

## THE REMOTE WORK EXPERIENCE: EXPLORING ADVANTAGES, DISADVANTAGES, AND IMPACTS ON EMPLOYEES' SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

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**Purpose:** The aim of this article is to assess the impact of advantages and disadvantages (ADV & DISADV) of remote work on employees' subjective well-being (SWB).

**Design/methodology/approach:** In order to operationalise the constructs analysed in the theoretical part of the article, validated research tools were used. The SWB construct consisted of 24 items representing three dimensions: psychological, physical health, and relationships. To measure ADV and DISADV of remote work a tool consisting of 14 items was used, representing two dimensions. Data collected from 322 respondents was analysed using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) approach.

**Findings:** The results show that remote work ADV positively influence employees' SWB, with the impact strength being noted in the following dimensions: physical health, psychological well-being, and relationships. Thus, the influence of remote work ADV is highest for employees' SWB in the relationships dimension. On the other hand, remote work DISADV negatively influence employees' SWB, but only in the relationships dimension, with the impact being minimal. Our research also shows that employees who work partially remotely (hybrid workers) assess their well-being, with the exception of physical health, as better than those who work fully remotely. Moreover, our findings suggest that employees who hold a managerial role report a higher level of well-being than others.

**Research limitations/implications:** To assess the ADV and DISADV of remote work and employees' SWB, the primary methodological challenge was the reliance on self-reported data, which is susceptible to distortions from personal biases and social desirability effects. Additionally, the research process faced limitations related to the sample size and the conducted survey captures only a given moment in remote workers' reality. Another significant limitation, suggesting directions for future research, is the current research design. The adopted approach does not take into account objective/external factors for well-being, potentially compromising the accuracy of the findings.

**Originality/value:** The value of the work comes from its potential to provide new insights into how ADV and DISADV of remote work influence on employees' SWB. This article makes an important contribution to the understanding the phenomenos of employees' SWB in the context of ADV and DISADV of remote work.

**Keywords:** subjective well-being, advantages and disadvantages, remote work, management.

**Category of the paper:** scientific research.

## 1. Introduction

In today's work environment, greatly shaped by global issues such as the past COVID-19 pandemic, remote work has gained increased significance, giving employees the freedom and ability to work from almost any corner of the world (Cook, 2023). At the same time, it presents companies with both competitive advantages and new challenges (Arunprasad et al., 2022). The acceleration of the implementation of remote work models in enterprises has resulted in an increased number of studies on the advantages and disadvantages of remote work (Beño, 2021; Danielak, Wysocki, 2023; Ferreira et al., 2021; Ingusci et al., 2023; Ipsen et al., 2021; Kłopotek, 2017). Regardless of the definition of remote work adopted, authors agree on its nature, as well as its advantages and disadvantages (Ingusci et al., 2023).

The advantages and disadvantages of remote work can be presented from the perspective of both employees and employers, as well as the planet. Research shows that the rise of remote work leads to reduced carbon emissions, but also increased plastic consumption (McPhail et al., 2024). Among the most frequently mentioned advantages of remote work for employees are: reduced costs and time associated with commuting; flexible working hours; comfortable working conditions; increased sense of autonomy and lack of supervision; the ability to balance professional and family life, especially when caring for a child or a sick person; reduced contact with toxic individuals, and even improved relationships with colleagues (Ferreira et al., 2021; Ingusci et al., 2023; Ipsen et al., 2021; Shirmohammadi et al., 2022). Remote work also brings benefits for entrepreneurs, the most important of which include the reduction of costs associated with renting office space (Richter et al., 2017). However, some studies also mention higher levels of engagement among remote employees (Mierzejewska, Chomicki, 2020) as well as increased autonomy and responsibility (Dambrin, 2004). Employers also point out the disadvantages of remote work, such as the difficulty in supervising employees, technological and personal failures disrupting communication with employees, and weakened relationships with employees. Issues related to internet connectivity loss and the negative impact of remote work on interpersonal relationships within the team are also highlighted by employees. Additionally, employees point to the sense of loneliness, loss of connection and identity with the organization, communication problems due to lack of contact, difficulties in maintaining a work-life balance, and challenges with concentration due to domestic distractions (Ingusci et al., 2023; Tavares et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022). For the purposes of this study, the perspective of the employee was adopted, focusing on their perception of the advantages and disadvantages of remote work.

Current literature shows that remote work has a significant impact on an individual's functioning, specifically on their mental and physical health. Increasing social and organizational awareness regarding employee well-being contributes to the growing number of publications in this area (Charalampous et al., 2019; Rodríguez-Muñoz, Sanz-Vergel, 2013; Russell, 2008; Schulte, Vainio, 2010; Weziak-Bialowolska et al., 2020). Well-being, in general terms, is associated with the expected quality of life and life satisfaction (Diener et al., 2002, 2018); the feeling of having everything one needs and striving for what is good for oneself and others (Ryff, Singer, 2008). The self-evaluation of life in terms of quality of life, life satisfaction, and the balance between positive and negative affects is related to the phenomenon of subjective well-being, which will be subject to theoretical and empirical analysis in this study.

