THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REMOTE WORK AND
JOB SATISFACTION: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF
PERCEIVED PRODUCTIVITY, ENGAGEMENT, AND
PERSONALITY TYPE.

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award
of the Strategic Management and Digital Marketing at the Faculty of Economics,
Management and Accountancy at the University of Malta

November 2023
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ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Remote Work and Job Satisfaction: The Mediating Roles of Perceived Productivity, Engagement, and Personality Type.

by Karolina Wilczyński

The objective of this research was to investigate the relationship between remote work and the level of job satisfaction among employees in the workplace. Moreover, it aimed to explore the potential mediating roles of perceived productivity, engagement, and personality traits. A total of 137 employees from the financial sector in Malta were involved in this research, utilizing an online survey. The study did not uncover a significant connection between job satisfaction and remote work. Additionally, none of the hypotheses proposing mediating effects of perceived productivity, engagement, and personality traits were validated. However, a robust and statistically meaningful connection was detected between perceived productivity and remote work, as well as engagement. The primary ramification of these results is that expanding telecommuting within organizations may prove to be an effective strategy for enhancing employees' perceived productivity and engagement levels.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to convey my heartfelt appreciation to a multitude of individuals who have been instrumental in the successful accomplishment of my master's dissertation. Foremost, I want to extend my sincere appreciation to my dedicated supervisor, Alexandra Kirienko, for her steadfast support, invaluable guidance, and unwavering commitment during this journey. Your patience, expertise, and insightful feedback have been instrumental in shaping this research into its final form, and I am deeply thankful for your guidance.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the entire university staff, from the librarians to the administrative team, whose contributions ensured a conducive research environment. Your tireless efforts and assistance did not go unnoticed, and I am thankful for the resources, facilities, and academic atmosphere that the university provided.

I am profoundly grateful to the study participants, as their willingness to share their insights and experiences was essential to the success of my research. Your time, cooperation, and candid responses were invaluable and greatly appreciated.

I want to acknowledge my loving husband, Tomasz, whose unwavering support and encouragement sustained me through the challenging phases of this journey. Your patience, understanding, and belief in my capabilities were my pillars of strength. This accomplishment would not have been possible without you by my side, and for this, I am infinitely thankful.

Lastly, I want to thank myself for the resilience, determination, and continuous effort that I have put into this journey. It is through self-belief and self-motivation that I have reached this milestone, and I am immensely proud of this personal achievement.
INTRODUCTION

The concept of remote work has undergone significant transformation in recent decades, influenced by changes in work organization practices and advancements in information technologies and communication. In the early 1980s, terms like 'telework' and 'telecommuting' emerged to describe work conducted remotely, primarily from home, limited by the technology available at the time. However, the landscape of remote work has evolved dramatically with the proliferation of mobile devices, internet access, and the global web. Today, remote work encompasses various arrangements, including remote work, smart work, flexible working, hybrid work and ICT-based mobile work (TICTM) reflecting the diversity of work practices in the modern era (EU Framework Agreement on Telework 2002, Lee 2016, Allen et al. 2015, Yoe 2023).

The COVID-19 pandemic expedited the embrace of remote work, reshaping the global work landscape (Eurofound 2022). Measures related to public health, like social distancing and lockdowns, necessitated a rapid shift to remote work arrangements. This unprecedented shift prompted organizations to reevaluate their work practices and the consequences of telecommuting for job satisfaction and productivity. Understanding the link between job satisfaction and remote work has become a critical area of inquiry, given its potential impact on individual well-being and organizational outcomes.

The World Health Organization made an official declaration on May 5, 2023, stating that the worldwide pandemic had concluded, marking a significant milestone in the ongoing battle against COVID-19 (WHO 2023). This announcement signaled a new phase in the world's response to the pandemic, with many countries gradually lifting restrictions and returning to a semblance of normalcy. As the world transitioned away from pandemic-induced remote work mandates, it presented a unique opportunity to evaluate the enduring effects of remote work on job satisfaction, beyond the immediate crisis response.

As remote work continues to gain prominence, understanding its impact on job satisfaction is paramount. Employees’ satisfaction with their jobs has far-reaching implications, including increased productivity, reduced turnover rates, and enhanced overall organizational performance.

Previous investigations have delved into the correlation between job satisfaction and remote work, but no emphasis was placed on seeking to uncover the underlying
mechanisms and key predictors. Only previous study conducted by M.A. Shall of remote work have examined factors such as work-family conflict, perceived autonomy, telecommuting intensity as potential predictors of job satisfaction in remote work environments.

This dissertation draws its inspiration from the research conducted by Marie Antoinette Schall on remote work (Schall 2019). Building upon this research, the present thesis aims to investigate other predictors and factors contributing to our comprehension of how remote work affects job satisfaction. Moreover, the research will update existing knowledge with a viewpoint following the conclusion of the global COVID-19 pandemic.

Existing studies conducted within the domain has paved the way for our comprehension of the satisfaction and remote work nexus. However, this thesis aims to expand upon current knowledge base by investigating the mediation effect of perceived productivity, engagement, and personality type in this intricate relationship. Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical framework put forward for investigating the hypotheses in the present research.

![Conceptual Framework: The Interplay of Remote Work, Job Satisfaction, and Mediating Variables](image)

**Figure 1. Conceptual Framework: The Interplay of Remote Work, Job Satisfaction, and Mediating Variables**

Within the literature review section, I commence by defining and conceptualizing remote work. Following that, I will proceed to present COVID-19 Pandemic Impact on remote work. Subsequently, I examine prior scholarly works concerning the straightforward connection between job satisfaction and remote work, delving into the various arguments put forth by researchers due to their contradictory
findings in this regard. Next will summarize the current literature on perceived productivity as a possible intermediary factor that could influence the connection between job satisfaction and remote work. Following this, I explore literature pertaining to engagement as another possible intermediary factor in the context of remote work and job satisfaction. Finally, I evaluate the body of literature that delves into the role of personality type as a potential mediator in the connection between telecommuting and job satisfaction.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Defining and Conceptualising Remote Work

Remote work has been a widely discussed topic in the scientific literature, with various concepts emerging and evolving throughout the recent few decades, reflecting the influence of new information and communication technologies (ICT) and changes in work organisation practices. In the 1980s, the primary terminologies for remote work were 'telework' and 'telecommuting', which originated from the work of Jack Nilles (1988). During that era, telework referred to an employee carrying out work from their home, with the understanding that the work would be performed remotely, yet stationary. This was due to the limited capabilities of the initial wave of ICT. Fixed telephones and personal computers failed to offer much versatility or portability in terms of work location. However, in more recent times, the proliferation of smaller, cheaper, and more linked to network electronic devices like mobile phones and tablets, alongside with the ubiquitous availability of the internet and the global web, has resulted in a variety of methods for conducting and organising ICT-enabled work (Messenger & Gschwind 2016). As a results, the conventional comprehension of remote work as regular work conducted from home executed by a traditional full-time employee has become inadequate.

In current times, 'telework' is a commonly utilized phrase in empirical investigations conducted in Europe, and it encompasses various working arrangements and concepts. In accordance with the EU Framework Agreement on Telework (2002), telework is characterized as a type of work organization or performance that employs information technology, within an employment contract, where routine tasks are carried out away from the employer's site but could have been completed there.

The term 'telework' can encompass various working arrangements and concepts, including a type of work arrangement referred to as ICT-based mobile work (TICTM) and Telework. This involves the use of ICT like laptops, mobile phones, and desktop computers, to perform duties at a job site other than the employer' workplace (Eurofound and ILO, 2017). While TICTM falls under the umbrella of telework, it differentiates between the traditional form of telework where an employee works from home or a fixed location, and the use of ICT for mobile work.
Another concept of telework is Smart work coined by Lee (2016), which is a flexible working system that, via the use of ICT on a network, enables employees to do tasks quickly and conveniently without regard to time or location. Allen et al (2015) introduced the concept of flexible working arrangements, which allows tasks to be performed beyond the temporal limitations and/or standard spatial of a typical workday.

To keep up with the changes in telework practices over the past decade, the terms "virtual work" and "mobile virtual work" have emerged. Virtual work refers to any type of work, whether paid or unpaid, that involves the use of telecommunications and digital technology and producing content for online platforms (Randle and Webster 2016). On the other hand, mobile virtual work shares the same characteristics as virtual work but allows for physical mobility while performing work tasks (Vartiainen 2006). Similarly, with the ongoing social and economic changes, 'hybrid work’ defines as combination of both on-site and off-site work has become increasingly popular (Yoe 2023). The International Labour Organisation (2020) has stated the idea of remote work encompasses any work performed outside the traditional workplace, irrespective of the technology employed.

The four key dimensions of remote work have been identified through the various concepts developed, after assessing work arrangements due to communication and information technology by Lee (2016):

1. Technology - it has evolved since the past forty years, starting with personal computers and landline phones that initially facilitated office work at a fixed location, we have transitioned to laptops and mobile devices, smartphones, and tablet computers enabling mobile and virtual office work,
2. Working time flexibility - allows for synchronous and asynchronous working processes, offering workers greater autonomy and fewer time and place constraints,
3. Regularity - it covers flexible working arrangements, smart work, sporadic mobile ICT-work, and hybrid work,
4. Workplace and mobility - this includes various feasible worksites such as home, hubs, and third spaces, and encompasses physically mobile work that is necessary by the labour process, such as mobile work or TICTM.

