



INSTITUTO  
UNIVERSITÁRIO  
DE LISBOA

---

## **Flexible Working Arrangements, Self-Regulation, and Job Crafting: An Organizational Take on Employee Well-Being**

Afonso Magalhães Rodrigues

MSc in International Management

Supervisor:  
PhD, Atieh Sadat Mirfakhar, Invited Assistant Professor,  
Iscte-IUL

September, 2025



**BUSINESS  
SCHOOL**

---

Department of Marketing, Strategy and Operations

**Flexible Working Arrangements, Self-Regulation, and Job Crafting: An Organizational  
Take on Employee Well-Being**

Afonso Magalhães Rodrigues

MSc in International Management

Supervisor:  
PhD, Atieh Sadat Mirfakhar, Invited Assistant Professor,  
Iscte-IUL

September, 2025





## **Acknowledgments**

I want to start by expressing my deepest gratitude towards each and every one that has helped me achieve this. To my family, whose encouragement and support never wavered. To my friends, who in some way or another helped me. To all my colleagues for making sure I was not alone in this academic journey. And to my advisor, Doctor Atieh Mirfakhar, whose extensive knowledge and experience laid out the path for this dissertation to reach its present form.

Thank you all.



## Resumo

As repercussões da pandemia da COVID-19 ainda são visíveis. Embora a flexibilidade no local de trabalho tenha sido uma medida de precaução em tempos de pandemia, hoje já não carrega tal significado. As práticas de trabalho flexíveis podem ter um impacto positivo na vida de uma pessoa e, por serem cada vez mais adotadas, é de grande importância analisar os impactos destas práticas.

Este estudo investiga as relações entre práticas de trabalho flexíveis, autorregulação, job crafting e bem-estar dos funcionários através da teoria da Conservação de Recursos. Com base em dados recolhidos através de um inquérito de 91 trabalhadores, analisou-se de que forma estas variáveis interagem entre si e influenciam tanto o bem-estar no trabalho como o bem-estar geral.

Os resultados mostram que as práticas de trabalho flexíveis têm um impacto positivo no bem-estar no contexto laboral, mas não exercem o mesmo efeito sobre o bem-estar geral. Em contrapartida, a autorregulação revelou um impacto positivo do bem-estar geral, mas não do bem-estar no trabalho. Verificou-se ainda que job crafting desempenha um papel mediador na relação entre autorregulação e ambas as dimensões de bem-estar. Contudo, o job crafting moderou negativamente a relação entre práticas de trabalho flexíveis e o bem-estar laboral, sugerindo que estes dois recursos competem entre si ao invés de se complementarem.

Esta investigação contribui para a compreensão das decisões de alocação de recursos, para a gestão de recursos humanos, e salienta a importância de se considerar as especificidades de cada organização na adoção de práticas de flexibilidade laboral.

Palavras-chave: práticas de trabalho flexíveis; job crafting; autorregulação; bem-estar dos funcionários; teoria da Conservação de Recursos, contexto organizacional.

J28 (Segurança no Trabalho; Satisfação Profissional; Políticas Públicas Relacionadas); O15 (Recursos Humanos; Desenvolvimento Humano; Distribuição de Rendimento; Migração); M54 (Gestão do Trabalho)



## Abstract

Repercussions of the COVID-19 pandemic are still visible today. With employees still engaged in remote and flexible working practices, these practices have been settling down as a more common practice. While flexibility in the workplace was a measure taken out of precaution in pandemic times, today it no longer carries such implications. Flexible working practices can have positive impact on one's life, and by being more commonly adopted, it is now vital to look into the outcome of such practices.

This study examines the relationships between flexible working arrangements, self-regulation, job crafting and employee well-being through the lens of the Conservation of Resources theory.

Using a quantitative research conducting survey with 91 employed individuals, the research looked into how the aforementioned variables interact with each other to influence workplace and general employee well-being. Results showed that flexible working arrangements had a positive impact on workplace well-being but not on overall well-being. Self-regulation showed positive impact on overall well-being but not on workplace well-being. Job crafting, negatively moderated the effects of flexible working arrangements, suggesting that job crafting and flexible working arrangements work in competition rather than in complement to each other.

The findings highlight the multiple beliefs of universal benefits of flexible working arrangements on employee well-being and suggest that companies should strategically allocate their resources based on context, dimension and resources. The findings contribute to a further understanding of resource allocation, human resource management and highlights the needs for a context-based evaluation from the implementation of flexible workplace arrangements.

Keywords: flexible working arrangements; job crafting; self-regulation; employee well-being; Conservation of Resources theory; organizational context.

J28 (Workplace Safety; Job Satisfaction; Public Policy Related); O15 (Human Resources; Human Development; Income Distribution; Migration); M54 (Labor Management)

## Index

Acknowledgments .....	iii
Resumo .....	v
Abstract .....	vii
Introduction .....	11
1. Literature Review.....	13
1.1. Employee Well-being.....	13
1.2. Flexible Working Arrangements .....	15
1.2.1. Flexible Working Arrangements and Their Implications .....	16
1.2.2. Flexible Working Arrangements as an Asset.....	17
1.3. Self-regulation.....	19
1.4. Job crafting.....	21
1.4.1. Job Design and Job crafting .....	21
1.4.2. The Emergence of Job Crafting .....	22
1.4.3. The Outcomes of Job Crafting .....	24
1.5. Organizational Context .....	26
1.6. Theoretical Integration .....	28
2. Methodology.....	31
2.1. Research Design.....	31
2.2. Participants and Data Collection.....	31
2.3. Measures.....	31
2.4. Data Analysis .....	32
3. Results.....	33
3.1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis.....	33
3.2. Hypothesis Testing.....	35
4. Discussion.....	39
4.1. Key Findings .....	39
4.2. Interpretation of Results .....	39
4.3. Managerial Implications.....	41
4.4. Limitations .....	42
4.5. Suggestions for Future Research.....	43
Conclusion.....	45
Bibliographic References .....	46
Annexes.....	53

## **Index of Figures**

Figure 1 - Conceptual model.....	29
Figure 2 - Interaction Effects Between JC, FWAs and EWBW .....	36

## **Index of Tables**

Table 1 – Means, Standard Deviation and Correlation Table .....	34
Table 2 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being.....	35
Table 3 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being at work .....	35
Table 4 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being.....	35
Table 5 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being at work .....	36
Table 6 - Mediation and Moderation Analysis.....	37
Table 7 - Moderation Table of Organizational Context.....	38



## Introduction

The quick adoption of flexible working arrangements (FWAs) following the COVID-19 pandemic has changed how organizations and employees approach work. Starting as an emergency response in pandemic times, it has evolved into a more prominent feature of workplaces, with literature showing that positive outcomes during the transition exceeded both employer and employee expectations (Barrero et al., 2023). The implementation of FWAs has created a need to understand not just whether they work, but under what conditions FWAs are most beneficial. This understanding is particularly important as organizations make decisions about workplace policies that shape modern-day workplaces.

Despite research on workplace flexibility spanning multiple years, the relationship between FWAs and employee well-being (EWB) remains complex and highly nuanced. Some studies demonstrate clear benefits such as improved work-life balance, increased job satisfaction, and reduced stress (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Wheatley, 2017), while other studies reveal potential negative outcomes including work intensification, boundary blurring, and social isolation (Russell et al., 2009; Allen et al., 2015).

These mixed findings suggest that the effectiveness of FWAs depends on more than their availability and usage. It also suggests that there may be more factors that influence how FWAs translate into well-being outcomes for employees. Understanding the interaction and how these factors work as a whole is essential for organizations that may be looking to improve well-being in their workforce.

Self-regulation (SR) represents one key individual characteristic that may independently influence EWB. Within the context of FWAs, employees with higher SR may be better equipped to deal with the changes that stem from FWAs. Equally, employees with lower SR may see the opposite effect (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). While both FWAs and SR may each influence EWB, this study looks at each variable as a separate factor.

Individual characteristics are not the single factor that can determine FWAs effectiveness. Job crafting (JC) refers to the self-started actions employees make to create a more meaningful and engaging work experience (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Within FWAs there may be more opportunities for job crafting as FWAs may see more autonomy over when, where, and how they work, though it is crucial to point out that JC behaviors can occur in any work situations, regardless of the presence of FWAs.

The organizational context in which FWAs are implemented also plays an important role in determining their success. Different organizational cultures, structures and economic situations can impact the effectiveness of FWAs. The distinction between domestic and international companies in this study allows us to look further into organizational context and how it affects FWAs implementations. These contextual differences may influence how effectively FWAs affect EWB, showing that organizational context could be factored in.

While SR provides employees with capabilities to manage the changes brought by FWAs, JC bridges the gap by allowing SR capabilities to translate into better work experiences.

Understanding the separate roles of each variable (with FWAs as workplace policies, SR as individual characteristics, and with JC as proactive behaviors) allows a more refined understanding of the factors that may influence EWB.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides a useful framework for understanding these relationships. COR theory provides a framework for understanding how individuals gain, maintain, and utilize resources to achieve desired outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989).

FWAs can be seen as an organizational resource employees can take advantage of SR as a personal resource that can be leveraged and JC as investment behaviors to further increase resources to achieve improvements in EWB.

This research contributes to the literature by examining how organizational and individual resources function together and by marking the differences between general and workplace-specific well-being outcomes from FWAs. By investigating these relationships, this study aims to provide organizations with a more nuanced understanding of how FWAs can be used to provide well-being benefits. Rather than assuming FWAs as universally beneficial, this research looks to identify the conditions under which FWAs are effective. The findings contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of workplace flexibility that goes further than the adoption of standard flexibility practices across companies and contexts.

## 1. Literature Review

### 1.1. Employee Well-being

Well-being encompasses a variety of different concepts as it has connections to physical, psychological, emotional, and social aspects. Earlier research showed two main approaches: the hedonic approach (Diener, 1984; Kahneman et al., 1999), which includes observed feelings of happiness, positive affect, decreased negative affect and satisfaction with life; and the eudemonic approach which measures psychological functioning and human development (Ryff, 1989; Waterman, 1993).