Taking care of employees' well-being seems to be an indispensable activity in workplaces today as higher subjective well-being is linked to good health and longevity, improved social relationships, enhanced work performance, and greater creativity. Scientific evidence indicates that in many areas of life, those with relatively high subjective well-being more often exhibit certain desirable behaviors and enjoy better mental health than those with low well-being (Diener et al., 2018). Furthermore, the issue of employee well-being is becoming an increasingly common subject of research due to the problem of an aging workforce and the need to extend working life in many developed countries (Schulte, Vainio, 2010). Employers' concern for employee well-being thus appears to be an unquestionable necessity.

In view of the above, it would appear highly relevant to conduct research on the advantages and disadvantages of remote work as well as the employees' subjective well-being.

The aim of the paper is to assess the impact of advantages and disadvantages (ADV & DISADV) of remote work on employees' subjective well-being (SWB). The results of this research are expected to be useful for decision-makers, helping them understand the main advantages and disadvantages of remote work and how they impact subjective well-being in terms of psychological well-being, physical health, and relationships.

The article consists of five essential sections. Section 2 provides the theoretical background to the constructs analysed. It presents the definitions and characteristics of subjective well-being and its components. The theoretical aspects of remote work present the characteristics and implications of this phenomenon, focusing on the on advantages and disadvantages. Section 3 outlines the research methodology, the instruments employed, and the characteristics of the research sample. Section 4 presents the cognitive results, and the final part of the article includes conclusions, insights for management practitioners, directions for future research, and research limitations.

## 2. Theoretical background

### 2.1. Advantages and disadvantages of remote work

The role of flexible working arrangements has grown due to recent advances in technology, as well as the special conditions faced by people worldwide during the COVID-19 pandemic. Remote work, work from home, and telework (often used interchangeably) seem to be the most popular forms of flexible working arrangements in the 21st century (Messenger et al., 2023). The growing popularity of remote work has contributed to increased interest among researchers in its impact on employees and organizations. On the one hand, previous studies indicate that remote work may have a positive impact on employees and organizations, including higher job productivity, work engagement, and employees' commitment and motivation. On the other hand, remote work poses many challenges related to ineffective communication, work-home interference, social isolation, and higher stress.

From an organizational perspective, remote work may affect job productivity and cost savings. Many studies indicate that employees assess their job performance to be higher when they work from home compared to non-teleworking days (Bloom et al., 2015; Delanoeije, Verbruggen, 2020). Working from home also contributes to cost savings and increased gains (Bloom et al., 2015). In another study, Martin et al. (2022) investigating over 400 employees from different sectors in Luxembourg, indicate that both job productivity and job satisfaction increased with the use of digital technologies for employees' cooperation and communication. Moreover, they state that job stress was reduced when employees used digital technologies for communication and cooperation (Martin et al., 2022). Similarly, Kazekami (2020) states that appropriate telework hours positively influence labour productivity and life satisfaction. Research also shows that remote work may increase work productivity among employees who are parents of small children (Toscano, Zappalà, 2021).

Moreover, employees working from home reported higher work engagement, lower stress, and lower work-to-home conflict (Delanoeije, Verbruggen, 2020; Gerards et al., 2018). However, the positive impact of working from home depends on social interaction in the workplace and leadership styles among line managers (Gerards et al., 2018). Although it is generally held that remote work has a positive impact on job performance, some studies question these results, indicating that there is no evidence of a significant relationship between job productivity and telework (Alfanza, 2021). Previous studies also indicate that although employees working remotely may benefit individually, working from home may negatively impact teammates' productivity (van der Lippe, Lippényi, 2020). The varying results regarding job productivity during remote work may also depend on the nature of the tasks. More precisely, working from home can positively affect job productivity in certain professions, such as IT specialists (Olufunke Olawale et al., 2024), or tasks like creative thinking and concentration.

However, for other tasks, such as obtaining immediate feedback from colleagues, the impact may be negative (Boell et al., 2014). Some studies suggest that the productivity of remote employees may decline, particularly due to personality mismatches with the work mode they are performing (Emanuel, Harrington, 2023).

Generally, the challenges of remote work include ineffective communication, work-home interference, procrastination, and loneliness (Wang et al., 2021). Another challenge associated with remote work is the difficulty of separating work time from personal and family life (Tavares, 2017). Moreover, telework may increase the stress of balancing work and domestic duties (Kazekami, 2020). Working from home can also lead to social isolation, which is not only dangerous for employees but also for society in general (Tavares, 2017). Other negative aspects of remote work include higher stress and lower productivity (Drašler et al., 2021). Additionally, employees who work from home may face difficulties such as the lack of professional communication with colleagues, insufficient resources or infrastructure (e.g. internet), time management issues, and reconciling work with family life (Tavares et al., 2021).

## **2.2. Subjective well-being**

Well-being is regarded as a multifaceted concept encompassing various dimensions of human functioning. It includes multiple aspects, addressing life satisfaction, social functioning, and practical elements of quality of life (Decancq, Lugo, 2012; Maasoumi, Yalonetzky, 2013). The term 'well-being' can be best described as a dynamic state in which an individual can develop their potential, work productively and creatively, establish strong and positive relationships, and contribute to their community (Cloninger et al., 2012).