Although various terms have been employed to emphasise different facets of ICT-enabled remote work, 'remote work' has been considered to be an inclusive and widely recognised descriptor, both before and throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. It is
commonly recognised as the simplest and most inclusive way to describe working remotely and away from the employer's physical workplace. Therefore, this study will use the terminology of telework.

**COVID-19 Pandemic Impact on Remote Work**

Before the pandemic, telecommuting in the European Union was steadily growing in popularity due to two key factors (Eurofound 2022). Firstly, advancements in internet connectivity and ICT enabled a wider range of jobs to be performed from various locations and at flexible hours. Secondly, the increasing participation of women in the workforce resulted in a rise in dual-income households. (Eurofound 2022). These changes in European workforce, coupled with ageing population (Žokalj 2016), highlighted the growing demand for flexibility in both work location and working hours, driving the gradual adoption of remote work.

Following the commencement of the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020, a significant rise in the quantity of staff engaging in remote work occurred due to government-imposed public health precautions like maintaining physical distance and lockdowns aimed at curbing the virus’s spread. Consequently, as seen in Figure 2, numerous workplaces had no choice but to close and the rate of employees working remotely doubled throughout 2020 and 2021.

![Figure 2. Percentage of employees engaged in remote work, spanning the years](image)

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2008 to 2021, within the European Union (EU27)

According to Figure 2, which illustrates the changes in the proportion of remote workers from 2008 to 2021, during the initial years of the data examination, fewer than 8% of remote workers were "sometimes" or "usually" (Eurofound 2022). Over time, this percentage saw a consistent increase, attaining 11% in 2019, just before the onset of the crisis. Nevertheless, with the onset of the pandemic, the rate of remote work experienced a sharp rise, reaching 19% in 2020, and then subsequently increasing to 22% in 2021. The surge was primarily observed among employees who typically operated remotely from their homes.

Before the outbreak of the pandemic, there were certain personal and professional attributes that significantly indicated the probability of working from home. Individuals who earned higher salaries, held advanced degrees, worked in professions primarily related to white-collar services and/or resided in urban centres with high population density exhibited a greater tendency for telecommuting (Sostero et al. 2020). It’s worth mentioning that feasibility of working remotely can vary significantly across industries, with some industries being more and more conductive to remote work than others. The surge in telecommuting during the pandemic was driven by the enforcement of national lockdowns, which encompassed a variety of establishments such as businesses, schools, and government agencies. These measures prompted or mandated the adoption of regular remote work, potentially leading some occasional remote workers to shift towards more frequent remote working, after the restrictions were lifted. However, it’s crucial to emphasize that within specific industries, everyone was required to work remotely during restrictions, regardless of their previous remote work status as occasional telecommuters.
Figure 3. Basic forecasts for the percentage of employees conducting remote work in a scenario without a pandemic, covering the period from 2012 to 2035, within the European Union (EU27).


Figure 3 displays a forecast of the future progression of telework, which relies on the average yearly growth in the remote workforce from 2012 to 2019, as well as the rate of increase from 2018 to 2019. This uncomplicated yet comprehensible estimation suggests that if the pandemic had not occurred, the number of employees working remotely in 2021 would not have been achieved until 2027. Furthermore, if the rate of growth had persisted at the mean rate observed from 2012 to 2019, this would have been postponed even further.
The prevalence of remote work increased in all EU nations during the pandemic, as depicted in Figure 4. Member States in the Benelux and Nordic regions, along with Ireland, had the largest percentage of workers who indicated they worked remotely in 2021, with between a third and half of them doing so. Indeed, the nations where remote work was least common in 2019 saw the most modest increase in percentage points, but still saw a fivefold rise in remote work compared to the levels observed prior to the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. It's worth highlighting that as of 2021, we have not achieved complete post-COVID-19 status. The most significant surges were noticed in smaller EU nations, notably Malta and Ireland, both experiencing an increase of over 20 percentage points between 2019 and 2021.

In April 2020, a live survey was conducted in US, China, Japan, UK, the Republic of Korea to gather relevant data. The survey findings indicated that almost 40% of employees began working remotely after the COVID-19 pandemic began (Belot et al, 2020).
The pandemic brought about a substantial alteration in the working conditions for numerous individuals as they shifted to remote work, which had its own unique conditions. However, the pandemic also highlighted the tremendous potential of remote work, leading to an increase in its adoption, including among employees who previously had limited exposure to this mode of work (Chen et al. 2023). In addition, advancements in technology, a rise in the quantity of remote-friendly positions, and the preferences of both employees and employers toward hybrid work arrangements (Mulcahy & Andreeva 2023), indications suggest that remote work is expected to continue increasing in popularity in the long run, even though it has stabilised since the beginning of 2022.

**Relationship Between Remote Work and Job Satisfaction**

The notion of satisfaction with one's job drawing from Maslow's "Human Needs Hierarchy Theory" from 1954 and Herzberg's "Two Factor Theory" from 1959. It was later described by Vroom in his 1967, the emotional reactions that workers have towards their job, role, and duties. However, the most commonly embraced interpretation of job satisfaction within the realm of organisational research is provided by Locke (1976). According to him, job satisfaction is a pleasant or positive emotional condition that occurs when individuals evaluate their job or work-related experiences favourably (p. 1304). Additionally, Weiss (2002) expressed that job satisfaction may be considered as an indicator of the extent to which an employee's expectations are met, while Spector (2000) emphasized that an adverse psychological state is a manifestation of job dissatisfaction.

The influence of job satisfaction is vital for organizations as it influences different facets of their employees' professional life, like their outlook towards work, their interpersonal relationships with colleagues, and their mental and physical well-being, ultimately influencing their productivity (Aslan et al. 2022). As highlighted by Aslan et al. (2022), the significance of job satisfaction extends beyond individual well-being, offering valuable understandings into the health of relationships and the hierarchical structure within an organization. Their study emphasizes that an elevated degree of job satisfaction indicates a positive rapport between employees and management, thereby underscoring the effectiveness of managerial practices. Therefore, job satisfaction can act as a crucial metric for managers who aim to maintain a
contented workforce.

Job satisfaction is a vital factor for organisations due to its close association with various critical elements like productivity, feelings of job detachment, the inclination to resign, internal disputes, and workplace accidents. Although job satisfaction may not necessarily exert a direct influence on employee performance, it can still influence organisational performance through changes in motivation, commitment, and other internal factors (Mone & Khoury 2018). Job satisfaction is also significant in preventing job alienation. When employees feel alienated from their work and the organization, they tend to isolate themselves, such individuals may feel less connected to fellow organization members and possess less robust professional networks and relationships (Shin, Choi, and Kim 2018). Furthermore, job dissatisfaction is associated with higher rates of intent to resign, absenteeism, and staff turnover than among other employees (Judge et al., 2001). It can also lead to instances of misconduct and disputes among the staff, and it can cause several problems for employees, such as distraction, poor concentration, and various nervous, emotional, and mental health issues (Miner 1992).

The practice of remote working provides a multitude of advantages to both the organization and the individual. These advantages include a decrease in organisational expenses, an increase in employee morale, greater employee autonomy, the flexibility to work during non-traditional hours, improvements in employee health, reduced commuting time, and a decrease in work-related exhaustion among employees (Caillier 2011, Baruch 2000, Cooper & Kurland 2002, Shamir and Salomon 1985, Bauer and Grave 2020, Fonner & Roloff 2010). A recent study carried out by Allen et al. (2021) has unveiled that the advantages of remote work for employees vary significantly depending on whether it is voluntary or mandatory. Therefore, it is not surprising that the mandatory social distancing during the lockdown has resulted in increased work-related stress and reduced satisfaction and productivity levels associated with remote work (Toscano & Zappalà 2020).

Conversely, there exist various opposing viewpoints articulated by Noonan and Glass in their 2012 work, as well as Song and Gao research in 2018. These perspectives emphasize concerns such as diminished employee productivity and motivation, the potential for an unhealthy lifestyle, companies offering ergonomic office amenities, the risk of tarnishing an employer’s reputation, the allure of potential distractions, the challenge of maintaining a clear boundary between personal and professional life, the demand for heightened self-discipline, the absence of interpersonal interactions among
employees, a dearth of social engagement, increased instances of employee illness, the ability for employees to still work from home even when unwell, the intricacy of monitoring employee performance, limited opportunities for collaborative learning from colleagues, constrained teamwork, reduced brainstorming activities, elongated work hours, instances of uncompensated overtime, heightened exposure to workplace safety hazards, and a growing inclination toward constant accessibility in a remote work scenario.

Currently, there is no clear understanding of how the pros and cons of telecommuting has an effect on the remote employees' job satisfaction level. Certain studies propose that telecommuting could result in a decrease in job satisfaction and a rise in conflicts. This happens because remote work can blur the lines between one's professional and personal life, posing greater difficulties in upholding boundaries between the two domains. Song and Gao (2018) discovered that there is a higher likelihood of experiencing negative emotions when working from home, in contrast to working in a physical workplace. Engaging in work-related tasks at home during weekdays leads to decreased levels of happiness. Noonan and Glass (2012) contend that telecommuting does not effectively alleviate work-family conflicts.