Hedonic wellbeing describes everyday feelings or moods while eudemonic wellbeing is characterized by the judgements on one's life purpose and meaning (Steptoe et al., 2015). While hedonic research offers quantifiable metrics, they may overlook the deeper psychological processes that eudaimonic approaches measure, potentially overlooking true improvements in meaning and purpose at work. This creates a challenge, as studies using hedonic measures should not be directly compared with those using eudaimonic frameworks as they are measuring two distinct subdimensions.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides another framework for understanding well-being. This framework can help define well-being as it defines individuals' needs to obtain and maintain resources (Hobfoll, 1989). COR theory defines four types of resources, such as object resources, condition resources, personal characteristics, and energy resources.

There is an argument to be made for the distinction in terms of health and well-being, as health can be used to refer to the numeral physiological and biological indicators and can be considered a sub-component of overall well-being; while well-being more specifically focuses on the wider concept that encompasses both non-work and work related satisfactions. Danna & Griffin (1999) identified three main antecedents of well-being in the workplace: work setting, personality and occupational stress.

Other frameworks, like the PERMA model, which is comprised of positive engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment, and positive emotions (Seligman, 2011), further show that well-being encompasses a broader range of indicators rather than good physical health. The model concludes that increases in any of these five elements can lead to increased well-being. While these foundational approaches to general well-being provide important theoretical foundations, researchers have developed specific models to understand how well-being fits into organizational environments.

Warr (1999) further defines a clear distinction between job-specific well-being and context-free well-being, which measures well-being in any setting and the emotions one may feel as opposed to the feelings one feels in relation to their job.

Page & Vella-Brodrick (2009) fine-tuned the concept of employee well-being. They argue that employee well-being can be categorized in three distinct categories. The subjective well-being, the workplace well-being and the psychological well-being of employees. They also argue that subjective well-being can be split into life satisfaction and dispositional affect and that workplace well-being can be divided into job satisfaction and work-related affect. This conceptual model also includes measures of psychological well-being that extend beyond the scope of job-related measures, such as self-acceptance, personal growth and positive relations with others, which allow for a more comprehensive insight into the well-being of employees.

Work-related factors that affect worker well-being include job demands, pressures, degree of autonomy and flexibility, quality of relationships, and organizational support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Workplace environment, another factor that influences overall well-being, encompasses physical conditions of work as well as social dynamics (Parker, 2014). The physical and social work environment and organizational job characteristics significantly influence workers' well-being, with research demonstrating that workplace resources serve as factors of both employee well-being and performance outcomes (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Looking beyond organizational factors, individual and psychosocial traits play a role in determining employee well-being (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Research has identified several aspects of workplace well-being such as mental and emotional support, sense of purpose, personal support, financial health, and meaningful relationships, workplace stress, work-life balance, and recreational activities, all of which can influence one's well-being. (Guest, 2017; Zheng et al., 2015) Individual differences in coping mechanisms, personality traits, and personal resources shape how employees respond to workplace conditions, creating variability in well-being outcomes even within similar organizational contexts (Hobfoll, 2002; Judge et al., 2002).

For the purposes of this study, employee well-being is going to be defined through Page & Vella-Brodrick's (2009) framework, which includes subjective well-being (life satisfaction and dispositional affect), workplace well-being (job satisfaction, work-related affect and negative affect), and psychological well-being (including self-acceptance, personal growth, and positive relations with others). This research will provide a narrower focus on measuring the subdimension of workplace well-being, as it captures the job-specific experiences and emotions that employees experience within their organizational context, rather than the well-being measures one would feel without considering work.

### 1.2.Flexible Working Arrangements

Jack Nilles first coined telecommuting describing it as the use of telecommunications and computer to perform work-related tasks instead of commuting to a physical workplace (Nilles et al., 1976). This practice was thought to be a response to energy crises and urban congestion. During the following two decades, Hill et al. (1998) rightfully noted that there was little empirical evidence on the concrete results that stemmed from these practices. Qualitative analysis from their study uncovered the perception of increased productivity, higher morale and a greater work-life balance.

By the 1990s, the explosion of technology such as personal computers, internet, and mobile communication, laid a foundation from which FWAs started to appear (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Brewster et al., 1997). According to Beers (2000), the proportion of workers with FWAs doubled between 1985 and 2000. This demonstrates that these practices have been evolving and studied for decades.

Workplace flexibility gained more mainstream attention largely due to the COVID-19 pandemic, but it has been established that it is not a recent phenomenon. Telework or telecommuting, as defined by Olson & Primps (1984), is the replacement of physical travel to one's workplace, such as an office, by technology, and typically connotes working from home. However, it is important to note that telework can include other 'secondary places' and not exclusively working from home practices.

In response to COVID-19 pandemic restrictions, remote work adoption increased dramatically, with workers who could work from home doing so 23% more than the previous year in the US alone (Wang et al., 2021). Following the pandemic peak, usage of FWAs has continued beyond the initial reaction to the outbreak. According to Barrero et al. (2023), positive outcomes during the transition exceeded both employer and employee expectations, and as such, this success has led to a sustained adoption of FWAs by both parties.

Building on these practices, hybrid systems or hybrid working arrangements also emerged as an adaptation to the COVID-19 pandemic. Both are defined, per Hopkins & Bardoel (2023), as an arrangement where an employee splits their working time between a traditional workplace and a secondary location such as their home, a coworking space, a library or any other place where employees are able to perform their job-related tasks.

#### 1.2.1. Flexible Working Arrangements and Their Implications

FWAs are shown to have positive outcomes: reduced (or no) commuting which can result in cost savings, autonomy in time management (Bacarra & Decenorio, 2022), and facilitation in the management of domestic responsibilities, increased leisure time (Wheatley, 2017), and consequently improved work-life balance (Bacarra & Decenorio, 2022). As a result of work-life balance, employees have higher job satisfaction, productivity, and an increased satisfaction with work schedules (Baltes et al., 1999) as well as feeling of increased life satisfaction (Wheatley, 2017).

Austin-Egole et al. (2020) describe a crucial point of how FWAs can benefit employees, especially those with higher self-regulation, better organization skills or more self-sufficiency. FWAs can boost performance and be used by the companies as a way to acquire and retain talent, and therefore, can act as mechanisms to improve lower absenteeism and turnover rates, further displaying the applicability of FWAs as a resource for both employers and employees. Similarly, de Menezes and Kelliher (2016) found that when employees are given the opportunity and flexibility, the company is met with an increased commitment from the employee. The possibility of employees having more control over their own work-family relationship provides a sense of autonomy, support and is likely to increase job satisfaction.

However, FWAs can also become a source of friction in workers' lives. As Russell et al. (2009) determined, employees who work from home are associated with higher levels of work-related pressure and report increased imbalances between their professional and personal lives. The authors found that working from home does not necessarily promote work-life balance. Further investigation revealed that employees would normally work longer hours when working from home, which means that their jobs deprive them of their family time.

FWAs present adaptability, still, psychological aspects are recurring in these practices and as FWAs can represent a shift from traditional work formats, a new set of challenges may arise. Boundaries between professional and personal life can become more easily blurred when there is no clear physical separation in the workspace, as explained by Work/Family Border Theory (Clark, 2000). The higher permeability of working from home, which is often filled with interruptions and greater flexibility, allows personal and professional roles to overlap and creates tension and stress, demonstrating how FWAs can enable negative outcomes. Wheatley (2017) also determined that FWAs involving reduced working hours have been associated with negative effects, due to increased work intensity and potential reductions in compensation in proportion to having to produce the same outcomes with less resources, in this case, working hours.

Research has shown the mixed results that suggest that FWAs have the potential for having either positive or negative outcomes, underlining the complexity of FWAs, and the highly nuanced characteristics of each situation (Hill et al., 1998; Sullivan & Lewis, 2001). Although some of these studies were conducted before modern workplace technologies and communication systems existed, they display that the impact of FWAs depends on their implementation. Factors like organizational culture, the nature of the work, individual preferences, and the quality of organizational support can positively or negatively influence FWAs.

#### 1.2.2. Flexible Working Arrangements as an Asset

Within the broader context of employee well-being, it is essential to distinguish organizational resources versus individual resources. FWAs represent a resource, specifically an organizational resource as they are a resource provided by employers that can influence employee well-being outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Individual factors such as personality traits, self-regulatory capacity, or individual coping mechanisms, depend on the self, while FWAs depend on organizational policies, management support, and structural arrangements within the workplace (Allen et al., 2013).

The organizational nature of FWAs has important implications for understanding their relationship with well-being outcomes. Research suggests that resources like FWAs may only translate into well-being benefits when employees possess the internal resources and capabilities to use them appropriately (Wang et al., 2021). This creates a dynamic where the source of the factors can change FWAs outputs, highlighting the importance of accounting for multiple factors that influence EWB.

The Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) outlines job demands and job resources. An employee can make use of the resources to better deal with those demands. Resources can be the physical, psychological, social, and organizational elements of the workplace that help employees reduce the impact of job demands, which are the elements that need constant effort or skills.

Research suggests that job resources may buffer the effect of job demands on job strain (Bakker et al., 2005), and as such, looking at the cited and shown benefits of FWAs, we can argue that when used correctly, FWAs can act as job resource to help reduce the job demands via the number of positive impacts they provide. However, the effect of FWAs as a buffer depends on factors such as workload, job demands and job characteristics. Nevertheless, we cannot deny the positive influence it can have on diminishing job demands. For instance, FWAs can reduce or remove stress that is related to commuting, reduce workplace interruptions allowing employees to manage work-life conflicts better. When combined with more resources such as organizational support, performance feedback (among others), FWAs can add positive returns as a job resource (Bakker et al., 2005)

From a COR theory perspective, FWAs represent a form of resource that can enable both resource conservation and resource investment (Hobfoll, 1989). FWAs can help employees save resources, such as reduced commuting times, better work-life balance when correctly implemented, and increases in their work autonomy. On the other hand, the COR framework also helps link poor FWAs results due to resource constraints like boundary blurring or increases in work intensity, which have a negative impact on EWB.