Literature reports (Alatartseva, Barysheva, 2015; Tan et al., 2020) show the need to distinguish between subjective and objective well-being. Alatartseva and Barysheva (2015) state that an individual can be categorized into two dimensions of well-being: internal (subjective) and external (objective). Internal well-being pertains to spiritual and personal characteristics, while external well-being relates to how individuals perceive and evaluate their position within society. Pontin et al. (2013) point out that subjective well-being (SWB) exclude external factors that influence well-being, such as material (e.g., housing) and financial (e.g., income) considerations. Subjective indicators of well-being encompass questions about emotions, experiences, and overall life evaluations. This approach contrasts with traditional methods that use objective measures like education, health and employment status to assess well-being, which may overlook the importance of human perception in understanding well-being (Tinkler, 2015). There is value in knowing that objective and subjective well-being are crucial for numerous international economic strategy recommendations, and the measurement and monitoring of both are increasingly necessary for policy development and evaluation (Pontin et al., 2013).

In recent decades, there has been growing interest in studying SWB across various disciplines, among others in management. However, the term ‘subjective well-being’ (SWB) was first introduced by Diener in 1984 (Diener, 1984) to describe the area of psychology focused on understanding how people evaluate their quality of life, encompassing both their cognitive judgments and emotional responses (Diener et al., 2002). Subjective well-being was used to be defined as is an individual's assessment of their quality of life (QOL) and thus aligns with the concept of QOL (Proctor, 2014). Pontin et al. (Pontin et al., 2013) emphasize that SWB involves individuals' self-reported assessments of their own lives, including their environmental circumstances, behavioral responses, and the subjective outcomes of those processes. Sarriera and Bedin (2017) note that researchers use self-evaluated well-being to better understand positive human experiences and changes, factors influencing them, and related conditions. The focus frequently lies on the relationship between self-reported well-being and both physical and mental health, along with overall human development at individual and collective levels.

Russel (2008) states that SWB refers to people's perceptions of their existence or their subjective view of their life experience. SWB includes both cognitive judgments, like life satisfaction, and emotional responses to life, such as positive versus negative emotions. When individuals reflect on their lives as a whole or specific areas like work and health, they compare these to their standards for a good life. Therefore, what contributes to life satisfaction is determined by the individuals themselves, not others. Similarly, pleasant emotions arise when people respond to events and circumstances they find desirable (Diener et al., 2018).

Taking into account the above considerations, for the purposes of our research, we have adopted the definition that subjective well-being is the self-evaluation of life in terms of the quality of life, satisfaction and balance between positive and negative affects.

However, since SWB is not a uniform phenomenon, researchers need to examine each of its components separately. There are numerous existing concepts and related measures of SWB. The first unidimensional model of SWB was the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener et al., 1985), which focused on overall life satisfaction and attitudes related to well-being. Another model used in SWB research is Ryff's (1989), which focuses on psychological well-being. It includes dimensions such as self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth. Yet another used model for assessing well-being is the World Health Organization Quality of Life (WHOQOL) (Power, Kuyken, 1998), which is relatively complex. It distinguishes six domains and facets: physical, psychological, level of independence, social relationships, environment, and spirituality/religion/personal beliefs. However, the main emphasis in assessing well-being is placed on physical health.

To balance the aspects related to physical and psychological health for the purpose of our study, we have selected a concept that we believe most comprehensively considers the complexity of the SWB construct and incorporates the full spectrum of well-being domain.

The chosen BBC-SWB model (Pontin et al., 2013) points to the following three components (dimensions): psychological well-being, physical health and relationships.

### **2.3. Subjective well-being in the context of perceived advantages and disadvantages of remote work**

Psychological well-being generally refers to the extent to which an employee is satisfied with their work and non-work life, feeling in control of their life, etc. Most studies indicate that there is a positive relationship between psychological well-being and remote work; however, it depends on remote work characteristics, job demands, and social support. Remote employees with high emotional stability and relatively high job autonomy usually report the least psychological strain (Perry et al., 2018). Additionally, an important aspect of remote working success is building and maintaining social relationships, which positively influence individuals' psychological well-being (Grant et al., 2013). Working from home is also related to lower levels of tiredness (Song, Gao, 2020). Moreover, remote work may support employees who experience high job demands by mitigating the negative impact of job demands on their psychological well-being (Sardeshmukh et al., 2012).

There are still only a few studies assessing the physical well-being of employees during work from home. Most of them (Henke et al., 2016; Lundberg, Lindfors, 2002) indicate that the physical well-being of remote workers is higher than that of those who work in a traditional office. In particular, previous studies show that employees who work from home are less likely to suffer from physical inactivity and poor nutrition (Henke et al., 2016). Additionally, employees who started working from home during the COVID-19 pandemic indicated that they slept more when their work was more flexible (Niu et al., 2021).

Accordingly, the following two hypotheses can be formulated:

H1: Subjective well-being is positively associated with the advantages of remote work.

H2: Remote work disadvantages negatively influence employees' subjective well-being.