In opposition to the idea of a straightforward and linear connection between job satisfaction and remote work, Viega and Golden (2005) introduced the concept of a curvilinear relationship. They argued that when employees remote work in small amounts, they experience the advantages of remote work and mitigating its drawbacks, resulting in increased job satisfaction. However, when employees remote work regularly or exclusively, the disadvantages may outweigh the benefits, leading to decreased job satisfaction. Numerous factors impact this intricate relationship between job satisfaction and remote work, such as the duration of remote working, as highlighted by Virick et al. (2010). Cooper and Kurland (2002) also found that reduced interactions with colleagues, heightened sensation of isolation and absence of professional support has played a role in decreasing job satisfaction among remote workers. Furthermore, impediments to career progression and the inclination to overlook remote workers can also lead to reduced job satisfaction for remote workers (Virick et al. 2010). Hence, job satisfaction experienced by individuals working remotely should be comprehended in the context of more complex connections and not just the direct influence of remote work.

According to a meta-analysis conducted by Allen and Veiga in 2005, there
existed a minor positive correlation. \( r = 0.09 \) between job satisfaction and remote work. However, their research revealed that the association between job satisfaction and remote work is curvilinear rather than linear, signifying that the link between job satisfaction and remote work is contingent on the extent of telecommuting. Specifically, their research showed that as remote work increased, job satisfaction also went up, albeit only until a specific threshold (15.1 hours per week). After this point, further increases in remote work were associated with decreased job satisfaction. The authors proposed that this non-linear relationship could be attributed to the reduced social interaction and heightened feelings of isolation that remote workers might encounter when telecommuting excessively throughout the week.

Conversely, certain research studies highlight the positive impact of telecommuting on employee job satisfaction levels (Gimenez-Nadal et al. 2018, Wheatley 2012 & 2017, Charalampous et al. 2019, Coenen & Kol 2014, Paulin et al. 2017, Vega, Anderson, & Kaplan 2015, Gajendran & Harrison 2007). According to Azarbouyeh and Seyed Gholamreza (2014), remote work can enhance the impact on employees’ quality of life. Additionally, Brunelle and Fortin (2021) found that telework positively influences happiness, motivation, and job satisfaction. Kazekami (2020) also supports this notion of increased motivation due to remote work. The reason for these positive outcomes is attributed to the improvement in work-life balance, as stated by Irawanto, Novianti, and Roz (2021).

Considering the possible disadvantages of remote work, there is a possibility that the advantages of remote work may be counterbalanced, which might affect the overall job satisfaction of employees. Therefore, the hypothesis was formulated to explore this potential link:

**Hypothesis 1:** The relationship between the remote work and job satisfaction is expected to be linear, with job satisfaction increasing as remote work increases.

**The Mediating Effect of Perceived Productivity**

According to Ruch (1994), productivity refers to how effectively people utilize their skills and expertise to complete tasks within a specific time frame. In today’s scenario where many employees are working from home, productivity is a critical metric used by organizations to gauge an individual’s performance. However, there are diverse opinions on the productivity of remote workers, and there is insufficient or inconsistent
empirical data to support these claims (Golden & Gajendran 2019).

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, research suggested that remote workers typically exhibit higher performance levels in comparison to those who work on-site (Bloom et al. 2015, Durbin 1991). Durbin’s research in 1991, telecommuters were found to achieve approximately a 30% increase in productivity. Likewise, Bloom (2015) reported a boost in productivity of 20-30% and a yearly savings of roughly $2,000 per employee. In their research, performance evaluation involved tracking the quantity of answered phone calls, the tally of processed orders, and the daily duration order takers spent on the phone. Research conducted by Lascau et al. (2019) discovered that individuals lacking a designated area or personal privacy to work without disruptions expressed concerns about the potential impact of distractions on their effectiveness. Remote employees may encounter numerous distractions within their work environment, which can have adverse effects on their productivity. The productivity of employees plays a pivotal role in the prosperity of a business, with distractions being a significant hindrance.

Amidst the Covid-19 pandemic, several scholarly articles shed light on a favourable trend in job productivity. For instance, a study conducted by Baudot and Kelly (2020), which surveyed 592 participants from Amazon MTurk, concluded that individuals experienced an increase in their own productivity as well as that of their subordinates during the lockdown compared to prior circumstances. The authors discovered a positive correlation between perceived job productivity and two factors: the duration of remote work before the lockdown and the extent of supervisor supervision. Similarly, Kunze, Hampel, and Zimmermann (2020) conducted an analysis of data from a pool of 700 remote workers in Germany revealed an uptick in perceived productivity and commitment levels during the lockdown. Furthermore, Deole, Deter, and Huang (2021) examined data gathered at five distinct time intervals in the United Kingdom, specifically focusing on the waves of ‘Understanding Society’ related to the COVID-19 pandemic. Their findings showed that a rise in the frequency of remote work was connected with elevated levels of self-perceived productivity per hour. Additionally, Barrero, Bloom, and Davis (2021) utilized monthly data gathered from May to October 2020 in the United States, showing that sixty-one percent of teleworkers reported that their home office experience surpassed their expectations in terms of productivity. Meanwhile, 26% reported no change, and 13% perceived a decrease in productivity.
Conversely, several studies have reached the conclusion that the transition to home office arrangements during lockdown periods has predominantly resulted in a negative or stagnant shift in job productivity. For instance, Morikawa (2020) examines data collected in June 2020 from Japan and reveals a decline of approximately 60-70% in productivity in comparison to working at their regular workplace. Furthermore, Pelly, Daly, Delaney, and Doyle (2021) surveys 621 full-time workers and concludes that self-assessed job performance decreased during the lockdown in contrast to pre-lockdown levels. Additionally, Rubin et al. (2020) analyses survey data from 1,014 respondents collected internationally between March 31st and April 27th, 2020, indicating that 56% of participants reported reduced productivity when working from home in comparison to the period before, while 43% stated their productivity remained at least the same.

According to Wu and Chen (2020), employees have recognized a notable difference during the pandemic, whereby their workload has increased by an average of three hours per week, leading to a 38% decrease in productivity. The authors attribute this decline in productivity to organizations being unprepared and lacking sufficient resources, planning, and support to aid employees in their work. In contrast, Abdel Hadi et al. (2021) propose a different explanation for the decrease in productivity. They argue that emotional exhaustion is the primary factor, as evidenced by their daily diary study and the utilization of the Job Demands-Resources model. In accordance with their research, the amalgamation of daily job demands and responsibilities at home contributes to emotional exhaustion, ultimately resulting in reduced productivity. Other potential influences may have included the erosion of a sense of security stemming from abrupt and swift transformations, governmental regulations, and the closure of on-site positions.

In addition to examining the various perspectives on the productivity of employees who were telecommuting during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is vital to investigate the connection between productivity and job satisfaction. Numerous studies have delved into the correlation between productivity and job satisfaction, providing valuable insights into how these two factors intersect. Understanding this correlation can help organizations create strategies and interventions to enhance both productivity and the job satisfaction of individuals working remotely. The research carried out by Judge et al. (2001) unveiled a positive link between job performance and job satisfaction. The study found that individuals who expressed higher job satisfaction tended to be more productive and performed better in their tasks. In the realm of
telecommuting, many studies have investigated how job satisfaction affects productivity. For example, research conducted by Gajendran and Golden (2019) highlighted that teleworkers who expressed greater job satisfaction also demonstrated increased productivity. The study highlighted the significance of elements like autonomy, flexibility, and work-life balance in influencing both job satisfaction and productivity among remote workers. Furthermore, Hoboubi et al. (2017) conducted research and uncovered a direct correlation between productivity and job satisfaction. Their study revealed that when job satisfaction levels rise, so does workforce productivity. Additionally, the results of the multiple regression analysis highlighted that job satisfaction plays a crucial role in predicting workforce productivity. Inayat and Khan (2021) conducted a study involving 180 employees employed in private sector enterprises in Peshawar, Pakistan, and obtained a comparable outcome.

However, while there are numerous studies examining the impact of job satisfaction on productivity, there is noticeable less research exploring the impact of productivity on job satisfaction, where increased productivity leads to employees accomplishing their tasks more efficiently. This heightened efficiency often results in a greater sense of accomplishment among employees, ultimately enhancing their overall job satisfaction. Moreover, Anggarwati and Eliyana explored the connection that employees with high self-efficacy frequently excel in their roles, which contributes to heightened job satisfaction, and they are also more inclined to generate fresh ideas for the business (Anggarwati & Eliyana 2015). However, most existing literature tends to focus on the directionality of the relationship, with productivity seen as a predictor or outcome of job satisfaction. This gap in research represents an opportunity to further understand the dynamics between productivity and job satisfaction in remote work settings. Therefore, the hypotheses were formulated:

**Hypothesis 2**: Perceived productivity is expected to act as an intermediary in the association between remote work and job satisfaction. Remote work is predicted to result in increased perceptions of productivity, which, in turn, will be linked to elevated job satisfaction.

**The Mediating Effect of Engagement**

Defining employee engagement presents an initial challenge as there is no universally agreed-upon definition in the literature. As stated by (1990), employee engagement can
be defined as the process of individuals connecting their personal selves with their work roles, involving the emotional, cognitive, and physical aspects of their performance. The cognitive aspect pertains to employees’ beliefs regarding the institution, its leadership, and work environment. The emotional dimension encompasses how workers perceive these elements and whether they maintain negative or positive attitudes toward the institution and its leaders. The physical dimension entails the physical effort imposed by individuals to perform their role. In essence, engagement, as described by Kahn (1990), means being fully present both psychologically and physically while carrying out organizational responsibilities. While it is recognized that employee engagement encompasses multiple dimensions, as recommended by Truss et al. (2006) and Kahn (1990) provide a concise definition of employee engagement as "a passion for work," encompassing the three dimensions previously elucidated by Kahn (1990) and encapsulating the central theme shared by these definitions.