The mixed results regarding the effectiveness of FWAs on EWB often point out positive and/or negative outcomes based on the quality of FWA deployment, organizational support, job characteristics, individual preferences and other subtle variables that can change based on industry, job type and gender (Allen et al., 2013). Positive outcomes referred are increased job-satisfaction and morale, and reduction in work-family conflicts (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). The negative outcomes include overwork (Allen et al., 2015), social isolation and reduced collaboration (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). The takeaway from current literature is that FWAs are not a tool that outright guarantees success or positive outcomes.

With the proper introduction and implementation, FWAs, from the Job Demands-Resources model lens, can serve as valuable assets used by both employer and employee to help buffer job-demands and provide positive outcomes. Still, poor implementation and lack of proper organizational support can turn FWAs into more of a liability than an asset, providing more prejudicial results.

The outcomes associated with FWAs discussed directly align with established concepts of EWB. The job satisfaction, work-life balance, and positive affect reported in FWA studies represent components of Page & Vella-Brodrick's (2009) workplace well-being framework, particularly job satisfaction and work-related affect. Similarly, the increased life satisfaction and reduced stress that are associated with FWAs correspond to hedonic well-being measures. The autonomy and flexibility that can be obtained via FWAs address work-related factors such as autonomy, flexibility, and reduced job pressures, as identified by Bakker & Demerouti (2007).

Additionally, when FWAs function effectively as job resources within the Job Demands-Resources model, they contribute to job-specific well-being (Warr, 1999). The possibilities of FWAs to reduce workplace interruptions, increase control over work environment, and the possibility more easily managing personal and professional responsibilities, directly supports dimensions of workplace well-being identified in the literature, including work-life balance, personal support, and reduced workplace stress (Guest, 2017; Zheng et al., 2015).

For the purposes of this study, flexible working arrangements are going to be defined as organizational tools used by both employees and employers that allow work to be performed outside the primary office location and provide the possibility of varying the time when one begins and ends work. Based on the theoretical alignment between FWAs and well-being frameworks, the following hypotheses are presented.

H1: FWAs will positively predict (a) Employee Well-being and (b) Employee Well-being at work

### 1.3. Self-regulation

The concept of the 'self' is one that characterizes one as an active, responsive entity, who engages in voluntary choices that can change, modify or adjust oneself. Processes such as changing emotional states, regulating one's own behavior can be described by self-regulation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007).

Though self-regulation and self-control are used to some extent to broadly depict the actions taken by one to change one's own behavior, there is a subtle nuance in the two concepts. As Baumeister & Vohs (2007) precisely show that self-control more closely aligns with impulse control and self-regulation better captures objective-oriented behaviors. This distinction is crucial for understanding the larger scope of self-regulation, which may include impulse control, proactive planning, monitoring progress toward objectives, and making strategic adjustments (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-regulation therefore represents a more comprehensive lens for understanding how individuals modify their actions toward their preferred outcomes in work contexts (Heggestad & Kanfer, 2000).

The quality of self-regulation depends on its source: either external regulation or introjected regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Internal self-regulation occurs when changes to one's behavior stem from personal values, motivations and interests while external, or controlled self-regulation happens when those same behaviors are determined by external sources, like upper management, job pressures or deadlines. This separation of the source of the motivation is crucial for the value of self-regulation, as intrinsic self-regulation is associated with increased performance and general well-being, as opposed to the external self-regulation which can become a point of friction in one's life.

Self-regulatory capabilities are limited resources that will deplete over time and as such, self-regulation requires the management of finite resources, including energy, attention, and motivation over time (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). As described before, job demands, which are the elements of work that need constant effort or skills from the worker, help examine effective self-regulation as an efficient buffer in reducing job demands, increasing overall well-being and performance (Bakker et al., 2005).

According to COR theory, individuals must invest energy resources to maintain and develop resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Self-regulation can be seen as a resource that decreases over time and over exertion. These self-regulatory capabilities can be classified as a personal resource that works against resource loss in demanding work.

Besides productivity or performance improvement, self-regulation impacts work quality through enhanced attention control. Employees must control themselves to perform tasks successfully, without errors, particularly when facing distractions (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Workplace self-regulation involves managing various competing demands simultaneously and success at work often requires regulation of behaviors while simultaneously meeting task demands. (Lord et al., 2010). While FWAs may influence employee well-being, self-regulation operates as an individual-level factor that independently contributes to work outcomes.

Research on remote work, a type of FWA, has identified self-regulation as a crucial individual factor of success in flexible work arrangements. Wang et al. (2021) found that employees with lower self-regulation experienced more self-control failures, while those with higher self-regulation completed work more efficiently and maintained better work-family balance.

Self-regulation enables individuals to align their behaviors with personal values and long-term goals, contributing to eudaimonic well-being through an improved sense of purpose and meaning (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). This alignment between actions and intrinsic motivation fosters well-being in their work.

Additionally, employees with better self-regulatory abilities demonstrate greater stress management skills, reduced burnout symptoms, and greater psychological resilience when confronting challenging work demands (Gross, 2002; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). This emotional regulation capacity directly supports both hedonic well-being, through increased positive affect and decreased negative emotions, and workplace well-being, through improved job satisfaction and work engagement (Gross, 2002).

Individuals with better self-regulatory skills are better equipped to prioritize tasks effectively, manage time efficiently, and maintain appropriate boundaries between work and personal domains, all of which contribute to enhanced overall well-being (Baumeister & Tierney, 2011).

H2: Self-Regulation will positively predict (a) Employee Well-being and (b) Employee Well-being at work

#### 1.4. Job crafting

##### 1.4.1. Job Design and Job crafting

Traditional job design approaches emerged from industrial psychology, looking at how managers could design jobs to optimize work processes and improved efficiency, as stated by Taylor (1911). However, these models assumed employees were passive recipients of job design decisions and it was overlooked that workers might proactively reshape their roles based on their own needs, strengths, and motivations (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics model identifies five core dimensions that directly impact psychological conditions, which consequently result in multiple positive personal and professional outcomes. Three dimensions directly impact work meaningfulness, with two addressing task characteristics such as identity (completing whole pieces of work) and significance (impact on others). However, self-initiative is more likely to be found on individuals with a higher need for growth motivation and a more initiative-taking personality (Crant, 1995). The Hackman & Oldham (1976) Job Characteristics model, while foundational, was developed in an era where technology did not yet drive the workplace, and as such may not portray modern work dynamics as well.

Conservation of Resources theory provides once more the framework for contextualizing job crafting as a resource investment (Hobfoll, 1989). When employees engage in job crafting, they invest resources to reshape their work, which aligns with COR theory's argument that an individual who possesses more resources is better positioned to invest in additional resource gains.

Job crafting, in line with the Job Demands-Resources model, can assist employees in reducing job demands, as workers who engage in job crafting behaviors have increased their job resources over time. Job crafting is not a conventional job resource like feedback or autonomy, but rather a deliberate action employees make that has the potential to shift job demands and resources over time (Tims et al., 2013).

Framing individual motivation and proactive behavior as a key variable in traditional job design theories help understand how employees might shape their own work experiences. Rather than being passive recipients of their jobs, employees become active designers of their own work experiences. Employees making changes that start from the bottom up further highlights that it is a proactive initiative for employees, making their work personally meaningful and additionally aligned with their own preferences and motivations. This evolution demonstrated the idea that employees are not shaped by their work environment but can actively shape it back (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

#### 1.4.2. The Emergence of Job Crafting

Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) characterize job crafting as the actions employees take to shape, mold, and redefine their jobs and make it more meaningful or manageable. It is important to mention that job crafting is a process to customize and change some aspects of work and not the overall scope of one's work (Berg & Dutton, 2008). Job crafting can help fulfill basic psychological needs such as autonomy, competency and relatedness, which are all essential for

personal growth, personal well-being and integration, as well as for societal development (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Conservation of Resources theory provides the framework for contextualizing job crafting as a resource investment (Hobfoll, 1989). When employees engage in job crafting, they invest personal resources to reshape their work. According to COR theory, these investments can create additional resources, which create a positive feedback loop that enhances employees' personal and job resources.

Job crafting is a self-started process, and employees reshape their work because of three main needs. These are the need for control over one's job, the desire to create and maintain a positive self-image regarding their work, and the need for human connections and interactions.

These three dimensions point to the changes proactively made from the employee to the tasks, to the relationships, and to the cognitive boundaries of their work. With the possibility of changing how they process their tasks, who they interact with, and how they think about their jobs, employees can be partially responsible for their job design and can thus affect their engagement, performance, and well-being.

Task crafting refers to the way a worker can alter the combined set of responsibilities, duties and objectives determined by a formal job description, by adding or dropping tasks outside that predetermined scope, by changing the overall nature of the tasks and by how much resources—either time, energy or attention—are spent on a specific task. For example, a worker restructuring their daily tasks to focus on tasks they enjoy more. By having the possibility of changing their tasks from the original set, workers can essentially create a different job and as a result, experience more meaningful work.

Relational crafting, the second dimension of job crafting, takes into consideration the relational aspects of a job. This dimension involves the modification of the relational boundaries of a specific job. In practice, this can mean changing the quantity and quality of interactions with others at work. Employees can change how much time and who they spend time with, and therefore, can transform their work into one that is more meaningful to them. For instance, relational crafting could be seen as a manager asking for feedback from their team to improve their leadership skills.

Finally, cognitive crafting describes the possible actions and changes made by employees to the cognitive boundaries of their work. Cognitive crafting occurs when workers view their work differently, by either looking at their work as a single piece of a larger unit, or as an integrated whole. By reframing their views on their work, employees can create a more purposeful and engaging work experience that aligns with their personal values and motivations.

#### 1.4.3. The Outcomes of Job Crafting

Within the Job Demands-Resources framework, it becomes important to distinguish between external resources provided by organizations and internal resources that employees possess (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This distinction is crucial because external resources may only translate into well-being benefits when employees have the capacity to effectively make use of them (Wang et al., 2021).