However, as mentioned, working from home may lead to loneliness and social isolation due to the lack of face-to-face communication with colleagues, and consequently negatively influence employees' well-being (Wang et al., 2021). This negative impact can be partially reduced through access to high-quality ICT infrastructure (Sardeshmukh et al., 2012). On the other hand, the lack of face-to-face communication with co-workers can be seen as a benefit of remote work. First of all, working from home enables employees to avoid conflicts and negative relationships with their colleagues (Collins et al., 2016). Secondly, previous studies indicate that remote work may positively influence employee-manager relationships and other co-workers, consequently leading to higher work and life satisfaction (Aksoy et al., 2023). Finally, if remote employees feel comfortable with the way they relate and connect with others (e.g., thanks to ICT technologies), the negative effects related to social isolation can be reduced (Bentley et al., 2016). From a family relationships point of view, remote work may be beneficial for ensuring the balance between work life and family life, thanks to better time management

or the reduction of time spent traveling to work (Bavik, 2020). However, some studies indicate that remote work can increase work-family conflict (Tavares, 2017).

Taking the above considerations into account, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H3: The influence of remote work advantages is the highest for employees' subjective well-being in the relationships dimension.

All in all, remote work offers many advantages for employees' SWB; however, there are also important negative aspects. One of the main factors that shape these positive and negative aspects is the intensity of working from home. Employees may benefit from part-time remote work by improving their skills and strengthening their social relations at work (Davidescu et al., 2020). Conversely, other studies indicate that low-intensity teleworkers experience higher work overload and perceive their job more negatively than high-intensity teleworkers, likely as a result of combining demands in the office and telework (Suh, Lee, 2017).

Thus, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H4: Employees who partially work remotely assess their well-being as better than those who work fully remote.

Another factor that differentiates the SWB of remote workers is their position in the organizational structure. Generally, the current discussion on the well-being of managers and other employees focuses primarily on the role of the former in supporting the well-being of the latter (Lundqvist, Wallo, 2023). Some studies also indicate that there are no differences in the well-being of employees at various levels, at least within a given sector (Radu et al., 2023). What's more interesting, however, is that more recent research suggests that as remote work becomes more common, the well-being of managers increases. In other words, the longer managers work remotely, the better they cope with the challenges of remote work, and thus the better they assess their well-being (Gorshkova, Lebedeva, 2023).

Based on this, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H5: Employees who hold a managerial role report a higher level of subjective well-being than others.

### **3. Methods and sample**

Each construct discussed in the theoretical section of the paper was measured using established research tools created and validated by experts in their respective research areas.

In terms of subjective well-being (SWB), we adopted the framework proposed by Pontin et al. (2013). This construct consists of 24 items and used a 5-point Likert scale. The construct encompasses three dimensions: psychological well-being (SWB\_psych), physical health (SWB\_phys), and relationships (SWB\_rel). The names of the dimensions were adopted according to the original description of the construct (Pontin et al., 2013). Regarding



SWB\_psych the following 12 items were evaluated: 1) do you feel depressed or anxious, 2) do you feel able to enjoy life, 3) do you feel you have a purpose in life, 4) do you feel optimistic about the future. 5) do you feel in control of your life, 6) do you feel happy with yourself as a person, 7) are you happy with your looks and appearance, 8) do you feel able to live your life the way you want, 9) are you confident in your own opinions and beliefs, 10) do you feel able to do the things you choose to do, 11) do you feel able to grow and develop as a person, 12) are you happy with yourself and your achievements. In relation to SWB\_phys the following 7 items were assessed: 1) are you happy with your physical health, 2) are you happy with the quality of your sleep, 3) are you happy with your ability to perform daily living activities, 4) are you happy they you have enough money to meet your needs, 5) are you happy with your opportunity for exercise/leisure, 6) are you happy with acces to health services, 7) are you happy with your ability to work. In relation to SWB\_rel the following 5 items were assessed: 1) are you happy with your and family life, 2) are you happy with your friendships and personal relationships, 3) are you comfortable about the way you relate and connect with others, 4) are you happy with your sex life, 5) are you able to ask someone for help with a problem.

In terms of advantages and disadvantages of remote work (ADV & DISADV), we adopted the proposal Ingusci et al. (2023). This scale consists of 14 items and used a 4-point Likert scale. The first of the two constructs – ADV – is measured by the following 7 items: 1) Better possibility to coordinate work-family balance and/or to meet family needs in an appropriate way, 2) economical and/or time saving in travelling, 3) stress reduction and more time available for oneself, 4) possibility of independently working and/or better concentration, organisation/planning of one's work, 5) better relationship with colleagues and/or superiors, 6) increased job satisfaction, 7) better use of available technology. The other construct – DISADV – is assessed by the following 7 items: 1) loss of sense of belonging to one's office, isolation and lack of socialization with colleagues, 2) reduced visibility towards superiors and/or recognition of own work, 3) difficulty in assessing tools/documents in the office and obtaining information from calleagues who work in the office, 4) difficulty in planning work and/or excessive rigidity in working time, 5) less access to professional training and/or carreer progression, perception of less protection and/or less access to information on work decisions, 6) perception of being subjected to stricter controls and/or negative perception by colleagues or superior, 7) difficulty in concentrating due to domestic distractions and/or technology used. The two constructs are moderately, negatively correlated ( $r = -0.2707$ ).