According to Palumbo (2020), remote work positively influences work engagement because it enables employees to maintain an equilibrium between their work and family obligations, resulting in an improved work-life balance. Other studies, such as those by Ozimek (2020) and Toscano and Zappalà (2021), have found that telework also enhances productivity, which is closely linked to engagement.

Bollestad et al. (2022) discovered a duality in remote work, with a positive correlation both to work engagement and loneliness. Telework provides flexibility and independence, which contribute to achieving an equilibrium between their personal lives and work, enhancing work engagement in the process. It also eliminates work-related interruptions and commuting stress, further supporting work engagement. However, remote work can also lead to feelings of loneliness.

However, there are concerns about remote work potentially reducing work engagement due to home-office distractions and a sense of isolation. Being away from the physical workspace for extended periods can lead to feelings of alienation and depression, which can negatively impact employee performance. Remote work also disrupts interoffice relationships and affects employee engagement levels. Engaging remote employees is generally more challenging than engaging employees in a traditional workplace, as physical proximity to supervisors and teammates can enhance passion, involvement, and alignment with organizational goals.

Based on the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, work-to-home conflict can occur when work-related duties are impeded by domestic responsibilities and
distractions, resulting in psychological tension that depletes personal resources and has a detrimental impact on work engagement. (Rothbard 2001, Wood et al. 2020, Van Veldhoven et al. 2020). Telework, particularly during a pandemic, introduces new work- and non-work-related stressors that reshape the social dynamics of the workplace, resulting in heightened psychological stress and decreased levels of work engagement (Adisa et al. 2021).

Moreover, the difficulties encountered by telecommuters, such as decreased engagement due to diminished interpersonal interactions, professional isolation, and reduced communication with colleagues and supervisors, telecommuting during the COVID-19 lockdown also resulted in social isolation, prolonged working hours, and the challenge of juggling work and family duties. These combined stressors can have an adverse impact on individuals' mental health and overall well-being, and if not properly managed, can hinder employee engagement and lead to a perception of undervalued efforts and opinions by both peers and the organization (Adisa et al. 2021, p.8).

The COVID-19 crisis introduced a unique scenario in which a significant number of employees had to abruptly transition from conventional office environments to remote work because of social distancing measures and strict lockdown. The study’s findings demonstrate that telework during the Covid-19 pandemic hindered employee engagement for several reasons such as increased work intensity, job insecurity, digital presenteeism, and challenges in adjusting to new work-from-home arrangements. (Adisa et al. 2021, p. 23)

Extensive study has explored the effects of mandatory remote work during this crisis period, shedding light on the challenges and factors inhibiting employee engagement. However, as the pandemic wanes and restrictions are eased, a new research focus emerges – voluntary telework. Understanding the influence of voluntary remote work on employee engagement is essential for companies seeking to optimize their employees' productivity and well-being in the era following the pandemic.

Several studies have delved into the correlation between work engagement and overall job satisfaction. The debate on whether job satisfaction precedes or follows work engagement remains unresolved. Some studies suggest that job satisfaction serves as a precursor to work engagement (e.g., Schaufeli, Llorens and Salanova 2011, Yalabik et al. 2013, Simpson 2009), while others propose that it is an outcome. For instance, Rayton and Yalabik (2014) found that when employees believe that their organization meets its commitments and simultaneously experience job satisfaction, work
engagement is observed. Conversely, other research indicates that work engagement leads to job satisfaction (for example, Vecina et al. 2012, Saks 2006, Avery et al. 2007). Lu et al. (2016) argue that work engagement consists of individual dimensions, and job satisfaction emerges as a consequence of these dimensions. Similarly, Karanika-Murray et al. (2015) state that employees who display strong positive engagement, energy, and dedication toward their work tend to experience higher job satisfaction.

The existing body of research predominantly corroborates the assertion that job satisfaction acts as a precursor to work engagement. However, to gain deeper insights into the complex relationship between these two constructs, it is imperative to undertake additional investigations focusing on job satisfaction as an outcome of work engagement. Consequently, the formulation of the ensuing hypothesis was formulated:

**Hypothesis 3:** Engagement is expected to act as an intermediary factor in the connection between remote work and job satisfaction. Remote work is anticipated to lead to increased engagement, which, in turn, will be linked to enhanced job satisfaction.

### The Mediating Effect of Personality Type

Allport (1937, p. 48) provided a definition of personality as a dynamic arrangement of physical and psychological systems that determine one's unique adaptations to their surroundings. This definition underscores the intricate interplay of various factors that contribute to an individual's personality. According to Eysenck (1947), who analysed responses on personality inventories, the two most significant personality traits’ dimensions are extraversion or introversion.

Personality traits play a significant role as predictors of a range of job-related consequences, employee turnover, performance, well-being, and encompassing (He et al. 2019, Barrick & Mount 1991). Understanding these personality traits and their influence on job outcomes allows organizations to make informed decisions when it comes to hiring, team composition, and employee development. By considering the dynamic interplay of personality within the workplace, employers can create environments that promote better well-being, higher performance, and reduced turnover rates. Thus, the study of personality types as a variable is indispensable in unravelling the intricate web of factors that shape individuals’ unique adaptations to remote work and the resulting consequences for the workplace. Personality theory has been utilized
to the study of individual differences (Furnham 2001), health conditions (Strickhouser, Zell, & Krizan 2017), and the workplace (Van Hoye & Turban 2015). The theory initially introduced extraversion and introversion as fundamental personality types, conceptualized as opposite ends of a continuum, by Jung in 1921. Throughout the years, the definitions of introversion and extraversion have evolved, but their fundamental characteristics have largely remained unchanged.

Extraversion is a personality trait defined by qualities such as confidence, assertiveness, social adeptness, extroversion, and a propensity to be the central focus of attention (Ashton & Lee 2009). It has been studied in relation to workplace outcomes, with research highlighting its significance at the individual, leadership, and team levels (Lemoine et al. 2016, Hu & Judge 2017, Judge et al. 2002, Marinova et al. 2015, Judge & Zapata 2015, Barrick & Mount 1991). However, it is important to note that extraverted individuals represent only a portion of the population, and there may be benefits associated with both extraversion and introversion. Unfortunately, the literature has primarily focused on the benefits of extraversion, paying less attention to how introverts can positively influence workplace outcomes.

The sentiments expressed by Jung nearly a century ago, emphasizing the susceptibility of introverts to be misunderstood compared to extraverts (Jung 1923). In contemporary studies, including those carried out by Bourdage et al. (2015) and Spark et al. (2018) introversion is understood through the lens of low extraversion. This approach creates challenges and hinders the study of introversion from a positive perspective. Consequently, the understanding is limited regarding the potential benefits that introversion can bring to the workplace. Instead, the existing measurements of introversion are more applicable to understanding conditions like depression, as demonstrated in previous research that consistently associates introversion with depressive states (Schueller 2012).

Introverts are often labelled as introspective, quiet, unsociable, and lacking assertiveness (Cain 2012). Cain points out the bias in Western cultures that idealizes extraversion, leading to the exclusion of introverts at work. This underrepresentation hinders innovation and productivity. Introverts face challenges like rude treatment, being perceived as less capable, and being passed over for advancement opportunities. Despite the focus on extraversion in research, the benefits of introversion in the workplace are often overlooked. Estimates suggest that introverts may constitute a significant majority, possibly two-thirds workforce in certain countries (Zhang et al.
2017, Cain 2012). Exploring how introverts contribute value to workplaces is crucial. However, progress requires recognizing the often unseen and unheard contributions of introverted individuals.

Numerous investigations have delved into the connection between individuals’ personalities and their job satisfaction, revealing consistent findings (Renn & Vandenberg 1995, Agho, Mueller, Price 1993, Judge et al. 2002, Johns, Xie, & Fang 1992, Foti & Roberts 1998, Judge, Bono, Locke 2000). This recognition of the significance of individual differences in the workplace has been ingrained in theories of worker satisfaction for decades (Argysis 1973, Dubin 1956, Murray 1938, Pervin 1968). For instance, Argysis (1973) contended that people tend to pursue professions that offer chances for personal development and self-fulfilment. Conversely, Strauss (1974) suggested that employees can be categorized into two primary orientations toward work, with some perceiving it as a means to an end and others deriving satisfaction and self-fulfilment from their work. These theories propose that distinct approaches to work can result in diverse reactions to the same work setting (O'Reilly 1977), and that people may interpret job attributes in distinct ways (Hackman & Lawler 1971). Specifically, extraverted individuals are more prone to indicate elevated job satisfaction because of their tendency to adapt well to work and actively engage with others (Judge et al. 2002). In contrast, introverted individuals may face challenges in the workplace and may not receive due recognition for their contributions (Cain 2012).

The focus on extraversion as indicator of job satisfaction has overshadowed the significance of other personality traits and their impact on satisfaction. Study has indicated that job satisfaction often varies with individual personality traits, and in addition to extraversion, conscientiousness is also an important predictor (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). However, existing literature has not extensively explored the predictability of satisfaction based on personality types in current jobs, with some studies suggesting that personality primarily influences job selection rather than directly affecting job satisfaction (Holland 1997, Myers et al. 1998, Tobacyk, Cyrson, & Tobacyk 2000, Judge, Bono, & Locke 2000).