Self-regulation acts as an internal resource that allows employees to effectively engage in job crafting. The relationship between self-regulation and job crafting becomes clear across all three dimensions of job crafting behaviors. For task crafting, employees with higher self-regulation skills display increased ability to prioritize tasks while managing competing demands. In relational crafting, self-regulation allows employees to strategically build and maintain professional relationships that align with their goals, even when such efforts require sustained effort. For cognitive crafting, self-regulatory capacity allows employees to consciously reframe their work perspective and maintain this positive mindset despite challenging circumstances (Tims et al., 2013).

By essentially changing the tasks, the relationships and the cognitive boundaries of work, employees reframe the purpose and meaning of their jobs, and consequently, get more out of it. Changing some of the core job characteristics, workers can experience a psychological state of increased motivation and satisfaction with their jobs, which can in turn lead to efficient performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Proactive behaviors, stemming from one's volition, are positively linked to job performance, well-being (Parker et al., 2010) Similarly, job crafting has been found to be positively associated with job satisfaction, work engagement, and both self-assessed and other-rated performance (Rudolph et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, positive outcomes cannot be extrapolated to the overall population of job crafters. Factors like individual preferences, age, gender and other demographic factors affect the efficacy of job crafting. There were found to be positive relationships between personality factors like agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion and proactive personality to job crafting. Meaning that employees who are more aware, more open to experience are more likely to get increased positive results from job crafting than those who score lower on those scales (Rudolph et al., 2017; Tornau & Frese, 2012).

Organizational structure can limit the applicability and outcomes of job crafting. Companies may have a more rigid structure that limits employees to stricter job characteristics, which consequently limits the extent to which workers can craft their jobs. Dependencies in specific tasks and work that requires to be done collectively can also hinder job crafting possibilities (Berg et al., 2013) and if job crafting practices lie in conflict with organizational objectives and strategies, job crafting can harm rather than increase the effectiveness of an organization (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, job crafting is not inherently positive or negative but a tool that can be leveraged by both employer and employee to result in beneficial work outcomes.

The nature of job crafting becomes especially relevant when employees have the possibility of using FWAs. For example, an employee might choose to work from home on days when they need to work without distractions, or schedule team projects for office days when colleagues are present (Austin-Egole et al., 2020). This demonstrates how job crafting can amplify the benefits of FWAs, by allowing employees to align their work context with their task requirements and personal preferences, ultimately enhancing the meaningfulness of their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

While FWAs provide flexibility, their effectiveness may depend on self-regulatory capacities to engage in meaningful job crafting behaviors. This creates a dynamic where organizational resources, such as FWAs, only translate to well-being benefits when combined with individual resources, such as self-regulation, and proactive behaviors such as job crafting. This suggests that increased employee well-being in flexible work environments develops from the relationship between external organizational resources (FWAs) and internal individual resources (self-regulation), with job crafting serving as both a mechanism and moderator (Tims et al., 2013).

Job crafting is then the self-started and proactive actions through which employees reshape task, relational and cognitive boundaries of their work in order to create an overall more meaningful job experience. This is important, as job crafting can help leverage the flexibility that is allowed by FWAs to actively improve the possible positive outcomes of FWAs.

H3: Job crafting positively mediates the relationship between Self-regulation and (a) Employee Well-being and (b) Employee Well-being at work

H4: Job crafting positively moderates the relationship between Flexible Working Arrangements and (a) Employee Well-being and (b) Employee Well-being at work

### 1.5. Organizational Context

Domestic and international businesses, despite having the same common goal of generating profit, are not made up of the same characteristics. Domestic businesses are organizations that keep their activities regarding their field confined to a single country and international ventures are defined as companies whose activities cross national borders (McDougall 1989; McDougall et al., 2003)

According to Johanson and Vahlne's (1977) Uppsala model, firms internationalize in intentional stages, slowly accumulating knowledge, market insight, and gradually expanding commitments over borders. This implies that over time, companies who deliberately internationalize gain more resources and organizations that have successfully managed domestic consolidation are usually older and more resourceful. A similar view highlights that time increases performance as companies build up relationships and resources, which consequently lowers the risk of failure during international expansion (Contractor et al., 2007; McDougall & Oviatt, 1996).

Under the resource-based view, human resource practices that are valuable and hard to recreate can return sustained performance benefits (Barney, 1991). In this framework, FWAs work as a resource configuration that increases control at the employee level, thereby improving overall organizational flexibility (Baltes et al., 1999).

The resource-based view suggests that organizations have large inequalities in their capacity to implement and sustain resources (Barney, 1991). International companies may have a better financial standpoint and better infrastructure to support a good implementation of FWAs, but with overly rigid structures and hierarchies, larger scale operations, that implementation can result in poor outcomes. By contrast, domestic companies may not have such financial capabilities (that may limit the quality of the implementation) but can obtain positive results due to the lack of bureaucracy and stricter hierarchies. Research has overlooked these nuances when examining the effectiveness of FWAs and their implementations over company type.

When looking at international versus domestic companies, it is necessary to underscore that the status of internationalization is not a direct translation to size or complexity. It is not possible to imply that domestic companies are smaller than international ones. Without specifying the markets under consideration, any comparison between domestic and international companies may lack context. For instance, H-E-B, a supermarket chain, reported revenues of \$46.5 billion in 2024. The company operates exclusively within the U.S., making it by definition a domestic company. In contrast, Jerónimo Martins, a Portuguese multinational company in the retail industry, reported revenues of approximately \$36.5 billion USD in 2024. Despite its international presence in multiple countries and in the same industry, Jerónimo Martins can be considered smaller than H-E-B (Iszler, 2024).

Given that company size is not solely determined by its presence in international markets or domestic ones, the scope of comparison for the impact organizations have on well-being must consider other variables. Organizational context and characteristics can have an impact, if even indirectly, on EWB. Employees who feel higher organizational support are more likely to believe that their contributions and personal well-being are valued, which can consequently boost their job satisfaction and engagement (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Kurtessis et al., 2017). The relationship between an employee and their superior, if positive, can generally improve trust and communication, which contribute to a more positive work experience (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

However, it is crucial to point out that revenue as a single measurement does not capture all of the resources companies may have. While H-E-B may have higher total revenue than Jerónimo Martins, international firms may have global infrastructure, diverse cultural knowledge and experience from their international expansions. This suggests that company size may not be the only determining factor in successful FWAs deployments. Nevertheless, company size can affect organizational resources, like human resources practices, or organizational support, since resources are not only financial but also structural.

Even when faced with limited resources when compared to international companies, domestic companies may be better positioned to utilize FWAs as a way to improve employee well-being due to their organizational characteristics. Domestic organizations typically operate with less complex structures and less bureaucratic barriers, which in turn allows them to make faster decisions and faster deployments of FWAs (Baltes et al., 1999). Additionally, domestic companies operate within a single cultural, regulatory and financial context, which further removes the complexity of diverse legal frameworks, cultural differences, and time zone challenges that international companies face when implementing FWAs. This suggests that domestic companies can more effectively translate FWAs deployments into meaningful employee well-being benefits compared to their international companies.

H5: FWAs will positively predict Employee Well-being at work and this effect will be higher in domestic context.

### 1.6. Theoretical Integration

The Job Demands-Resources model provides the framework for understanding how both types of resources contribute to well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Specifically, self-regulation allows proactive job crafting behaviors that transform individual strengths into improved well-being (Grant & Ashford, 2008), while job crafting moderates the effectiveness of flexible arrangements by allowing employees to leverage organizational resources (Berg & Dutton, 2008). Work/Family Border Theory highlighted the challenges that often come with flexible work arrangements, and the resource-based view looked into organizational differences into FWAs applications.

Therefore, organization type, for the contexts of this study is defined by classifying companies into domestic or international companies. Of course, this assumes that international companies have a different structure than domestic companies, such as resources, structural complexity, hierarchies rather than market value.

However, while each theory contributes to understanding how each variable works, the combination of multiple frameworks that examine single variables can overlook how all variables interact. Hobfoll (1989, 2001) presented the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory which states that individuals try to obtain, retain, protect, and foster resources for obtaining desired outcomes. Resources in this model can include objects, conditions, personal characteristics, and energies, which is why it fits the lens of the variables at hand.

This framework allows us to understand how FWAs can impact employee well-being, because it looks at the actual and potential resource gains and losses that are seen within FWAs. These can function as resource gains by giving employees increased autonomy and time savings from less or no commuting, and greater control over work-life boundaries. However, FWAs might also present resource threats and losses due to the demands for self-management and potential blurred work-life boundaries. The framework also allows us to consider job-crafting as a mechanism through which employees can improve their resources.

COR theory, therefore, allows a greater and more refined analysis of how all these variables relate to each other in a systematic way. By looking at organizational context, personal differences, FWAs implementation, JC behaviors and how individuals self-regulate, from the COR lens, the desired analysis of numerous variables that can influence well-being can be achieved.