We conducted analyses of the adopted instruments using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to evaluate the measurement models. Although the models did not exhibit ideal fit, they were deemed valid for the purposes of this study. The CFA results for the SWB scale yielded the following statistics:  $\chi^2/\text{DoF} = 2.711$ , CFI = 0.9036, RMSEA = 0.0730. When the SWB subscales were separated into the three constructs, the results were:

$\chi^2/\text{DoF} = 2.372$ , CFI = 0.9236, RMSEA = 0.0654. For the measurement model of the ADV and DISADV constructs, the statistics were:  $\chi^2/\text{DoF} = 2.843$ , CFI = 0.9239, RMSEA = 0.0758.

The reliability of the measured constructs was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Detailed results are presented in Table 1 below. The internal consistency of the adopted measures is considered very good.

**Table 1.**  
*Cronbach's alpha values for measured constructs*

Construct	SWB	SWB_psych	SWB_phys	SWB_rel	ADV	DISADV
$\alpha$	0.949	0.922	0.823	0.836	0.829	0.885

Source: own study.

The survey responses were collected using the Computer-Assisted Web Interviewing (CAWI) method. The research was conducted in April 2024 on a random selection of Polish hybrid and remote employees (77.33% hybrid, 22.67% remote). The gender distribution of the respondents was nearly equal, with men slightly outnumbering women (51.86% men, 49.14% women, 0.00% other). Most respondents had at least a bachelor's degree (69.25%), and the most common job level was specialist/independent (59.63%). The managers comprised 23.91% of the sample. The majority of respondents were employed in the services sectors (83.85%).

Altogether 322 responses were collected, providing results for recent time period. The collected data was checked by two independent experts for correctness, then coded and analysed. For the purpose of statistical analysis, the Python statsmodels package version 0.13.5 (Seabold, Perktold, 2010) and semopy2 (Meshcheryakov et al., 2021) were used. Some additional analyses were performed in R language (R Core Team, 2021).

## 4. Results

For the modelling, we adopted the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) approach. The process of model selection was guided by underlying management and organization theories, as well as psychological concepts. We assumed a standard significance level of 0.05 for inference. The initial model, which included both ADV and DISADV as independent variables, demonstrated that the relationship between ADV and SWB, including its subconstructs as independent variables, was statistically significant with a moderate effect. Conversely, the relationship between DISADV and SWB, including its subconstructs, was not statistically significant.

**Table 2.**  
*Analyzed regression models*

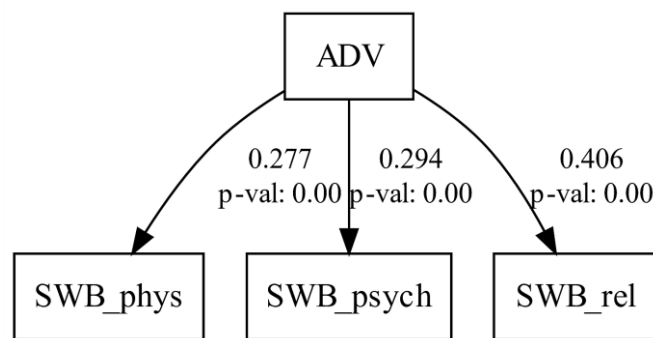
Dependent variable	SWB	SWB	SWB_psych	SWB_psych	SWB_phys	SWB_phys	SWB_rel	SWB_rel
Intercept	2.222*** (0.271)	2.395*** (0.206)	2.179*** (0.281)	2.453*** (0.214)	2.097*** (0.290)	2.442*** (0.221)	2.499*** (0.321)	2.188*** (0.244)
ADV	0.330*** (0.068)	0.312*** (0.065)	0.322*** (0.070)	0.294*** (0.068)	0.313*** (0.073)	0.277*** (0.070)	0.374*** (0.080)	0.407*** (0.078)
DISADV		0.05 (0.051)		0.079 (0.053)		0.100* (0.054)		-0.09 (0.060)
R <sup>2</sup>	0.069	0.067	0.062	0.055	0.056	0.046	0.085	0.079
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.064	0.064	0.056	0.052	0.05	0.043	0.08	0.076
Observations	322	322	322	322	322	322	322	322
F statistic (p-val)	11.9 (0.00)	22.84 (0.00)	10.49 (0.00)	18.65 (0.00)	9.53 (0.00)	15.58 (0.00)	14.89 (0.00)	27.46 (0.00)
Jarque-Bera (p-val)	12.5 (0.00)	12.73 (0.00)	7.13 (0.03)	8.53 (0.01)	8.88 (0.01)	8.05 (0.02)	23.59 (0.00)	23.52 (0.00)
DW	1.97	1.97	2.01	2.01	1.94	1.96	1.98	1.99
Breusch-Pagan (p-val)	0.29 (0.87)	0.17 (0.68)	1.53 (0.47)	0.4 (0.53)	0.45 (0.80)	0.41 (0.52)	0.86 (0.65)	0.45 (0.50)

Standard errors in parentheses, \* p<0.1, \*\* p<0.05, \*\*\*p<0.01.

