140) and 27.6% of the variance in task avoidance (R^2 = .276).As shown in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.5, H01 was not

supported, as work flexibility was not significantly related to employee productivity (β = .056, p = .391). H02 and H03 were supported: work autonomy (β = .237, p < .001) and remote-work monitoring (β = .171, p = .020) had significant positive relationships with productivity. H04 was not supported, as self-regulation was not significantly related to productivity (β = .030, p = .742). H05 was supported, with remote-work distractions showing a significant negative relationship with productivity (β = −.136, p = .018). Collectively, the remote-work dimensions explained 14.0% of employee productivity, supporting H06.For task avoidance, H07, H08 and H09 were not supported, as work flexibility (β = −.102, p = .168), work autonomy (β = .091, p = .214) and remote-work monitoring (β = .041, p = .519) were not significant. H10 was supported, as self-regulation had a significant negative relationship with task avoidance (β = −.211, p = .011). H11 was also supported, with remote-work distractions showing a significant positive relationship with task avoidance (β = .472, p < .001). Collectively, the five remote-work dimensions explained 27.6% of task avoidance, supporting H12.

5. Discussion

The findings show that remote work does not influence employees in one simple way. Some conditions were related to productivity, others to task avoidance, while some had no significant relationship with either outcome. This supports the argument that remote work involves a mix of resources and demands rather than being inherently beneficial or harmful.

Work Flexibility and Employee Productivity

Work flexibility was not significantly related to employee productivity (β = .056, p = .391); therefore, H01 was not supported. This contrasts with Chatterjee et al. (2022), who found that remote-work flexibility was positively associated with organisational performance. However, their study examined organisational rather than individual performance, making direct comparison difficult. Bloom et al. (2024) also found that hybrid working did not significantly affect employee performance, despite improving other outcomes such as job satisfaction and retention. Together, these findings suggest that flexibility may offer employees useful choices about when and where they work without necessarily making them more productive. This also shows why flexibility should not automatically be treated as a performance-enhancing resource simply because employees value it.

Work Autonomy and Employee Productivity

Work autonomy was positively related to productivity (β = .237, p < .001), supporting H02. This agrees with Wang et al. (2021), who identified autonomy as an important resource in remote work. Interestingly, autonomy was significant while flexibility was not. This difference suggests that having control over how work is done may matter more for productivity than simply having freedom over when or where to work. From a JD-R perspective, autonomy may provide employees with the discretion needed to organise their tasks around professional demands, making it a useful job resource. However, its non-significant relationship with task avoidance shows that greater autonomy does not necessarily mean employees avoid fewer tasks. Autonomy appears more relevant to how effectively employees work than to whether they remain continuously engaged with work.

Remote-Work Monitoring and Employee Productivity

Monitoring was positively related to productivity (β = .171, p = .020), supporting H03. This contrasts with Siegel et al. (2022), Ravid et al. (2023) and König (2025), who reported little or no general performance benefit from electronic monitoring. The present finding therefore challenges the view that monitoring is necessarily a burden in remote work. In professional services, where employees often work away from direct supervision, monitoring may provide structure or accountability. However, this explanation was not directly tested and should therefore be treated cautiously. Notably, monitoring was associated with productivity but not with lower task avoidance. Thus, monitoring may be associated with how much employees accomplish without necessarily preventing them from postponing tasks or engaging in non-work activities. The cross-sectional design also means that the finding should not be interpreted as evidence that monitoring caused higher productivity.

Self-Regulation and Employee Productivity

Self-regulation was not significantly related to productivity (β = .030, p = .742); therefore, H04 was not supported. This partly contrasts with Baumann et al. (2023), who found that self-control was positively associated with performance. However, their longitudinal evidence also showed that employees with initially lower self-control improved over time as distractions declined and performance increased. This suggests that the relationship is less straightforward than simply assuming that highly self-disciplined employees are more productive.

An interesting contrast emerged when self-regulation was considered across productivity and task avoidance behaviour.Self-regulation was unrelated to productivity but was significantly associated with lower task avoidance. This suggests that self-regulation may help employees resist procrastination, cyberloafing or other activities that pull them away from work without necessarily increasing their overall productivity. Put simply, being disciplined enough to stay on task does not automatically mean performing the task more productively. This distinction further supports treating productivity and task avoidance as related but separate outcomes.

Remote-Work Distractions and Employee Productivity

Distractions were negatively related to productivity (β = -.136, p = .018), supporting H05. This agrees with Prodanova and Kocarev (2021), who found that technology anxiety and smartphone dependency created interruptions that affected work efficacy and performance. Baumann et al. (2023) similarly linked work distractions with employees' performance while working from home. Unlike self-regulation, therefore, distractions remained significantly related to productivity when the remote-work dimensions were considered together. This supports JD-R Theory because digital and non-digital interruptions can act as job demands by competing for the attention employees need to complete their work effectively.