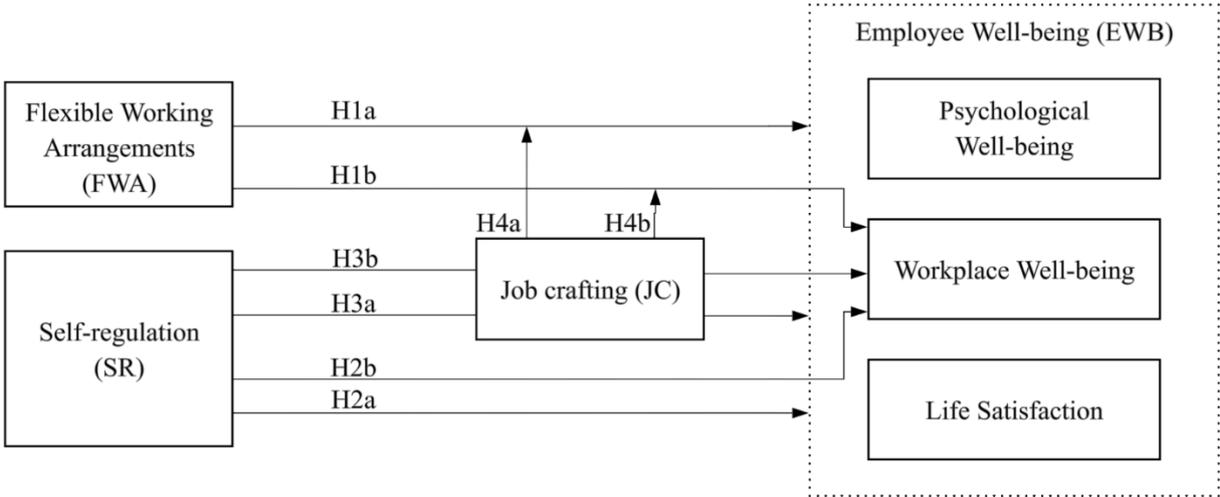


Figure 1 - Conceptual model



## 2. Methodology

### 2.1. Research Design

This paper followed a quantitative research design that allowed studying the relationship between the variables shown in the research model at the statistical level, ensuring an objective analysis on the findings. This objective analysis also proved useful in allowing a safe generalization of the findings within the defined population.

### 2.2. Participants and Data Collection

The data collected and used for the present research was gathered via an electronically distributed structured survey via the platform Qualtrics and was communicated via word-of-mouth and instant messaging through family, friends and colleagues.

The overall sample consisted of 91 participants, 36% of which were male, 53% were female and 11% chose not to disclose their gender. The target for this study consisted of individuals currently employed, further defined as those aged 18 years or older up until the age of retirement who were utilizing FWAs. These criteria ensured the possibility of including a diverse set of working individuals across sectors, and job roles. The population was not restricted by geographic location, nor was it restricted by the type of company at which respondents worked at, at the time of response.

Data cleaning was conducted using Excel to ensure data quality and usability for statistical analysis. The survey received 133 responses and incomplete survey responses were identified and removed from the dataset, providing the final 91 sample size. Additionally, text-based responses were converted to numerical values to allow for quantitative analysis. This cleaning process ensured that all finished responses contained complete information across all measures.

### 2.3. Measures

For the SR measure, the Self-Regulation Questionnaire by Brown, Miller, and Lawendowski (1999) was used as it assesses individuals' capacity to regulate their behaviors in alignment with their goals. This measure includes items such as regulation capacities, tracking progress, considering alternative approaches, and learning from mistakes. It captures dimensions that are relevant to those currently employed as well as in the scope of the research. Two example items from this measure include: "I usually keep track of my progress toward my goals" and "I usually think before I act.". Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was  $\alpha = .793$ .

The assessment of FWAs integrates items from Shockley and Allen (2007) and McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin (2009). They measure the availability and perceived freedom of work flexibility. These two measures were implemented to filter the respondents into segments, which could be used to reference specific types of FWAs. Sample items include: “I have the freedom to vary my work schedule” and “My company allows you to work four longer days per week instead of five regular days.”. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha of the measure was  $\alpha = .802$ .

The Job Crafting Scale, developed by Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012), examines proactive behaviors employees use to reshape their job roles. It encompasses dimensions such as task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting. This particular scale captures efforts to change one’s job dynamics. Example items include: “I try to develop my capabilities” and “I ask others for feedback on my job performance.”. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). This scale displayed a Cronbach’s alpha of  $\alpha = .766$ .

The measure of Well-Being combines the WHO-5 Well-Being Index (Topp et al., 2015) and the framework by Zheng et al. (2015), offering an evaluation from multiple dimensions. It looks at life satisfaction, workplace satisfaction, and psychological well-being, so as to achieve a more holistic view into the concept of well-being. For Life Well-Being, example items include “I feel satisfied with my life” and “I have a good relationship with my family.” In Workplace Well-Being, representative items are “I am satisfied with my work responsibilities” and “I feel very happy when I am encouraged by my leader.” For Psychological Well-Being, examples include “I feel I have grown as a person” and “People think I am willing to give and to share my time with others.”. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The data showed Cronbach’s alpha of this measure of  $\alpha = .903$ .

#### 2.4. Data Analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics. Descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, and multiple regression were used to examine variable relationships and test direct effects. Hayes' PROCESS macro was employed for mediation analyses (Model 4 for H3) and moderation analyses (Model 1 for H4).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis

Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics and the correlations among the studied variables, based on data collected from a sample of 91 employees.

FWAs showed not to be correlated with EWB ( $r=0.17$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), as this relationship was not statistically significant. However, FWAs showed a positive and significant correlation with EWBW ( $r=0.37$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), revealing that FWAs have a direct impact on EWBW.

SR was positively correlated with EWB ( $r=0.32$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), indicating that higher SR is associated with greater EWB. JC showed a positive and statistically significant correlation with EWB ( $r=0.38$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), suggesting that employees who engage more in JC tend to report higher EWB. FWAs and SR were not correlated ( $r=-0.14$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). FWAs had no significant correlation with JC ( $r=-0.0002$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). JC also showed a positive, significant relationship with SR ( $r=0.33$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) indicating that people who actively engage in JC are more likely to demonstrate higher levels of SR.

International/National Employee was not correlated with FWAs ( $r=0.05$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). The company type did not show a significant correlation with EWB ( $r=-0.10$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), nor SR ( $r=-0.026$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) or JC ( $r=0.13$ ,  $p>0.05$ ).

**Table 1 – Means, Standard Deviation and Correlation Table**

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Cronbach's $\alpha$			.79	.90	.83	.79	.76	-	-	-	-
1. Flexible Working Arrangements	3.28	1.12	1								
2. Employee Well-being	3.73	.59	.17	1							
3. Employee Well-being at work	3.63	.84	.37**	.80**	1						
4. Self-regulation	3.96	.34	-.14	.32**	.19	1					
5. Job Crafting	3.89	.53	-.00	.38**	.36**	.33**	1				
6. International / National Employee	.63	.48	.06	-.10	-.14	-.03	.14	1			
7. Gender	1.63	.53	-.07	.09	.24*	-.03	.18	-.03	1		
8. Age	42.88	13.3	.12	-.00	-.05	.19	-.27**	-.13	-.33**	1	
9. Tenure	3.19	1.19	.28**	.05	.11	.11	-.20	-.17	-.38**	.58**	1

N=91 \*p<.05 \*\*p<.01

### 3.2.Hypothesis Testing

The results of the analyses conducted to test the hypotheses are presented below, focusing on the relationships between FWAs, EWB, SR, JC, and across company type.

Hypothesis H1a, highlighting that FWAs positively predicting EWB was not supported, as shown in Table 2 (B=0.08, t=1.59, p=0.11), as the relationship between FWAs and EWB was not statistically significant.

**Table 2 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being**

Predictor	B	SE	t	p	LL	UL
Constant	3.44	.19	17.96	<.001	3.06	3.83
Flexible Working Arrangements	.08	.05	1.59	.11	-.21	.19

In Table 3, the results for H1b are presented, which hypothesized that FWAs positively predict EWBW, were supported (B=0.28, t=3.82, p<.001). The relationship between FWAs and EWBW was statistically significant, indicating that FWAs do positively predict EWBW.

**Table 3 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being at work**

Predictor	B	SE	t	p	LL	UL
Constant	2.71	.25	10.67	<.001	2.21	3.22
Flexible Working Arrangements	.28	.07	3.82	<.001	0.13	0.42

The results concerning hypothesis H2a, which proposed that SR will positively predict EWB, was supported (B=0.55, t=3.2, p=.02), as shown in Table 4. The relationship between SR and EWB was statistically significant.

**Table 4 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being**

Predictor	B	SE	t	p	LL	UL
Constant	1.52	.68	2.23	.02	.16	2.88
Self-regulation	.55	.17	3.2	.02	.21	.90

In Table 5, the H2b results are presented, which stated that SR will positively predict EWBW, was not supported (B=0.45, t=1.81, p=.07), suggesting that SR does not significantly predict EWBW.

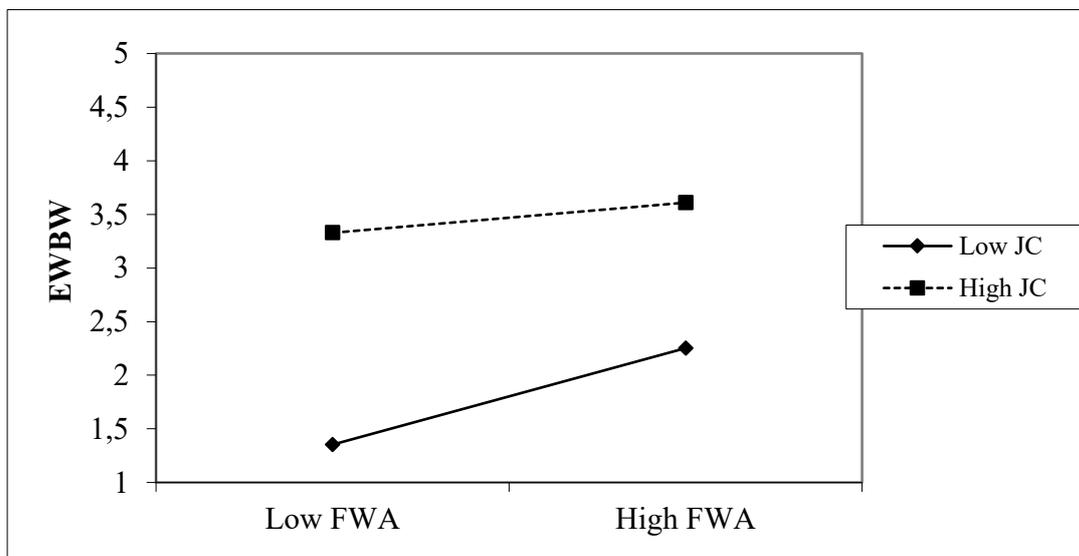
**Table 5 – Regression Analysis predicting Employee Well-being at work**

Predictor	B	SE	t	p	LL	UL
Constant	1.83	1.00	1.82	.07	-.15	3.81
Self-regulation	.45	.25	1.81	.07	-.04	.95

The results for hypothesis H3a, shown in table 6, which looked at whether JC positively mediates the relationship between SR and EWB, was supported. The mediation analysis revealed that SR significantly predicted JC ( $B=0.51, t=3.32, p=.001$ ). Additionally, when JC was included in the analysis, SR significantly predicted EWB ( $B=0.38, t=2.19, p=.03$ ), while JC also significantly predicted EWB ( $B=0.34, t=3.05, p=.003$ ).