Source: own study.

The models presented in the table above are characterized by non-normal residuals. Visual inspection revealed no discernible patterns. Additionally, in large samples (where the number of observations per variable exceeds 10), deviations from normality often have a minimal impact on the results (Schmidt, Finan, 2017). The low R<sup>2</sup> values suggest that ADV explains a small portion of the variance in SWB. However, considering the complexity of the antecedents of the modeled construct, these values are deemed adequate for the purpose of this paper.

The graphical representation of the identified relationships between ADV and SWB subconstructs is shown in Figure 1 below.



**Figure 1.** Graphical representation of the model.

Source: own study.

The research team identified two groups of respondents with statistically different levels of SWB and its subscales. Respondents in managerial roles (MANAGER) reported significantly higher levels of SWB compared to respondents in non-managerial roles. Conversely, fully remote employees (REMOTE) reported significantly lower levels of SWB, with the exception of SWB\_phys. For detailed results, please refer to Table 3 below.

**Table 3.**  
*One-way ANOVA summary*

Group	Construct	F statistic	p-value	$\bar{x}$	$\bar{x}_{others}$
Manager	SWB	8.23	0.0044	3.583	3.339
Manager	SWB_psych	9.12	0.0027	3.643	3.365
Manager	SWB_phys	4.87	0.0280	3.449	3.255
Manager	SWB_rel	5.65	0.0180	3.629	3.393
Remote	SWB	5.62	0.0184	3.237	3.444
Remote	SWB_psych	5.07	0.0245	3.267	3.480
Remote	SWB_rel	5.92	0.0155	3.260	3.505

Source: own study.

Based on the observations, it was decided to include two dummy variables in the analysis. The polychoric correlation coefficient between MANAGER and REMOTE indicated a moderate negative correlation ( $r = -0.3062$ ). Each dummy variable was statistically significant when included individually in the model. However, when both dummy variables were introduced simultaneously, MANAGER consistently dominated, occasionally rendering the REMOTE coefficient insignificant. For detailed results, please refer to Table 4 below. Additionally, an analysis of moderation between the dummy variables and ADV and DISADV, using centered variables, found no statistically significant interactions.

**Table 4.**  
*Regression models controlled for MANAGER and REMOTE*

Dependent variable	SWB	SWB	SWB_psych	SWB_psych	SWB_phys	SWB_phys	SWB_rel	SWB_rel
Intercept	2.248*** (0.269)	2.338*** (0.205)	2.194*** (0.280)	2.386*** (0.214)	2.118*** (0.291)	2.396*** (0.222)	2.556*** (0.319)	2.141*** (0.245)
ADV	0.334*** (0.067)	0.324*** (0.064)	0.327*** (0.069)	0.307*** (0.067)	0.316*** (0.072)	0.287*** (0.070)	0.376*** (0.079)	0.419*** (0.076)
DISADV	0.026 (0.050)		0.056 (0.052)		0.081 (0.054)		-0.120** (0.060)	
MANAGER	0.231*** (0.080)	0.234*** (0.080)	0.250*** (0.084)	0.256*** (0.083)	0.187** (0.087)	0.195** (0.087)	0.249*** (0.095)	0.236** (0.095)
REMOTE	-0.158* (0.082)	-0.163** (0.081)	-0.145* (0.085)	-0.154* (0.085)	-0.128 (0.089)	-0.142 (0.088)	-0.232** (0.097)	-0.212** (0.097)
R <sup>2</sup>	0.108	0.107	0.100	0.097	0.079	0.072	0.126	0.115
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.097	0.099	0.089	0.088	0.067	0.064	0.115	0.106
Observations	322	322	322	322	322	322	322	322
F statistic (p-val)	9.62 (0.00)	12.76 (0.00)	8.8 (0.00)	11.36 (0.00)	6.78 (0.00)	8.27 (0.00)	11.4 (0.00)	13.72 (0.00)
Jarque-Bera (p-val)	5.95 (0.05)	6.05 (0.05)	3.80 (0.15)	4.51 (0.10)	6.40 (0.04)	6.14 (0.05)	11.70 (0.00)	12.40 (0.00)
DW	1.97	1.97	2.01	2.01	1.93	1.94	1.99	2.00
Breusch-Pagan (p-val)	4.79 (0.31)	4.91 (0.18)	5.51 (0.24)	4.87 (0.18)	2.3 (0.68)	2.73 (0.44)	9.85 (0.04)	8.49 (0.04)

Standard errors in parentheses, \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

Source: own study.

The observations regarding the Jarque-Bera test statistic remain applicable to Table 4. The Breusch-Pagan test indicated heteroscedasticity in the residuals of the SWB\_rel models. However, visual inspection of the residuals against fitted values did not raise any concerns about conditional heteroscedasticity.

Based on the findings presented in the table above, we adopted a new model that controlled for MANAGER and REMOTE, provided they were significant at the 0.05 level. Notably, DISADV gained some significance in this revised context. The final model specification is presented in Table 5 below.