Collectively, the five remote-work dimensions explained 14.0% of the variance in productivity, supporting H06. This modest explanatory power is itself informative: remote-work conditions matter, but they provide only part of the explanation for productivity. This agrees with the wider literature, which points to other influences such as management support, communication, work-life boundaries and individual differences. Notably, the individual results show that the five dimensions did not contribute in the same way. Autonomy and monitoring were positively related to productivity, distractions were negatively related, while flexibility and self-regulation were not significant. This reinforces the study's argument that remote work should not be treated as one uniform working condition.

Work Flexibility, Autonomy and Monitoring versus Task Avoidance

Flexibility (β = −.102, p = .168), autonomy (β = .091, p = .214) and monitoring (β = .041, p = .519) were not significantly related to task avoidance. H07, H08 and H09 were therefore not supported. The findings suggest that having greater freedom over when and how work is done does not necessarily encourage employees to avoid tasks, but neither does it appear to prevent such behaviour. This is consistent with Wang et al. (2021), who showed that remote-work conditions do not operate uniformly across employee outcomes.

A particularly interesting contrast in the results concerns autonomy and monitoring. Both autonomy and monitoring were positively related to productivity, yet neither was related to task avoidance. Thus, conditions associated with higher productivity were not necessarily associated with less procrastination or withdrawal from tasks. The monitoring result is especially noteworthy because monitoring might be expected to discourage task avoidance by increasing accountability. This expectation was not supported. It is consistent with Ravid et al. (2023), Siegel et al. (2022) and König (2025), whose findings question whether electronic monitoring consistently produces desirable performance or behavioural outcomes. Overall, these contrasting results strengthen the argument that productivity and task avoidance are related but distinct outcomes: an employee can remain productive while still engaging in some task avoidance, and reducing task avoidance does not automatically mean higher productivity.

Self-Regulation and Task Avoidance

Self-regulation was negatively related to task avoidance (β = -.211, p = .011), supporting H10. This is consistent with Wang et al. (2021), who found that self-discipline helped employees deal with remote-work challenges, including procrastination. It also agrees with the wider evidence that resource-depleting work conditions can encourage procrastination and cyberloafing (Chen et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2023; Lu et al., 2024). However, an interesting contrast emerged: self-regulation was associated with lower task avoidance but not with higher productivity. This suggests that being able to regulate one's behaviour may help employees resist postponing tasks or drifting into non-work activities, without necessarily making them more productive. In other words, staying on task is not the same as performing better. This finding supports COR Theory because self-regulation can act as a personal resource for managing competing demands and conserving the attention needed to remain engaged with work.

Remote-Work Distractions and Task Avoidance

Distractions had a strong positive relationship with task avoidance (β = .472, p < .001), supporting H11 and representing the strongest relationship in the model. This is consistent with Chen et al. (2022), Zhou et al. (2023) and Lu et al. (2024), who linked resource-depleting work conditions with procrastination and cyberloafing. It also complements Prodanova and Kocarev (2021), who found that technology-related interruptions disrupted work efficacy and performance. However, the present study goes further by considering both digital and non-digital distractions and showing that their relationship with task avoidance (β = .472) was much stronger than their negative relationship with productivity (β = -.136). This suggests that distractions may be more closely connected with employees moving away from intended tasks than with productivity itself.

This distinction is important because distractions were the only remote-work dimension significantly related to both outcomes. While autonomy and monitoring were associated only with productivity, and self-regulation only with task avoidance, distractions cut across both. This supports the COR argument that demands which consume employees' attention and energy can be associated with avoidance behaviours. Overall, the five remote-work dimensions explained more variance in task avoidance (R^2 = .276) than in productivity (R^2 = .140). The findings therefore suggest that the conditions surrounding remote work may be more useful for understanding why employees drift away from their tasks than for explaining their overall level of productivity.

In summary, the findings reveal that autonomy and monitoring mattered for productivity; self-regulation mattered for task avoidance; distractions mattered for both; and flexibility was significant for neither. This helps address the gap identified in earlier research, where these remote-work conditions were often examined separately. It also adds some nuance to JD-R and COR theories. Remote-work resources are not automatically beneficial, and demands are not equally harmful. What appears to matter is the particular work condition and the employee outcome being considered.

This study examined how five dimensions of remote-work arrangements, work flexibility, work autonomy, remote-work monitoring, self-regulation and digital/non-digital distractions, relate to employee productivity and task avoidance in UK professional services. The findings show that remote work does not have one uniform relationship with employee behaviour and performance. Instead, the study shows that different remote-work conditions matter in different ways.