In table 6, the results for the hypothesis H3b, which proposed that JC positively mediates the relationship between SR and EWBW, the results were also supported. The analysis showed that EWB significantly predicted JC ( $B=0.51, t=3.32, p=.001$ ). However, when JC was included, SR did not significantly predict EWBW ( $B=0.18, t=0.72, p=.47$ ), while JC significantly predicted EWBW ( $B=0.53, t=3.23, p=.002$ ).

The results for hypothesis H4a also shown in table 6, which predicted that JC positively moderates the relationship between FWAs and EWB, were not supported, as shown in table 6. Hypothesis H4b, also shown in table 6, proposed that JC positively moderates the relationship between FWAs and EWBW, was supported. The interaction  $FWA \times JC$  was statistically significant, indicating moderation ( $B=-0.25, t=-2.17, p=.03$ ). Furthermore, when JC is high, an increase in FWA (from high to low) does not show a great effect on EWBW, however, when JC is low, FWAs have a positive effects on EWBW, as seen in Figure 2.



*Figure 2 - Interaction Effects Between JC, FWAs and EWBW*

**Table 6 - Mediation and Moderation Analysis**

	JC	EWB		EWBW	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Constant	1.87** (0.61)	0.88 (0.69)	-0.18 (1.20)	0.84 (1.00)	-2.68 (1.57)
SR	0.51** (0.15)	0.38* (0.17)	-	0.18 (0.25)	-
JC	-	0.35** (0.11)	0.93** (0.30)	0.53** (0.17)	1.38** (0.40)
FWA	-	-	0.71* (0.36)	-	1.28** (0.47)
FWA x JC	-	-	-0.16 (0.09)	-	-0.26* (0.12)
R <sup>2</sup>	0.11	0.19	0.20	0.14	0.31

Indirect Effects	Point estimate (95% CI)
SR → JC → EWB	0.17 (0.02, 0.37)
SR → JC → EWBW	0.27 (0.03, 0.53)

Note: Standard errors are shown in the parenthesis.

N = 91. \*p < .05. \*\*p < .01.

Hypothesis H5, which proposed that FWAs positively predict EWBW and that that effect would be stronger in a domestic context, was not supported, as shown in table 7. The interaction FWA×INT was not statistically significant (B=-0.15, t=-1.04, p=.29).

**Table 7 - Moderation Table of Organizational Context**

	EWBW
Constant	2.59** (0.37)
FWA	0.37** (0.11)
INT	0.21 (0.50)
FWA x INT	-0.15 (0.15)
R <sup>2</sup>	0.18

Note: Standard errors are shown in the parenthesis.

N = 91. \*p < .05. \*\*p < .01.

In summary, the analyses revealed mixed support for the hypotheses. While some direct relationships and mediation effects were supported, the predicted positive moderation effects of JC were not found. The results suggest that FWAs may be most beneficial when JC levels are lower, indicating these factors may have a more complex relationship that universal complementary.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Key Findings

This study focused on examining the relationship between FWAs, SR, JC and EWB through the lens of the COR theory. The findings come to show mixed results when it comes to the direct effects of FWAs on EWB.

While FWAs did not directly and significantly predict general EWB, FWAs showed a strong and significant positive relationship with EWBW. This finding suggests that FWAs have a definitive immediate connection to a higher well-being in the work context, though it does not extend to one's psychological and overall life satisfaction alone.

SR also proved to be a significant predictor of overall EWB, though it did not significantly predict EWBW. This may suggest that self-regulatory capabilities are more relevant in other areas of one's life, rather than for work-related experiences.

JC was highlighted in the theoretical framework as both a mediator and a moderator. The mediation analyses that were executed revealed that the variable successfully mediated the relationship between SR and EWB, demonstrating partial mediation as both direct and indirect effects remained significant. For the relationship between SR and EWBW, JC showed indirect-only mediation, where the direct effect became non-significant while the indirect effect remained significant. JC also proved a significant moderator in the FWA and EWBW link, though in a different direction than expected. However, JC did not moderate the relationship between FWAs and EWB.

Organizational context revealed not to moderate the FWA and EWBW link. The interaction between FWAs and organizational context was not statistically significant, showing that organizational context did not moderate the relationship between FWAs and EWBW.

These findings all suggest that the relationship between FWAs and EWB is complex and highly nuanced. The effectiveness of FWAs will likely depend on more than one factor which can include the specific dimension of well-being measured, individual self-regulation capabilities and proactive job-crafting behaviors. This highlights the plethora of variables that help create the positive or negative net effect of the implementation of FWAs.

### 4.2. Interpretation of Results

The findings display a complex interaction between FWAs and EWB, demonstrating that FWAs as organizational resources do not automatically provide well-being benefits, but require more specific conditions to be effective.

The differences in the impact of FWAs on EWB and EWBW provides a closer look into the nature of these arrangements. The significant positive relationship between FWAs and EWBW but not EWB suggests that FWAs mainly influence work-related experiences and not broader overall well-being.

The boundary between work and life well-being looks more defined than initially thought, suggesting that EWB strategies from the workplace may have limited results. This also suggests that for organizations who are looking at improving EWB, it may be beneficial to look at more approaches than FWAs alone.

This finding aligns with Warr's (1999) distinction between job-specific and context-free well-being, underscoring that FWAs may function as workplace resources that improve work-related experiences that do not automatically extend to EWB. This suggests that FWAs should not be utilized solely as workplace tools that provide automatic well-being solutions.

SR was shown to be a significant predictor of EWB but not EWBW. This suggests that, while organizational resources, e.g., FWAs, improve workplace experiences, SR contributes more to the EWB. These contradictory patterns across well-being dimensions directly support Page & Vella-Brodrick's (2009) theoretical distinction between workplace well-being and general well-being that was discussed previously. This also connects to Austin-Egole et al.'s (2020) observation that FWAs particularly benefit employees with higher SR.

The influence of SR on EWB makes sense given that it directly interacts with more than work-related experiences as it may translate to situations not related to work. On the other hand, FWAs mainly focus on work-related situations and may not provide sufficient benefits that extend outside the workplace. This suggests that while organizations can support EWBW, wider life satisfaction may depend more on individual actions and also suggests that employees with strong SR abilities may be less dependent on the organizational support for their overall well-being, though they may still benefit from an increase in EWBW.

JC positively mediated the relationship between SR and both dimensions of EWB and EWBW, demonstrating that self-regulatory abilities influence the well-being outputs, via the proactive job crafting behaviors. This finding builds on Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) work by showing that JC serves as a mechanism through which individual resources create positive outcomes. Essentially, employees with better SR are more likely to engage in JC behaviors, which in turn enhance EWB. The findings also validate Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) original framework by confirming that job crafting can help translate individual capabilities into workplace outcomes.

The unexpected negative moderation effect of job crafting on the FWAs and EWBW relationship underscores the complexity in how organizational and individual resources interact with each other. Instead of amplifying each other's effects, the results suggest that JC and FWAs may act as competing resources rather than complementary ones. Possibly, when employees have high JC abilities, they may rely less on the flexibility provided by FWAs to increase EWBW while employees with lower JC abilities may benefit more from FWAs. Employees who are more engaged in job crafting may create meaningful work experiences regardless of organizational flexibility, while employees who engage less in job crafting may depend more on FWAs to achieve the same level of meaningful work experiences.

This resource substitution effect may explain the inconsistent findings in FWA literature, where the effectiveness of FWAs depends on individual abilities rather than the implementation alone. The findings also challenge assumptions about resource relationships in organizational settings. While COR theory suggests that resources should complement and strengthen each other, the negative moderation effect of job crafting on the relationship between FWAs and employee well-being at work may suggest that the way the resources interact may be more complex than what is provided by the COR theory. Rather than individual resources amplifying each other, the results suggest that some resources may function as substitutes.

#### 4.3. Managerial Implications

This has implications for organizational resource allocation, suggesting that universal policies may be less effective than targeted implementations that closely observe organizational resources to individual employee's abilities. Companies may get increased benefits from closely assessing whether individuals would benefit more from increased flexibility or from opportunities to improve job crafting abilities, rather than deploying standard FWAs.

While the results did not find that organizational context significantly moderated the relationship between FWAs and EWBW, it does not mean that organizational characteristics or complexity are irrelevant to FWAs implementations or outcomes in EWBW. Organizations should be wary of potential barriers in FWA implementation as challenges may be different across contexts.

International organizations face a higher number of barriers when compared to domestic companies such as coordinating different time zones, cultural differences, and multiple financial and legal environments, which may create barriers to FWA deployment. Domestic companies may potentially see easier implementation processes as opposed to international organizations which face additional challenges in coordinating across different time zones,

cultural differences, and financial and legal regulatory environments, which may weaken the smooth implementation and effectiveness of FWAs. Nevertheless, the separation of organizational context based solely on internationalization can prove to be misleading, as domestic companies in one country can be more complex than international companies, as shown previously.

This suggests that successful FWA deployments can be directly transferred across different organizational structures and contexts, barring implementation challenges that may be context specific.

The findings collectively suggest that the relationship between FWAs and EWB works in multiple ways and is influenced by individual capabilities but not organizational context. The effectiveness of FWAs depends not only on their availability but on how well they align with individuals. This complexity highlights the need for more tailored approaches to workplace flexibility that consider individual differences and the dynamic relationship between multiple resources.