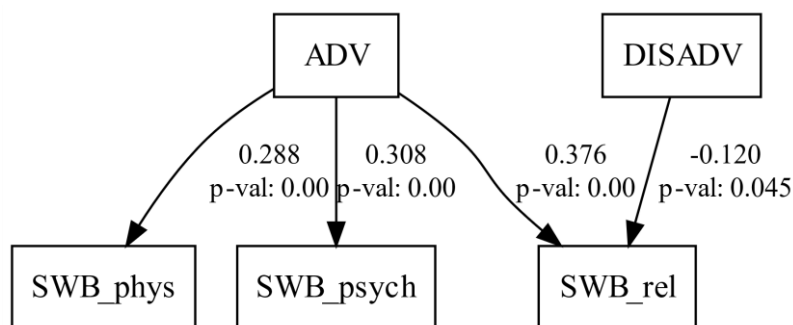
**Table 5.**  
*Final model specification*

Dependent variable	SWB_psych	SWB_phys	SWB_rel
<b>Intercept</b>	2.344*** (0.213)	2.357*** (0.222)	2.556*** (0.319)
<b>ADV</b>	0.307*** (0.067)	0.287*** (0.070)	0.376*** (0.079)
<b>DISADV</b>			-0.120** (0.060)
<b>MANAGER</b>	0.278*** (0.083)	0.216** (0.086)	0.249*** (0.095)
<b>REMOTE</b>			-0.232** (0.097)
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	0.087	0.065	0.126
<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	0.082	0.059	0.115
<b>Observations</b>	322	322	322
<b>F statistic</b> (p-val)	15.27 (0.00)	11.07 (0.00)	11.4 (0.00)
<b>Jarque-Bera</b> (p-val)	6.17 (0.05)	6.69 (0.04)	11.7 (0.00)
<b>DW</b>	2.01	1.94	1.99
<b>Breusch-Pagan</b> (p-val)	0.99 (0.61)	0.95 (0.62)	9.85 (0.04)

Standard errors in parentheses, \* p<0.1, \*\* p<0.05, \*\*\*p<0.01.

Source: own study.

The observations regarding the Jarque-Bera and Breusch-Pagan statistics remain applicable to the models discussed above. The graphical representation of the new model is displayed in Figure 2 below.



**Figure 2.** Graphical representation of the model controlling for MANAGER and REMOTE.

Source: own study.

When controlling for the effects of MANAGER and REMOTE on SWB, the impact of ADV increases across all subconstructs (compare the models in Tables 2, 4 and 5). This increase in effect was suppressed in the final SWB\_rel model due to the inclusion of DISADV, which improved the overall fit of the model. Nevertheless, the relative magnitudes of the effects

remained unchanged—ADV has the greatest impact on SWB\_rel and the least impact on SWB\_phys.

## 5. Discussion

In this paper, we contribute to the literature on remote work and subjective well-being in several ways. First, our research provides empirical evidence on how the advantages and disadvantages of remote work affect employees' subjective well-being. Our findings offer valuable insights to employers, highlighting which aspects of remote work are important to employees. These insights can be used to formulate future corporate policies and recruitment strategies.

Second, our analysis examines employees' subjective well-being (SWB) across three dimensions: psychological well-being, physical health, and relationships. Notably, relationships emerged as having the greatest and most distinctive significance in the context of working from home. This finding carries significant implications for employers and managers, suggesting the need to implement programs and platforms that facilitate and enhance communication between employees while working remotely. Additionally, through a deeper understanding of the remote work arrangements employees prefer, employers can design customized and effective telework policies and programs.

Moreover, our findings are important because they link the workplace environment to the mental and physical well-being of employees, both in work and non-work contexts. Our study also introduces a novel framework for understanding how the advantages of working from home can mitigate the negative effects of remote work on employee well-being. Finally, the study highlights the varying impacts of the pros and cons of remote work based on employment status and the frequency of remote work, offering valuable insights for designing remote work policies that promote employees' well-being.

Our findings suggest that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between the ADV of remote work and employees' SWB. These results confirm our first hypothesis (H1) and are also consistent with previous studies (Delanoëje, Verbruggen, 2020; Gerards et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2022). Moreover, our findings suggest that the disadvantages of remote work negatively influence employees' SWB, but only in the relationship dimension. However, it should be noted that this impact is relatively low and statistically marginally significant ( $p$ -val: 0.045). Nevertheless, it should be acknowledged that the second hypothesis (H2) has been only partially confirmed. This finding is consistent with the research of Danielak and Wysocki (2023) which points out that home workers often feel lonely and it may lower their ability to interact remotely with colleagues. The researchers suggested that an effective communication system needs to be established to offset the reduced frequency of contact.

Ferreira et al. (2021) state, that remote employees may face difficulties in assessing situations due to the virtual nature of communication, such as nuances in tone of voice or signal disruptions during teleconferences. If an employee is already opposed to remote work due to its disadvantages these circumstances could lead to deteriorating relationships between colleagues and increased tensions with the organization.