Furthermore, extroverted, and conscientious employees may experience certain limitations in relation to productivity, job satisfaction and engagement. They may demonstrate reduced levels of productivity and engagement over time and report higher feelings of burnout (Tokar & Subich 1997). Conversely, introverts may show improvements in these outcomes. These results underscore the significance of
considering personality-job fit and the need for a nuanced understanding of how extraversion relates to job satisfaction.

Personality traits and their impact on remote work is another major topic that has been extensively examined. Earlier studies have examined connection between different facets of remote work and personality traits. Pratt (2002) investigated the role of agreeableness in virtual teamwork and found that trust played a crucial role due to the absence of physical interaction among team members. Clark et al. (2012) conducted a study with business students and discovered a favourable relationship between agreeableness and attitudes regarding remote work, while emotional stability showed a negative correlation. Haines, St-Onge, and Archambault (2002) further explored this and found a negative relationship between extroversion and attitudes toward remote work, possibly due to extroverts' preference for social settings and interaction. O'Neill et al. (2009) found a significant negative correlation between sociability and remote work performance, suggesting that feelings of isolation in the remote work environment contributed to this outcome.

Personality traits have also been studied in relation to hiring remote workers and adopting remote work programs. Luse et al. (2013) demonstrated that personality and cognitive style could predict the preference for remote teams versus traditional arrangements. Jacques et al. (2009) discovered that extraversion and openness were potential predictors of remote work satisfaction and adoption in different organizations.

In the context of extroversion, sociability is a key characteristic (Lucas et al. 2000), and the lack of social contact is a significant challenge in remote work (Mann & Holdsworth 2003). As a result, individuals with high extroversion may experience more adverse effects from mandatory remote work, whereas introverted workers might find advantages in decreased everyday social interactions. Prior study has indicated that introverts tend to be more effective in settings that discourage frequent social interactions compared to extroverts (Bos et al. 2017).

Moreover, Peters et al. (2001) state in their research that the preference for a quiet work environment significantly affects the outcomes of telecommuting. Building upon this characteristic of telecommuting and considering the traits of introverts and extroverts, scholars like Barak and Blau (2012) argue that introverts are better suited for unsocial jobs where they can embrace their inherent need for isolation, while extroverts may find such jobs uninspiring. Simmons (1996) also suggests that teleworking requires employees who are naturally introverted. Hannay (2016) elaborates that telecommuting
is better suited for introverted individuals than extroverts due to the alignment between social isolation in telecommuting and introverted personality.

An introverted personality is well-suited for telecommuting environments due to the compatibility between the characteristics of introverted individuals and the features of teleworking. Additionally, the theoretical foundation of the present model lies in the person-environment fit theory proposed by French in 1973, it posits that job outcomes are shaped by the compatibility between individuals' personality types and the characteristics of their job environments. Any mismatches in this alignment can lead to job stressors and eventual burnout (Jung 1971). For instance job stress may be experienced by an introverted individual who thrives in a quiet, independent work environment if they are placed in a bustling, open-office setting where constant interaction is required. Similarly, job stress can be faced by an extroverted person who enjoys teamwork and social interaction when placed in a solitary, isolated workspace.

Considering the future of the work, it is crucial to acknowledge that the dynamics of remote work may undergo significant changes. To gain a deeper understanding, conducting a new study in a post-pandemic context would be beneficial. Additionally, the contrasting responses observed between introverts and extroverts during the pandemic suggest that personality types could play a mediating role in the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction. Consequently, the subsequent hypothesis was formulated:

**Hypothesis 4**: Personality type will mediate the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction, such that introverts will received higher perception of job satisfaction during remote work in comparison to extraverts.
METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Approach

The research design utilized in this study sought to explore the connection between job satisfaction and remote work, with a focus on mediating factors of perceived productivity, engagement, and personality type. To achieve the research objectives, a quantitative approach was adopted, allowing for the systematic gathering and analysis of numerical data. This design facilitated the investigation of relationships between variables and enabled the testing of research hypotheses derived from existing literature and empirical evidence.

The underlying research philosophy for this study was positivism. By adopting this philosophical stance, an objective and empirical approach was pursued to comprehend the complex dynamics between remote work and job satisfaction. This philosophical stance emphasized the importance of observable and measurable phenomena, which facilitated the identification of causal relationships and generalizable patterns in the data.

Throughout the research process, positivism was employed, ensuring a structured, systematic, and transparent approach, thereby bolstering the validity and credibility of the study's findings. Additionally, positivism's focus on quantifiable data aligned well with the core elements of the research, namely, perceived productivity, engagement, and personality type. As a result, precise and quantifiable measurements of these constructs were obtained.

This study utilized a deductive research approach with a confirmatory orientation. The deductive research type was chosen due to its structured and systematic approach to hypothesis testing. By building upon existing knowledge and theoretical foundations, the study objective was to add to the expanding body of research concerning remote work and its effects on employee job satisfaction. The deductive approach ensured that the research objectives were focused and allowed for precise predictions about the relationships between the variables under investigation.

A confirmatory research strategy involves the testing of pre-established hypotheses with empirical data, with the aim of validating or refuting the proposed relationships between variables. The confirmatory approach aligned well with the
deductive research type, as it facilitated the objective examination of specific hypotheses derived from the examination of existing literature and theoretical background.

**Participants**

Individuals involved in this study held positions within the financial sector, and this choice was primarily driven by my access to conduct research in this sector. The primary data source was a large financial company in Malta, supplemented by a smaller company in the same field and country. A key inclusion criterion for the study was active engagement in remote work arrangements, either partially or entirely. Participation was optional, and participants were asked to provide their consent. Recognizing the potential discomfort or stress that filling out the survey could generate, participants were informed about available support institutions in Malta. Moreover, due to the potential social risks related to revealing sensitive information, participants were reassured about the anonymity of the questionnaire. The data collection process involved an anonymous survey link via Google Forms.

Table 1 displays demographic information for a total of 137 participants. The participants’ ages varied between 18 and 64 years, with the largest age group being 25 to 34 years, representing 39.4% of the total. The sample consisted of 56.9% males and 43.1% females. Nearly 76.6% of participants were employed on a full-time basis, 1.5% reported being employed on reduced hours, 0.7% declared to be self-employed, while the remaining participants were part-time employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>43.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (in years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 – 24</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 – 34</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 - 44</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17.5</td>
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<td>45 - 54</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 - 64</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 or above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measures

Remote Work. Participants were first asked the following question: whether they worked remotely or not, requiring a simple "Yes" or "No" response. This initial classification allowed to distinguish between remote workers and those who worked exclusively from traditional office settings. To gather details regarding the duration of remote work experiences, respondents were prompted to choose the length of their remote work engagement. The available options spanned various time frames: more than 5 years, 3-5 years, 1-3 years, 6 months to 1 year or less than 6 months. This detail allowed examining how job satisfaction might evolve over time as individuals continued to work remotely. Additionally, participants were asked to provide information on the average number of hours they were working on a weekly basis. The choices provided were more than 40 hours, 30-40 hours, 20-30 hours, 10-20 hours or less than 10 hours, allowing for the spectrum of remote work combinations to be examined. This data point shed light on the intensity of remote work efforts which could be examined for potential correlations with job satisfaction levels during analysis.

Job Satisfaction. Respondents were requested to rate their level of job satisfaction with their current job on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, where 1 represented "Extremely Dissatisfied", 2 to “Dissatisfied”, 3 to “Neither satisfied or dissatisfied”, 4 to “Satisfied” and 5 represented "Extremely Satisfied." This single-item measure aimed to capture individuals' overall satisfaction with their present work position and provided valuable insights into their subjective experience of job satisfaction. The 1-5 Likert scale was chosen to uphold simplicity and facilitate respondents' ease of interpretation while providing an adequate spectrum for effectively assessing their levels of satisfaction.

Perceived Productivity. To assess perceived productivity, responses were gathered from the participants. They were asked to provide their opinions and perceptions regarding their productivity in relation to remote work. A quantitative research approach was used to gauge participants' agreement or disagreement with
provided statements. The Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 represented “Extremely Disagree”, 2 to “Disagree”, 3 to “Neither agree or disagree”, 4 to “Agree” and 5 represented “Extremely Agree”, was employed for its simplicity and ease of interpretation. The statements on perceived productivity focused on the following items: "Working remotely improves my productivity.", "I felt more efficient when working remotely.", "Remote work allows me to focus better on tasks." By analysing participants’ responses to these Likert scale-based statements, insights were gained into how remote work impacted individual productivity, efficiency, and focus. The study results provided a more comprehensive grasp of the advantages and difficulties linked to remote work arrangements, offering valuable implications for individuals and organizations seeking to optimize their work environments.

**Engagement.** Engagement was evaluated by collecting participants' responses to statements specifically designed to gauge their experiences with remote work. These statements were carefully crafted to capture different aspects of engagement. Each participant was encouraged to provide their honest and individual response to each statement using a 5-point Likert scale. Participants assessed their level of agreement with each statement (1 represented "Extremely Disagree", 2 to “Disagree”, 3 to “Neither agree or disagree”, 4 to “Agree” and 5 represented "Extremely Agree"). Example items included "I feel engaged and motivated while working remotely" and "Remote work enhances my sense of purpose and involvement in my work." The participants’ answers were averaged to generate a comprehensive engagement score for each participant, where higher scores indicated higher levels of engagement.