#### 4.4.Limitations

The sample size of 91 participants may limit the generalizability of findings across different industries, organizational levels, and cultural contexts. Several limitations should be regarded when interpreting these findings.

The cross-sectional design prevents establishing the timing and causal direction of relationships suggested by theory in relation to the variables at hand. The well-being measures may not capture all relevant dimensions of employee experience and lack of longitudinal data deteriorates it as well-being measures are bound to change over time. The cross-sectional design of this research does not allow the recording nor the analysis of changes. Job crafting actions, self-regulation abilities, and well-being scores can change over time, but these changes cannot be observed in this study. Another limitation in the design of the study was the lack of attention checks included in the survey, as it can lead to inconsistent data from specific answers.

It is important to acknowledge that the sample was restricted to employees already utilizing FWAs, which may have introduced selection bias into the findings. By focusing only on individuals with current access to flexible working arrangements, the results may not capture the experience of those without flexibility options.

Additionally, the study may be subject to common method bias, as all variables were measured using self-report questionnaires collected from the same participants at a single point in time. The research also did not examine nor consider potential negative outcomes of FWAs, as shown in literature such as increased work intensity or blurred work-life boundaries, which could negatively influence the overall well-being outputs of these arrangements.

#### 4.5. Suggestions for Future Research

Future studies should test these relationships over time to see if JC skills develop with FWA use or stay the same. Experiments could compare giving employees JC training versus FWAs to test whether they really substitute for each other.

Research should also test whether this pattern is observable in more conditions, such as different countries, cultures and industries. Other individual differences like personality, career tenure and age might also influence which resource employees prefer to utilize.

The findings that SR predicts EWB but not EWBW, while FWAs show the opposite pattern, suggest a need for more investigation. Future studies should look at how and why individual and organizational resources work for different types of well-being.



## Conclusion

This study examined how FWAs, SR, and JC influence EWB through the lens of the COR theory. The relationships between these variables proved to be more nuanced than expected.

SR and FWAs affect different types of well-being. SR predicts how satisfied people are with life in a more overall sense, but it does not predict how they feel about work specifically. FWAs have the opposite tendency as they predict improvements in EWBW but do not predict a EWB. This suggests that work well-being and life well-being are more separate than assumed.

One of the main findings is that JC and FWAs work as competing rather than complementary resources. Employees who may be better at job crafting may not need as much flexibility from their organization to see improvements in EWB. On the other hand, employees who are not engaged in JC behaviors could benefit more from having FWAs.

This effect helps explain why previous studies found such mixed results with flexible working. It does not only depend on the quality of the implementation of FWAs from companies, but it also depends on what employees can also bring to the table.

This distinction is important for organizations, as organizations wish to improve EWBW, FWAs can be effectively used to do so. However, if the main goal is to improve overall well-being, other approaches may be needed rather than standalone FWAs.

These findings show implications for how organizations manage their resources. Instead of providing universal practices across their workforce, organizations might benefit from more tailored deployments. Some employees would benefit more from flexibility, while others would get more from providing employees with opportunities to develop job crafting skills.

The study had several limitations that affect how broadly these findings apply. The sample was relatively small with only 91 people, and each of these individuals was already using FWAs at the time of completing the survey. The cross-sectional design also means causal relationships cannot be created, as there is no way to understand how the relationships behave over time.

Future research should test these relationships over time and with different types of employees, including those without access to FWAs. Despite the limitations, the study contributes to understanding how workplace resources function.

The findings suggest that universal and standard approaches to employee well-being may be less effective than localized and context-specific strategies that match resources to individual capabilities.

## Bibliographic References

- Allen, T. D., Golden, T. D., & Shockley, K. M. (2015). How effective is telecommuting? Assessing the status of our scientific findings. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 16(2), 40–68. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100615593273>
- Allen, T. D., Johnson, R. C., Kiburz, K. M., & Shockley, K. M. (2013). Work-Family Conflict and Flexible Work Arrangements: Deconstructing Flexibility. *Personnel Psychology*, 66(2), 345–376. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12012>
- Austin-Egole, I. S., Iheriohanma, E. B., & Nwokorie, C. (2020). Flexible working arrangements and organizational performance: An overview. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 25(5), 50-59.
- Bacarra, R., & Decenorio, N. (2022). The Hybrid Work Model: Benefits, Challenges & Strategies for Companies. *Res Militaris*, 12(12), 6. <https://resmilitaris.net/uploads/paper/838b46fc54cff2cbde4711f66df174b5.pdf>
- Bailey, D. E., & Kurland, N. B. (2002). A Review of Telework Research: Findings, New Directions, and Lessons for the Study of Modern Work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(4), 383–400. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4093813>
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job Resources Buffer the Impact of Job Demands on Burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(2), 170–180.
- Bakker, A., & Demerouti, E. (2007). Journal of Managerial Psychology The Job Demands-Resources model: state of the art Article information. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309–328. <https://peopleful.io/Job-Demands-Resource-Model-research.pdf>
- Baltes, B. B., Briggs, T. E., Huff, J. W., Wright, J. A., & Neuman, G. A. (1999). Flexible and compressed workweek schedules: A meta-analysis of their effects on work-related criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(4), 496–513.
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99–120. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700108>
- Barrero, J. M., Bloom, N., & Davis, S. J. (2023). The Evolution of Work from Home. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 37(4), 23–49. <https://doi.org/10.1257/jep.37.4.23>
- Baumeister, R. F., & Tierney, J. (2011). *Willpower: Rediscovering the greatest human strength*. Penguin Press.
- Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., & Tice, D. M. (2007). The Strength Model of Self-Control. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 16(6), 351–355. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00534.x>

- Beers, T. M. (2000). Flexible schedules and shift work: Replacing the 9-to-5 workday? *Monthly Labor Review*, 123(6), 33–40.
- Berg, J. M., Dutton, J. E., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2013). Job crafting and meaningful work. In *Purpose and meaning in the workplace*. (pp. 81–104). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14183-005>
- Brewster, C., Mayne, L., & Tregaskis, O. (1997). Flexible working in Europe. *Journal of World Business*, 32(2), 133–151. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1090-9516\(97\)90004-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1090-9516(97)90004-3)
- Brown, J. M., Miller, W. R., & Lawendowski, L. A. (1999). The self-regulation questionnaire. In L. VandeCreek & T. L. Jackson (Eds.), *Innovations in clinical practice: A source book*, Vol. 17, pp. 281–292). Professional Resource Press/Professional Resource Exchange.
- Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human relations*, 53(6), 747-770.
- Contractor, F. J., Kumar, V., & Kundu, S. K. (2007). Nature of the relationship between international expansion and performance: The case of emerging market firms. *Journal of World Business*, 42(4), 401–417. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2007.06.003>
- Crant, J. M. (1995). The proactive personality scale and objective job performance among real estate agents. *Journal of applied psychology*, 80(4), 532.
- Danna, K., & Griffin, R. W. (1999). Health and Well-Being in the Workplace: A Review and Synthesis of the Literature. *Journal of Management*, 25(3), 357–384.
- de Menezes, L. M., & Kelliher, C. (2017). Flexible Working, Individual Performance, and Employee Attitudes: Comparing Formal and Informal Arrangements. *Human Resource Management*, 56(6), 1051–1070. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21822>
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *The Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 499–512.
- Diener, E. (1984). *Subjective well-being*. Psycnet.apa.org. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1984-23116-001>
- Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2012). A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of Leader-Member Exchange. *Journal of Management*, 38(6), 1715–1759.
- Gajendran, R. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2007). The good, the bad, and the Unknown about telecommuting: Meta-analysis of Psychological Mediators and Individual consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1524–1541. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1524>

- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28, 3–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2008.04.002>
- Gross, J. J. (2002). Emotion regulation: Affective, cognitive, and Social Consequences. *Psychophysiology*, 39(3), 281–291. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0048577201393198>
- Guest, D. E. (2017). Human Resource Management and Employee Well-being: Towards a New Analytic Framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 22–38. Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12139>
- Hackman, J. R. (1980). Work redesign and motivation. *Professional Psychology*, 11(3), 445–455. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.11.3.445>
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the Design of work: Test of a Theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(2), 250–279. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(76\)90016-7](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90016-7)
- HILL, E. J., MILLER, B. C., WEINER, S. P., & COLIHAN, J. O. E. (1998). INFLUENCES OF THE VIRTUAL OFFICE ON ASPECTS OF WORK AND WORK/LIFE BALANCE. *Personnel Psychology*, 51(3), 667–683. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1998.tb00256.x>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *APA PsycNet*. Psycnet.apa.org. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1989-29399-001>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The Influence of Culture, Community, and the Nested-Self in the Stress Process: Advancing Conservation of Resources Theory. *Applied Psychology*, 50(3), 337–421. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and Psychological Resources and Adaptation. *Review of General Psychology*, 6(4), 307–324. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.6.4.307>
- Hopkins, J., & Bardoel, A. (2023). The Future Is Hybrid: How Organisations Are Designing and Supporting Sustainable Hybrid Work Models in Post-Pandemic Australia. *Sustainability*, 15(4), 3086. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.3390/su15043086>
- Iszler, M. (2024, October 15). *San Antonio's H-E-B gets tax breaks to open San Marcos store*. San Antonio Express-News. <https://www.expressnews.com/business/article/heb-san-marcos-new-store-19838854.php>
- Johanson, J., & Vahlne, J.-E. (1977). The Internationalization Process of the Firm—A Model of Knowledge Development and Increasing Foreign Market Commitments. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 8(1), 23–32. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490676>

- Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor Model of Personality and Job satisfaction: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 530–541. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.530>
- Kahneman, D., Diener, E., & Schwarz, N. (1999). *Well-being : The foundations of hedonic psychology*. Russell Sage Foundation.
- Heggestad, E. D., & Kanfer, R. (2000). Individual differences in trait motivation: development of the Motivational Trait Questionnaire. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 33(7-8), 751–776. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0883-0355\(00\)00049-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0883-0355(00)00049-5)
- Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2017). Perceived organizational support: A meta-analytic evaluation of organizational support theory. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1854–1884. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315575554>
- Lord, R. G., Diefendorff, J. M., Schmidt, A. M., & Hall, R. J. (2010). Self-Regulation at Work. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 61(1), 543–568. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.093008.100314>
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2016). Understanding the Burnout experience: Recent Research and Its Implications for Psychiatry. *World Psychiatry*, 15(2), 103–111. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20311>
- McDougall, P. P. (1989). International versus domestic entrepreneurship: New venture strategic behavior and industry structure. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 4(6), 387–400. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026\(89\)90009-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(89)90009-8)
- McDougall, P. P. (2003). A comparison of international and domestic new ventures. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 59–82. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1023246622972>
- McDougall, P. P., & Oviatt, B. M. (1996). New venture internationalization, strategic change, and performance: A follow-up study. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 11(1), 23–40. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026\(95\)00081-x](https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(95)00081-x)
- McNall, L. A., Masuda, A. D., & Nicklin, J. M. (2010). Flexible Work Arrangements, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intentions: The Mediating Role of Work-to-Family Enrichment. *The Journal of Psychology*, 144(1), 61–81. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980903356073>
- Muraven, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Self-regulation and depletion of limited resources: Does self-control resemble a muscle?. *Psychological bulletin*, 126(2), 247.
- Nilles, J. M., Carlson, F. R., Gray, P., & Hanneman, G. (1976). Telecommuting - An Alternative to Urban Transportation Congestion. *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics*, SMC-6(2), 77–84. <https://doi.org/10.1109/tsmc.1976.5409177>

- Olson, M. H., & Primps, S. B. (1984). Working at Home with Computers: Work and Nonwork Issues. *Journal of Social Issues*, 40(3), 97–112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1984.tb00194.x>
- Page, K. M., & Vella-Brodrick, D. A. (2009). The “What”, “Why” and “How” of Employee Well-Being: A New Model. *Social Indicators Research*, 90(3), 441–458. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/27734803>
- Parker, S. K. (2014). Beyond Motivation: Job and Work Design for Development, Health, Ambidexterity, and More. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 65(1), 661–691. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115208>
- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making Things Happen: A Model of Proactive Motivation. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 827–856. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310363732>
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4), 698.
- Rudolph, C. W., Katz, I. M., Lavigne, K. N., & Zacher, H. (2017). Job crafting: A meta-analysis of relationships with individual differences, job characteristics, and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 102(1), 112–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.05.008>
- Russell, H., O’Connell, P. J., & McGinnity, F. (2009). The Impact of Flexible Working Arrangements on Work-life Conflict and Work Pressure in Ireland. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 16(1), 73–97. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0432.2008.00431.x>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist*, 55(1), 68.
- Ryff, C. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. [Psycnet.apa.org](https://psycnet.apa.org). <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1990-12288-001>
- Seligman, M. (2011). Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being. [Psycnet.apa.org](https://psycnet.apa.org). <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2010-25554-000>
- Shockley, K. M., & Allen, T. D. (2007). When flexibility helps: Another look at the availability of flexible work arrangements and work–family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71(3), 479–493.
- Stephoe, A., Deaton, A., & Stone, A. A. (2015). Subjective wellbeing, health, and ageing. *The Lancet*, 385(9968), 640–648. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736\(13\)61489-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(13)61489-0)

- Sullivan, C., & Lewis, S. (2001). Home-based Telework, Gender, and the Synchronization of Work and Family: Perspectives of Teleworkers and Their Co-residents. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 8(2), 123–145.
- Taylor, F. W. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. Harper and Brothers.
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012). Development and validation of the job crafting scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(1), 173–186. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.05.009>
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2013). The impact of job crafting on job demands, job resources, and well-being. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 18(2), 230.
- Topp, C. W., Østergaard, S. D., Søndergaard, S., & Bech, P. (2015). The WHO-5 Well-Being Index: a Systematic Review of the Literature. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 84(3), 167–176. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000376585>
- Tornau, K., & Frese, M. (2012). Construct Clean-Up in Proactivity Research: A Meta-Analysis on the Nomological Net of Work-Related Proactivity Concepts and their Incremental Validities. *Applied Psychology*, 62(1), 44–96. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2012.00514.x>
- Wang, B., Liu, Y., Qian, J., & Parker, S. K. (2021). Achieving Effective Remote Working during the COVID-19 pandemic: a Work Design Perspective. *Applied Psychology*, 70(1), 16–59. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12290>
- Warr, P. (1999). Well-being and the workplace. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 392–412). Russell Sage Foundation.
- Waterman, A. S. (1993). Two Conceptions of happiness: Contrasts of Personal Expressiveness (eudaimonia) and Hedonic enjoyment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64(4), 678–691. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.4.678>
- Wheatley, D. (2017). Employee satisfaction and use of flexible working arrangements. *Work, Employment and Society*, 31(4), 567–585. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017016631447>
- Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a Job: Revisioning Employees as Active Crafters of Their Work. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), 179–201. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4378011>
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2007). The role of personal resources in the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(2), 121–141. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.14.2.121>

- Zheng, X., Zhu, W., Zhao, H., & Zhang, C. (2015). Employee well-being in organizations: Theoretical model, Scale development, and cross-cultural Validation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(5), 621–644. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1990>
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining Self-Regulation: A Social Cognitive Perspective. *Handbook of Self-Regulation*, 13–39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-012109890-2/50031-7>

## Annexes

### Annex A: Survey on Flexible Working Arrangements and Employee Well-Being

#### Introduction

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of flexible working arrangements on employees in international companies. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time, during or after completing the survey. However, your contribution is essential to the success of this study, and your help is highly appreciated.

Your responses will be completely anonymous, as the data are intended solely for statistical analysis; no individual answer will be analyzed or reported.

The survey consists of two parts:

1. Questions about your work experience.
2. Basic demographic questions.

The survey should take approximately 17 minutes to complete. Please read the instructions for each question carefully and answer honestly. To respond accurately, prior working experience is required. There are no significant risks associated with participation. For any questions about this study, please contact:

Afonso Rodrigues, ISCTE-IUL

Email: [amrss3@iscte-iul.pt](mailto:amrss3@iscte-iul.pt)

Do you agree to participate?

Yes

No

#### Filter Questions

1. Are you currently employed in a multinational or international company?

Yes

No

2. Do you currently follow any type of flexible working arrangement? (For example, having the ability to choose when—clock in/out, compressed workweeks—and/or where—remote work, hybrid models—to work.)

Yes

No

### Self-Regulation

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about yourself? (Scale: Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree)

- I usually keep track of my progress toward my goals.
- I'm usually careful not to overdo it when working, eating, drinking.
- I usually judge what I'm doing by the consequences of my actions.
- I learn from my mistakes.
- I think a lot about what other people think of me.
- I tend to compare myself with other people.
- I have personal standards and try to live up to them.
- I think a lot about how I am doing.
- I am willing to consider other ways of doing things.
- As soon as I see things aren't going right, I want to do something about it.
- Usually, I see the need to change before others do.
- It bothers me when things aren't the way I want them.
- I am able to accomplish goals I set for myself.
- If I wanted to change, I am confident that I could do it.
- As soon as I see a problem or challenge, I start looking for possible solutions.
- I call in others for help when I need it.
- Once I have a goal, I can usually plan how to reach it.
- I usually think before I act.
- Before making a decision, I consider what is likely to happen if I do one thing or another.
- I can stick to a plan that's working well.
- I have a lot of willpower.

- I am able to resist temptation.
- I have rules that I stick by no matter what.
- I reward myself for progress toward my goals.
- I change the way I do things when I see a problem with how things are going.
- I usually only have to make a mistake one time in order to learn from it.
- I set goals for myself and keep track of my progress.

### Flexible Working Arrangements

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your work?  
(Scale: Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree)

- I have the freedom to vary my work schedule.
- I have the freedom to work wherever is best for me—either at home or at work.
- My company offers flexibility in when I start/end my workday.
- My company allows me to work four longer days per week instead of five regular days.

### Job-Crafting

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?  
(Scale: Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree)

- I try to develop my capabilities.
- I try to develop myself professionally.
- I try to learn new things at work.
- I make sure that I use my capacities to the fullest.
- I decide on my own how I do things.
- I make sure that my work is mentally less intense.
- I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense.
- I manage my work to minimize contact with people whose problems affect me emotionally.

- I organize my work to minimize contact with people whose expectations are unrealistic.
- I try to ensure that I do not have to make many difficult decisions at work.
- I organize my work to avoid concentrating for too long at once.
- I ask my supervisor to coach me.
- I ask whether my supervisor is satisfied with my work.
- I look to my supervisor for inspiration.
- I ask others for feedback on my job performance.
- I ask colleagues for advice.
- When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as a project co-worker.
- If there are new developments, I am one of the first to learn about them and try them out.
- When there is not much to do at work, I see it as a chance to start new projects.
- I regularly take on extra tasks even though I do not receive extra salary for them.
- I try to make my work more challenging by examining the underlying relationships between aspects of my job.

## Employee Well-Being

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?  
 (Scale: Strongly disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Somewhat agree | Strongly agree)

- I have felt cheerful and in good spirits.
- I have felt calm and relaxed.
- I have felt active and vigorous.
- I woke up feeling fresh and rested.
- My daily life is filled with things that interest me.
- I feel satisfied with my life.
- I am close to my dream in most aspects of my life.
- Most of the time, I feel real happiness.
- I am in a good life situation.
- I am satisfied with my work responsibilities.

- In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.
- I find real enjoyment in my work.
- I can always find ways to enrich my work.
- I feel I have grown as a person.
- I handle daily affairs well.
- I generally feel good about myself and am confident.
- People think I am willing to give and to share my time with others.

## Demographics

### Gender:

- Male
- Female
- Prefer not to say

### Age: (Open question)

### Current Level of Position:

- Entry-level
- Associate/Junior
- Mid-level
- Senior/Manager
- Director/Executive
- C-suite (CEO, CFO, etc.)