Moreover, our findings support the third hypothesis (H3), indicating that the impact of remote work ADV is the highest for employees' SWB in the relationships dimension. The essence of SWB in the relationships dimension appears to be crucial in working from home for several reasons. Firstly, remote work may support relationships between colleagues, including leadership. Secondly, remote work does not exacerbate conflicts in the workplace (Collins et al., 2016). Thirdly, working from home also means saving time and using it more effectively (Bavik, 2020). These positive effects lead not only to higher job satisfaction but also contribute to a lower level of family-work conflict (Bentley et al., 2016). It seems that these positive effects can be particularly enhanced by providing employees with a rich ICT infrastructure and social support at the workplace. All in all, these positive effects are observed not only in work life but also in non-work life.

Furthermore, one important outcome of our analysis is that employees who partially work remotely (hybrid workers) assess their well-being, with the exception of physical health, as better than those who work fully remotely. These findings partially confirm our fourth hypothesis (H4) and align with previous studies suggesting that employees may benefit from part-time remote working through improved skills and strengthened social relations at work (Davidescu et al., 2020). The lack of differences in the area of physical health may stem from the fact that both fully remote employees and hybrid employees work sitting in front of a computer monitor, not leading more or less active lives. Therefore, they do not notice differences in their physical well-being. Finally, our findings support the fifth hypothesis (H5), implying that employees in managerial roles report a higher level of well-being than other employees. Therefore, it can be presumed that the higher well-being of managers compared to other employees mainly results from their greater ability to control their own well-being (Porath et al., 2022), as well as the fact that managers usually have greater job autonomy than other employees (Perry et al., 2018).

## 6. Conclusions

The aim of this article was to assess the impact of advantages and disadvantages (ADV and DISADV) of remote work on employees' subjective well-being (SWB). Our study contributes to the body of knowledge on remote working by identifying and explaining the advantages and disadvantages of working from home for employees' SWB. In particular, our empirical analysis

demonstrates both the positive and negative aspects of remote work and examines employees' SWB in three dimensions: psychological well-being, physical health, and relationships.

Based on empirical research and statistical analysis, we were able to confirm hypothesis H1, which states that SWB is positively associated with the ADV of remote work. More specifically, remote work ADV positively influences employees' SWB. Among the dimensions, the strongest influence was noted in the relationships dimension, which also confirms hypothesis H3. The smallest influence was observed in the physical health dimension. Statistical analysis also partially confirmed hypothesis H2, which posits that remote work DISADV negatively influences employees' SWB, but only in the relationships dimension. However, this effect is relatively weak. Through statistical analysis, two dummy variables were introduced: fully remote employees and respondents in managerial roles. Each dummy variable was statistically significant when included individually in the model. Our research indicates that employees who work partially remotely (in a hybrid model) report higher levels of SWB, with the exception of physical health, compared to those who work entirely remotely, which partially confirms hypothesis H4. Moreover, our findings suggest that employees in managerial roles report a higher level of SWB than employees in non-managerial roles, which in turn confirms hypothesis H5. It is worth noting that managers are more likely to work in a hybrid model than fully remote.

The discussion on the relationship between ADV/DISADV of remote work and employees' SWB provides useful implications. Firstly, the observation that SWB is positively associated with the ADV of remote work suggest that employers should consider offering their employees the option to work remotely more frequently if they aim to boost SWB, including psychological well-being, physical health and in particular relationships. Additionally, higher employee well-being could lead to improved retention rates, potentially reducing turnover. Going forward, it might lower replacement costs and positively impact the company's overall financial performance. Secondly, considering that the disadvantages of remote work may negatively affect employees' relational well-being, it is important for employers to remain vigilant and closely monitor the relational aspect of their employees. If necessary, they should take measures to strengthen the relationships of remote workers. Relational well-being can pertain to both professional and personal life. However, the strongest negative impact is due to the reduction in direct contact with colleagues (Gillet et al., 2024). Thirdly, our research highlights that employees who work partially remotely assess their well-being, with the exception of physical health, more positively than those who work fully remotely, indicating that a hybrid work model is becoming the recommended approach for enhancing well-being. It is worth noting that the hybrid model is currently gaining increasing popularity in the Polish labour market (Mariniello et al., 2021; Pokojski, Lipowski, 2023), and our findings confirm that this solution should be continued. Thus, the conclusions drawn from our research are valuable for business practice and expand the existing knowledge in the field of management regarding remote work and well-being. Nevertheless, they certainly require further exploration.



Our research has limitations that provide a starting point for future research. Firstly, to evaluate the ADV and DISADV of remote work and SWB, the main methodological challenge was the dependence on primary data collected, which can be distorted by personal biases and the desire to present oneself favorably. Secondly, the research was limited by the size of the sample. Because of the necessary sample size to achieve representative outcomes, it is important to be careful when making generalizations based on the findings. As a next step, it would be worthwhile extending the research sample to include remote workers in different sectors and make comparisons between them. Thirdly, the survey we conducted captures only a given moment in an remote workers' reality. Conducting a longitudinal study could provide interesting insights into perception of ADV and DISADV by remote workers as well as their SBW. The last limitation suggesting a direction for future research is the use of a quantitative approach. This method does not account for external variables, which may affect the accuracy of the findings. Incorporating a qualitative study would enhance understanding in the analyzed areas and could yield additional valuable insights and conclusions. The conclusions drawn from this study expand the existing knowledge in the field of management regarding remote work and well-being. Nevertheless, they certainly require further exploration.

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