**Personality Type.** The assessment of personality types in this study was conducted using a simple choice selection method. Participants were presented with two statements: "I am an introverted person" and "I am an extraverted person." Their objective was to choose the statement that they believed most accurately reflected their personality type.

**Demographic Information.** Demographic questions were designed to gather essential information about the participants' gender, age, and employment status, which can be used to analyse and understand potential correlations or influences on other measured variables. The data collected from these questionnaire items will contribute to forming a comprehensive profile of the participants and enhance the overall observations gained from the research study.
Procedures

The cross-sectional time horizon allowed for the efficient collection of data from the participants within a relatively short period. This time-efficient approach was particularly beneficial in the context of telework, as it minimized potential disruptions to participants' work routines and daily activities. By gathering data from the participants at a single time point, the study was able to capture a snapshot of their perceptions and experiences regarding remote work and job satisfaction, while mitigating the impact of external factors that could change over time.

The procedures for data collection involved the distribution of the survey to Maltese remote workers hired in financial companies. Participants were given explicit guidance on how to fill out the questionnaire, and informed consent was obtained to ensure voluntary participation. Participants were notified about the estimated time required to complete the questionnaire to manage their expectations and commitment. Data collection was carried out electronically, through an anonymous survey link shared on internal network in selected financial companies. The electronic format allowed for efficient data entry, management, and analysis. The survey remained accessible for a duration of two weeks, and participants completed it through online platforms at different times of the day and various locations, such as their homes or workplaces. On average, respondents spent approximately 5 to 10 minutes to finish the survey.

The gathered data underwent statistical analysis with the assistance of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were employed to condense and present the data, while inferential statistics, including regression analysis, were used to examine the research hypotheses and ascertain meaningful associations among the variables.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations played a pivotal role during the entire research process, ensuring the protection of participants and maintaining the study's credibility. The researcher strictly adhered to ethical principles and guidelines in various aspects of the study. Informed consent was obtained from all participants, offering detailed information about the research's purpose, and voluntary nature of participation. Participants were empowered to make informed decisions and had the autonomy to withdraw from the
study without consequences. Consent was obtained through consent forms at the start of
the survey.

Confidentiality and anonymity were prioritized to safeguard participants' privacy. Personal identifiers were not collected, and responses were aggregated to prevent individual tracing. Data storage platforms were secured with encryption and passwords. Data protection regulations were followed diligently, ensuring data integrity and security. Data were solely used for research purposes, with no sharing or dissemination that compromised participants' confidentiality. Harm avoidance was carefully considered, and the survey content was designed to prevent distress or discomfort. However, contact information for psychological help was provided to ensure access to support. The researcher maintained a respectful and transparent relationship with participants, providing clarity on their roles in the study. Before collecting data, ethical clearance was secured from the appropriate institutional review board, confirming the study's adherence to ethical standards.

Limitations

Moreover, while efforts were made to achieve a diverse and representative sample, the findings might not fully generalize to all remote workers or organizations due to unique sample characteristics and the specific research context, affecting external validity. Furthermore, the voluntary nature of participation introduced the potential for sampling bias, as those who chose to participate might possess unique characteristics or experiences in comparison to non-participants.

The data collected through self-report measures might have been affected by response bias due to socially desirable or biased responses. Additionally, the cross-sectional design employed in the study limited the establishment of causality, although it allowed for examining relationships between variables at a specific time point. To explore dynamic changes over time, longitudinal studies would be required.

While this study did not employ negatively phrased questions, it is important to acknowledge that the exclusive use of positively phrased questions may potentially introduce a positivity bias in participant responses. Relying solely on survey questionnaires for data collection efficiently gathered quantitative data, but employing multiple approaches such as focus groups or interviews could have provided deeper insights and a deeper and more thorough comprehension of participants' experiences.
RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics.

Table 2 shows means and standard deviations for variables. The analysis aimed to assess the variation and central tendency of each variable. Within the group of participants 87.6% reported engaging in remote work during an average work week, while 12.4% did not. Based on the sample's responses, participants expressed moderately high levels of job satisfaction (M = 3.76, SD = 0.76). Similarly, participants' evaluations of perceived productivity were moderately high (M = 3.61, SD = 0.95). Overall engagement ratings from participants were neutral, tending slightly towards a positive direction (M = 3.44, SD = 0.93). Regarding personality types, 56% identified as extraverted, while 44% identified as introverted. More detailed calculations pertaining to participants' remote work characteristics are available in Table 3. The findings suggest that the largest proportion of participants (52.6%) reported working remotely for a duration ranging from 1 to 3 years (M = 2.82, SD = 0.98), coinciding with the onset and throughout the duration of the COVID-19 pandemic. Participants who engaged in remote work arrangements spent an average of 10 to 20 hours per week working remotely, categorizing them as low to medium intensity telecommuters (M = 1.77, SD = 0.81).

Pearson Correlation

Table 2 presents correlations that examine the connections between the variables under investigation. It was observed that remote work and job satisfaction had a slightly positive correlation, with a coefficient of r(137) = .15, p > .05, suggesting that individuals engaged in remote work tended to experience slightly higher job satisfaction. However, the p-value exceeding 0.05 indicates that this relationship might be attributed to chance and cannot be confidently concluded. Remote work displayed a significantly positive and substantial correlation with perceived productivity, as reflected by r(137) = .33 and a highly significant p-value of less than .001. This indicates that those engaged in remote work reported significantly higher perceived productivity. Likewise, remote work exhibited a statistically significant positive
correlation with engagement, with \( r(137) = .32 \) and a p-value of less than .001, suggesting that individuals involved in remote work felt significantly more engaged. Conversely, remote work and personality type displayed a slight negative correlation, with \( r(137) = -.10, p > .05 \), indicating a minor tendency for individuals with extroverted personality types to engage less in remote work. However, it's crucial to note that this relationship lacks statistical significance at the 0.05 alpha level, implying that any observed connection may be due to random variation and should be interpreted cautiously. Regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and perceived productivity, no substantial connection was found, as indicated by \( r(137) = -.02 \) and a p-value exceeding .05. Similar non-significant results were obtained when examining the relationships between job satisfaction and engagement \( (r(137) = 0.0, p > .05) \) and personality type \( (r(137) = 0.02, p > .05) \). Nevertheless, a robust and positive correlation was identified between perceived productivity and engagement, with \( r(137) = .97 \) and a p-value less than .001, indicating that a heightened perception of productivity was linked to a greater sense of engagement. There was no significant association observed between perceived productivity and personality type, with \( r(137) = -.06, p > .05 \). Furthermore, no statistically significant connection was found between engagement and personality type, as reflected by \( r(137) = -.02, p > .05 \). In summary, these findings suggest that employees engaged in remote work tended to perceive their work as more productive, experience higher levels of engagement, and that their sense of productivity influenced their engagement.

Table 2. Pearson Correlations Among Variables, Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Remote Work</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived Productivity</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.330***</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Engagement</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.342***</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.765***</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Personality Type</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>-.098</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>-.061</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. \( N = 137, *p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001 \)

Table 3. Remote Work Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Remote work statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Remote work</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>87.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Remote work per hours</th>
<th>Less than 10 hours</th>
<th>32.5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 – 20 hours</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20 – 30 hours</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 – 40 hours</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 40 hours</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Remote work duration</th>
<th>Less than 6 months</th>
<th>9.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 months to 1 years</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 – 3 years</td>
<td>55.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 – 5 years</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 5 years</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Testing Hypotheses

**The Linear Association of Remote Work.** The first hypothesis proposed a direct connection between job satisfaction and remote work, suggesting that as the amount of remote work (measured in hours) increased, job satisfaction would also increase. To investigate this relationship, a basic linear regression analysis was performed, and a scatterplot was generated to provide a clearer visualization of the association between the predictor and outcome variables.

Firstly, a linear regression analysis was performed to quantify the relationship between remote work hours and job satisfaction. The p-value linked to the coefficient was 0.446, indicating that the relationship between remote work hours and job satisfaction was not statistically significant ($R^2 = 0.004$, $F(1,135) = 0.584$, $p = 0.446$). Secondly a scatterplot was generated to visually represent the relationship between remote work hours and job satisfaction, it did not display a clear linear pattern. Data points were scattered without forming a recognizable trend. This lack of correlation suggests that remote work hours alone might not be a significant factor in determining job satisfaction levels, or that the relationship is not linear.

In conclusion, the analysis did not find evidence to support the hypothesis that job satisfaction increases linearly with an increase in remote work hours. The linear regression analysis and the scatterplot both failed to demonstrate a significant relationship between these variables.
The Mediating Factor of Perceived Productivity. The mediating role of perceived productivity was investigated in Hypothesis 2, which posited that the connection between remote work and job satisfaction is influenced by the perception of productivity. In order to assess this intermediary influence, a series of multiple regression examinations was performed, following the established four-step methodology introduced by Kenny and Baron (1986). Three distinct regression analyses were executed to assess the importance of the unstandardized regression coefficients (b's) at each sequential stage. As per Baron and Kenny’s (1986) framework, this model is founded upon a three-variable system, which involves causal pathways contributing to the outcome variable. These pathways include both the direct effect of the independent variable (Path c) and the effect of the mediator (Path b), as well as the influence of the independent variable on the mediator (Path a) (p. 1176). Furthermore, a Sobel test was utilized to assess the indirect influence of perceived productivity on the association between remote work and job satisfaction (path ab).