For employee productivity, work autonomy and monitoring had significant positive relationships, while distractions had a significant negative relationship. Flexibility and self-regulation were not significant. For task avoidance, self-regulation had a significant negative relationship, while distractions had a strong positive relationship. Flexibility, autonomy and monitoring were not significant. Overall, the five dimensions explained 14.0% of employee productivity and 27.6% of task avoidance.

A noteworthy finding is that productivity and task avoidance are not simply opposite outcomes. Autonomy and monitoring were associated with productivity but not task avoidance, while self-regulation was associated with task avoidance but not productivity. Distractions were the only dimension significantly related to both outcomes. The study therefore concludes that understanding remote work requires attention to the particular conditions under which employees work and the particular outcome being considered. This supports the wider literature showing that remote work can provide both resources and demands rather than being inherently beneficial or harmful.

The findings provide qualified support for Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory. Autonomy behaved as a useful job resource through its positive relationship with productivity, while distractions behaved as a job demand through their negative relationship with productivity. However, flexibility was not significantly related to productivity, and monitoring showed a positive rather than harmful relationship. The findings therefore suggest that remote-work conditions should not be automatically classified as beneficial resources or harmful demands without considering the outcome being examined. This adds some nuance to the JD-R explanation of remote work.

The findings also support the relevance of Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory to task avoidance. Self-regulation was associated with lower task avoidance, while distractions were strongly associated with greater task avoidance. This is consistent with the idea that employees use personal resources to manage demands, while conditions that consume attention and energy can encourage withdrawal into procrastination or other non-work activities. Notably, the findings connect the two theoretical perspectives by showing that the same remote-work condition can have different relationships with performance and behaviour. This helps explain why productivity and task avoidance should be studied separately.

For managers among UK professional service organisations, the findings suggest that simply allowing employees to work flexibly may not be enough to improve productivity. Greater attention should be given to how much control employees have over performing their work, since autonomy showed the strongest positive relationship with productivity.

The findings also highlight that monitoring also requires careful interpretation. Although it was positively related to productivity, it was unrelated to task avoidance. Managers among UK professional service organisationsshould therefore not assume that greater monitoring will automatically stop procrastination or non-work activities. This is particularly important given previous research showing that monitoring can also be associated with stress and less favourable employee attitudes.

The findings also highlight distractions as an important issue in remote work among UK professional service organisations. Digital notifications, personal online activities, household demands, noise and interruptions can compete with employees' attention. Organisations can help by encouraging reasonable communication boundaries, reducing unnecessary digital interruptions and helping employees create suitable remote-working environments. Self-regulation support may also be useful because it was associated with lower task avoidance.

In accordance with the findings, remote-work policies at organisational level should move beyond simply specifying how many days employees may work remotely. They should also address the quality of remote working. Policies for UK professional service organisationscan clarify expectations around autonomy, monitoring, communication, availability and digital interruptions.

The findings further indicate that monitoring policies among UK professional service organisationsparticularlyFrequire transparency. Employees should understand what is monitored, why it is monitored and how the information is used. This is relevant because existing research shows that monitoring outcomes can depend partly on how monitoring is designed and experienced.

Remote-working guidance among UK professional service organisationsshould also recognise the importance of digital and non-digital distractions. Rather than placing responsibility entirely on employees, organisations should consider how workload, communication practices, technology and work design can help employees maintain attention while working remotely.

Based on the findings, the study recommends that:

i. UK professional service organisations should give remote employees reasonable discretion over how they organise and complete their professional tasks.

ii. UK professional service organisations should ensure that remote-work policies distinguish employees' freedom to choose when or where they work from their control over how work is performed.

iii. UK professional service organisations should use remote-work monitoring to support agreed tasks and outcomes rather than relying on increased surveillance to prevent task avoidance.

iv. UK professional service organisations should establish clear expectations around emails, instant messages, virtual meetings and response times, particularly for work requiring sustained concentration.

v. UK professional service organisations should provide practical guidance to help remote employees manage household interruptions and maintain reasonable boundaries between work and personal activities.

vi. UK professional service organisations should support realistic goal setting, task planning, prioritisation and attention management. Such support may help reduce task avoidance rather than being assumed to automatically increase productivity.

The study has some limitations. First, its cross-sectional design identifies relationships but cannot establish causality. Future studies could use longitudinal or experimental designs to examine whether changes in remote-work conditions lead to changes in productivity or task avoidance.Second, the study relied on self-reported data, which may be affected by common-method and response biases. Future studies could combine employee responses with supervisor ratings, objective performance indicators or digital work records. Third, the study focused on selected UK professional-service organisations, so the findings should not automatically be generalised to other sectors or countries.Future research could also examine why these relationships occur. For example, researchers could investigate whether work engagement, stress, attention or work-life boundaries explain the relationship between distractions and task avoidance. The unexpected positive relationship between

monitoring and productivity also deserves further investigation, particularly by distinguishing supportive, transparent and intrusive forms of monitoring.

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