In the first stage of the analysis, the regression of job satisfaction on remote work, excluding the consideration of perceived productivity as an intermediary factor, did not yield significant results, with an $R^2$ of 0.02, $F(1,135) = 2.89$, and a p-value of 0.091. Moving on to the second stage, the regression of remote work on the mediator, perceived productivity, was highly significant, resulting in an $R^2$ of 0.11, $F(1,135) = 16.54$, and a p-value of less than 0.001, confirming path a. In the third stage, the direct relationship between perceived productivity (the mediator) and job satisfaction did not reach statistical significance, with $\beta = 0.17$, $t = 1.88$, and $p = 0.063$. Upon conducting the Sobel test, it was determined that mediation did not reach statistical significance ($z = 1.71$, $p = 0.087$).

In summary, these analyses suggest that the association between remote work and job satisfaction was not significantly influenced by perceived productivity. In simpler terms, while remote work appeared to enhance perceived productivity, it did not have a statistically significant effect on overall job satisfaction. This means that there is no strong evidence to support Hypothesis 2, as depicted in Figure 5.
The Mediating Factor of Engagement. In Hypothesis 3, the study explored the mediating function of perceived productivity. This hypothesis proposed that employee engagement acts as an intermediary factor in the connection between remote work and job satisfaction. The mediation effect was examined once more using Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step approach. To evaluate the indirect effect of engagement on the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction (illustrated by path ab), the study utilized the Sobel test once more.

In the initial phase of analysis, the regression analysis examining the influence of remote work on job satisfaction, without considering engagement as an intermediary variable, failed to produce statistically significant outcomes. The resultant coefficient of determination ($R^2$) was 0.02, with an $F$-statistic of 2.89 and a $p$-value of 0.091, based on a sample size of 135. Subsequently, in the second phase, the regression analysis evaluating the impact of remote work on the mediator variable, engagement, exhibited high statistical significance, yielding an $R^2$ of 0.12, an $F$-statistic of 17.94, and a $p$-value of less than 0.001, thereby confirming the existence of path a. In the third phase, the direct relationship between the mediator, engagement, and job satisfaction did not demonstrate statistical significance, as indicated by the coefficient ($\beta$) of 0.163, the $t$-statistic of 1.79, and a $p$-value of 0.076. Subsequently, the Sobel test was conducted, which revealed that mediation did not reach statistical significance, with a $z$-statistic of 1.65 and a $p$-value of 0.100.

In summation, the analyses conducted suggest that the connection between
remote work and job satisfaction was not substantially mediated by the variable of engagement. In simpler terms, although remote work seemed to enhance engagement, it did not exert a statistically significant influence on overall job satisfaction. Consequently, there is insufficient empirical support for Hypothesis 3, as depicted in Figure 6.

![Figure 6. Examining the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Remote Work: A Mediation Analysis Incorporating Engagement. Note: *** p < .001](image)

**The Mediating Factor of Personality Type.** Hypothesis 4 posited that personality type would serve as a mediating factor in the association between remote work and job satisfaction. To test this hypothesis, the study followed the four-step method detailed by Kenny and Baron (1986), which involved using the Sobel test to evaluate the indirect impact.

During the initial stage of the analysis, when examining the regression analysis of job satisfaction as a dependent variable on remote work, without considering personality type as an intermediary factor, the findings were not statistically significant. This model yielded an R-squared ($R^2$) value of 0.02, an F-statistic of 2.89, and a p-value of 0.091, based on a sample size of 135. Subsequently, in the second stage of the analysis, the regression of remote work on the mediator variable, personality type, was also not statistically significant. The R-squared ($R^2$) value for this model was 0.10, with an F-statistic of 1.32, and a p-value exceeding 0.05, which does not support the existence of path a. In the third stage, the direct relationship between the mediator variable, personality type, and job satisfaction was not found to be statistically...
significant, with a coefficient (β) of 0.15, a t-statistic of 1.73, and a p-value of 0.09. Upon conducting the Sobel test to assess mediation, it was determined that the mediation effect was not statistically significant, as indicated by a z-score of -0.96 and a p-value of 0.34.

In summary, these analyses suggest that personality type does not significantly mediate the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction. Consequently, there is limited empirical support for Hypothesis 4, as illustrated in Figure 7.

![Figure 7. Examining the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Remote Work: A Mediation Analysis Incorporating Personality Type.](image-url)
DISCUSSION

Summary of Results.

First hypothesis proposed a direct, positive correlation between the extent of remote work and job satisfaction, indicating that an increase in remote work would lead to a corresponding increase in job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the investigation revealed no noteworthy correlation between the extent of remote work and job satisfaction. The absence of a linear correlation could potentially be attributed to several factors, including the sample composition. All participants were employed within the financial sector, which might introduce bias into the results. Additionally, the sample size and the fact that all participants were residents of Malta could also influence the outcomes, potentially due to the Mediterranean lifestyle, which includes a naturally high level of social interaction (Sánchez-Villegas et al. 2016). Ultimately, the findings of this analysis did not provide support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 was designed to investigate whether an employee's perception of productivity may serve as a mediating factor in the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction. This hypothesis emerged from a literature gap, as no previous studies had examined employee-perceived productivity in this context. The results, however, did not support the hypothesis. The study found that remote work had a strong positive correlation with perceived productivity, indicating that employees engaging in remote work generally perceived themselves as more productive. Despite this strong correlation, the data showed that the perception of productivity did not serve as a significant mediator for the link between remote work and job satisfaction. In other words, while remote workers felt more productive, this increased perception of productivity did not result in increased levels of job satisfaction as initially hypothesized. A potential explanation for the absence of a linear correlation could be attributed to the composition of the sample. The participants in this study were confined to employees within a single industry and was constrained in size. If the study had encompassed a broader spectrum of remote workers, the outcomes might have exhibited variations. Additionally, it is worth considering the possibility that productivity may not be linked to job satisfaction. Productivity could be more valued by the employer than by the employee.
Hypothesis 3 sought to examine whether employee engagement played a mediating role in the connection between job satisfaction and remote work. This hypothesis was rooted in the prevailing body of research, which predominantly affirms that job satisfaction precedes work engagement. However, to acquire a deeper comprehension of the complex interaction between these two concepts, it was deemed crucial to conduct further investigations that focus on job satisfaction as a consequence of work engagement. Regrettably, the findings did not support this hypothesis. The study revealed a robust positive correlation between remote work and engagement, suggesting that remote employees generally experience higher levels of engagement. Despite this robust correlation, the data indicated that engagement did not serve as a significant mediator in the connection between remote work and job satisfaction. In simpler terms, although remote workers reported heightened engagement, this increased sense of engagement did not translate into higher levels of job satisfaction as initially hypothesized. As I mentioned in a previous comment, this was not a planned aspect but rather a limitation stemming from my restricted access to participants in this particular sector. Additionally, it's worth considering that job engagement might be more crucial for the employer rather than the employee.

Hypothesis 4 indicated that link between remote work and job satisfaction would be influenced by an individual's personality type. There has been limited prior research on the involvement of personality type as a mediator in the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction. Nonetheless, the results of this study indicate that personality type does not play a mediating role in the relationship between remote work and job satisfaction.

**Theoretical Implications.**

The theoretical implications of the study diverge from the prevailing literature on remote work and job satisfaction. While numerous prior studies have consistently identified a positive linear correlation between remote work and job satisfaction, the research did not confirm this connection. One potential explanation may stem from the study’s unique sample group, comprised of Maltese individuals influenced by Mediterranean culture, where sociable nature is prevalent (Sánchez-Villegas et al. 2016). Remote work may lead to a reduction in social interactions, which may lead to the fact that a positive linear correlation between remote work and job satisfaction will
not occur in the culture described. Moreover, the study’s limited sample size may have contributed to the absence of a significant relationship between the number of remote work hours and job satisfaction. This suggests that larger and more diverse samples should be considered in future research. The outcomes of the analysis also have implications for the proposed mediating factors. In the case of perceived productivity, evidence was not found to support the hypothesis that it significantly plays a mediating role in connection between job satisfaction and remote work. This suggests that although remote work may enhance perceived productivity, it does not have a strong and statistically significant influence on overall job satisfaction. This challenges the assumption that increased productivity directly translates into higher job satisfaction within the framework of remote work. Regarding the mediating role of engagement, findings also indicate that while remote work increases engagement, it does not have a statistically significant impact on overall job satisfaction. Finally, the study examined the mediating factor of personality type and found that it does not reach statistical significance in the relationship between remote work and the level of job satisfaction. This implies that individual differences in personality may not be a determinant of job satisfaction when working remotely. Furthermore, the current research enhanced the existing remote work literature by demonstrating that remote work can be leveraged to boost engagement and enhance perceived productivity.

Practical Implications.

Based on the study’s findings, which underscore a robust link between remote work, employee engagement, and heightened perceived productivity, organizations can strategically harness the potential of remote work to enhance employee engagement. Organizations can proactively employ remote work as an engagement tool by identifying employees who may require increased engagement and extending the option to work remotely. Although the study implies a correlation between remote work and heightened perceived productivity, it remains crucial to continuously monitor and evaluate the actual productivity of remote workers, which was not included in this study. By implementing these strategies, organizations can tap into the advantages of remote work to reinvigorate employee engagement and boost their perceived productivity. This approach is in harmony with the changing dynamics of the work landscape and the growing demand for flexible and remote work alternatives, presenting
a mutually beneficial solution for both employees and the organization.

**Strength and Limitations.**

**Strengths.** One of the primary merits inherent to this investigation resides in the robustness exhibited by its data collection process. Diverging from a prevalent trend observed in numerous studies, wherein an overreliance on student participants bereft of pertinent occupational experience prevails, this research tapped into the invaluable insights of working professionals. By encompassing participants with genuine real-world exposure, the study ascertained that the data amassed possesses a heightened degree of relevance vis-à-vis the intricacies characterizing the contemporary workforce milieu. This methodological approach substantially fortifies the external validity of the study, as the resultant findings are more prone to faithfully encapsulate the actualities underpinning remote labour dynamics and occupational contentment in professional contexts. Furthermore, the research stands out for its strong ethical considerations. Careful attention was paid to ethical concerns, including obtaining informed consent from participants, guaranteeing the confidentiality of their responses, and strictly adhering to ethical guidelines throughout the study. These ethical practices not only demonstrate the commitment to upholding the participants' rights and their overall welfare but also enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the research. Lastly, the research builds upon a comprehensive and up-to-date literature review, which underscores its strength in terms of theoretical and empirical foundations. The review of existing knowledge not only informs the research questions but also demonstrates that this study is positioned within the larger body of relevant research. It highlights the awareness of current debates and findings in the field, showcasing a research endeavour built upon a strong knowledge base.

**Limitations.** Major drawback of this study involves its dependence on information provided by individuals, predominantly gathered via survey. This methodology brings forth the potential for response bias, where participants might tend to either exaggerate or minimize their feelings and experiences, potentially raising concerns about the study's overall credibility. Another challenge that the study encountered was related to time constraints. The survey was accessible for only a relatively brief period, which restricted the window available for data collection. Consequently, the study had to work with a relatively small sample size, reducing its
statistical robustness and its ability to generalize findings. Furthermore, the study's scope was limited by the availability of participants from the finance sector. Another possible constraint of this study is the cultural specificity of the participants, which primarily comprises Maltese individuals influenced by Mediterranean culture, which places a high value on social interactions (Sánchez-Villegas et al. 2016). This limitation makes it challenging to apply the study's conclusions to other industries or professions. A more comprehensive and diverse sample, spanning various sectors, would have offered a broader perspective on the link between job satisfaction, remote work and the factors that mediate this relationship. Finally, it is crucial to recognize the geographical isolation of the study's participants in Malta, an isolated island nation. This geographic specificity could limit the relevance of the study's results to more diverse and globally dispersed populations. Additionally, Malta's unique cultural context could introduce cultural biases and idiosyncrasies that may not accurately represent remote work experiences in other regions.

Future Research

Within the evolving landscape of remote work, several intriguing avenues for future research beckon exploration. One essential dimension meriting thorough investigation pertains to the profound influence of employees' home environments and the quality of their home offices on job satisfaction during remote work. A systematic examination of the correlation between well-equipped and conducive home workspaces and job satisfaction can yield valuable insights into how organizations can effectively support their remote workforce.

While this study focused on gathering insights into perceived productivity, there exists an opportunity for future research to bridge the gap between subjective perceptions and objective measures of productivity. Exploring this connection could provide valuable insights into the accuracy of self-assessment and its impact on actual productivity outcomes.

Another compelling avenue for exploration involves adopting a generational perspective on remote work. Research endeavours in this domain could delve into how distinct age groups perceive and experience remote work. It is conceivable that younger generations may manifest higher levels of job satisfaction, potentially owing to their enhanced technological familiarity and adaptability compared to their older
counterparts. The elucidation of these generational dynamics can shed light on strategies for optimizing remote work arrangements across a diverse range of age cohorts.

Moreover, to strengthen the study's validity, it is essential to contemplate the possibility of conducting a replication with a larger sample size. Furthermore, expanding the participant pool to encompass various geographic regions could offer intriguing insights and enable geographic comparisons. This is particularly relevant given the potential influence of Malta-specific cultural factors on the study's outcomes.

Lastly, an in-depth analysis of remote work satisfaction across various industries is warranted. Industries characterized by unique demands and work cultures, such as Information Technology, financial services, and education, may exhibit varying levels of satisfaction among remote workers. A comprehensive exploration of these sector-specific nuances can assist organizations in customizing their remote work procedures and policies to match the unique requirements and anticipations of their workforce.

As the trend of remote work continues to influence the contemporary work environment, a deeper understanding of these aforementioned areas will prove indispensable in fostering a satisfied, engaged, and productive remote workforce.
CONCLUSION

The primary research's objective was to explore the influence of remote work on employee job satisfaction. The findings did not reveal a significant correlation between remote work and job satisfaction, contrary to the initial hypothesis. A potential explanation might be connected to the unique makeup of the research's group of participants, comprising individuals from Malta who are culturally influenced by the Mediterranean, where a prevalent tendency towards social interaction is typical, and remote work might curtail interaction intensity. Notably, the data showed that neither the perception of productivity nor engagement significantly mediated the correlation between remote work and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the research results indicate that personality type does not play a mediating role in the connection between remote work and job satisfaction. However, a highly robust and a statistically significant correlation was identified between remote work and both perceived productivity and engagement. In summary, despite all hypotheses being refuted, organizations can still leverage the research findings, highlighting the advantages of remote work to boost employee engagement and elevate their perceived productivity.
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Appendix

Questionnaire

1. Participant’s Consent Form

I, the undersigned, give my consent to take part in the study conducted by Karolina Wilczyński. This consent form specifies the terms of my participation in this research study.

1. I have been given written and/or verbal information about the purpose of the study; I have had the opportunity to ask questions and any questions that I had answered fully and to my satisfaction.

2. I also understand that I am free to accept to participate, or to refuse or stop participation at any time without giving any reason and without any penalty. Should I choose to participate, I may choose to decline to answer any questions asked. In the event that I choose to withdraw from the study, any data collected from me will be erased as long as this is technically possible (for example, before it is anonymised or published), unless erasure of data would render impossible or seriously impair achievement of the research objectives, in which case it shall be retained in an anonymised form.

3. I understand that I have been invited to participate in questionnaire in which the researcher will collect data to analyse relationship between remote work and job satisfaction and the mediating roles of perceived productivity, engagement, and personality type. I am aware that the questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes. I understand that the questionnaire is to be conducted in a place and at a time that is convenient for me.

4. I understand that my participation does not entail any known or anticipated risks/entails the following risks: psychological risk: Engaging in this study may entail potential psychological discomfort or stress when responding to certain survey questions pertaining to job satisfaction, productivity, engagement, and personality traits. social risks: Involvement in this research may inadvertently lead to the disclosure of sensitive information related to participants' remote work experiences, job satisfaction, and personality characteristics.
5. I understand that there are no direct benefits to me from participating in this study. I also understand that this research may benefit others by sharing anonymous results of the questionnaire.

6. I understand that, under the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and national legislation, I have the right to access, rectify, and where applicable, ask for the data concerning me to be erased.

7. I understand that all data collected will be stored in an anonymised form for research purposes on completion of the study and following publication of results.

8. I have been provided with a copy of the information letter and understand that I will also be given a copy of this consent form.

9. I am aware that my identity and personal information will not be revealed in any publications, reports or presentations arising from this research.

10. If I feel that the questionnaire has distressed me in any way, I may make use of the support services information that Karolina Wilczynski will give me at the beginning of the questionnaire. I am aware that this document comprises a list of free services. The document also includes fee-paying services which I understand I will have to pay for should I decide not to use free services.

By clicking “next” I have read and understood the above statements and agree to participate in this study.

2. Contact for psychological help:

If you find that participating in this questionnaire has caused any distress, I want to ensure you have access to support. Please contact the 24/7 free Mental Health Helpline (Malta) by calling: 1579 or Maia Psychology Centre at 51A, Triq Ponsonby, Mosta, Malta.

+356 9982 2378, +356 9989 0878

3. I have read and understood the above statements and agree to participate in this study.

- I give my consent
- I do not give my consent

4. Gender:
- Male
- Female

5. Age:
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65 or above

6. Employment Status:
- Full-time employee
- Part-time employee
- Self-employed
- Freelancer
- Other (please specify)

7. Do you work remotely? Note: This includes any form of remote working arrangement like hybrid working or any other variations.

- Yes
- No

8. How long have you been working remotely?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-3 years
- 3-5 years
- More than 5 years
9. On average, how many hours per week do you work remotely?
- Less than 10 hours
- 10-20 hours
- 20-30 hours
- 30-40 hours
- More than 40 hours

10. How satisfied are you with your current job on a scale of 1 to 5? (1 = Extremely dissatisfied, 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neither satisfied or dissatisfied, 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Extremely satisfied)

11. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree or disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)
- Working remotely improves my productivity.
- I feel more efficient when working remotely.
- Remote work allows me to focus better on tasks.

12. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree or disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree)
- I feel engaged and motivated while working remotely.
- Remote work enhances my sense of purpose and involvement in my work.
- I am actively involved in my work tasks while working remotely.

13. Please select the statement that you identify with:

10. I am an introverted person. (Understood as a personality trait characterized by a preference for or orientation to one's own thoughts and feelings.)

11. I am an extraverted person. (Understood as a personality trait or style characterized by a preference for or orientation to engaging socially with others.)