FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

ELECTRONIC MONITORING AND THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED PURPOSE ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, AND ENGAGEMENT AND THEIR ULTIMATE IMPACT ON TURNOVER INTENTION AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS FOR REMOTE WORKERS IN THE U.S.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of

the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

by

Michael Anthony Guglielmo

2024

To: Dean William G. Hardin
College of Business

This dissertation, written by Michael Anthony Guglielmo and entitled Electronic Monitoring and the Role of Perceived Purpose on Employee Motivation, Satisfaction, and Engagement and Their Ultimate Impact on Turnover Intention and Counterproductive Work Behaviors for Remote Workers in the U.S., has been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

Attila Hertelendy

Chaitali Kapadia

Jayati Sinha

Miguel Aguirre-Urreta, Major Professor

Date of Defense: June 4, 2024

The dissertation of Michael Anthony Guglielmo is approved.

Dean William G. Hardin
College of Business

Andrés G. Gil
Senior Vice President for Research and Economic Development
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2024

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to all of those who inspired me to persevere and continue the pursuit of my goals. “Though we cannot control the wind, we can adjust our sails to reach our destination.”

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to express my deepest gratitude to the faculty and staff of the Doctor of Business Administration team at Florida International University. Your unparalleled dedication has made this possible, and I am sincerely grateful. To my Dissertation Chair and advisor, Dr. Miguel Aguirre-Urreta, I thank you for your persistent patience and guidance. Thank you to my dissertation committee, Dr. Attila Hertelendy, Dr. Chaitali Kapadia, and Dr. Jayati Sinha, for your feedback and input. I would also like to thank the members of my cohort who challenged, inspired, and motivated me to be the best I could be. Lastly, I offer my heartfelt appreciation to all my family and friends, without whom I would not have been able to start or complete this journey.

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

ELECTRONIC MONITORING AND THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED PURPOSE ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, AND ENGAGEMENT AND THEIR ULTIMATE IMPACT ON TURNOVER INTENTION AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS FOR REMOTE WORKERS IN THE U.S.

by

Michael Anthony Guglielmo

Florida International University, 2024

Miami, Florida

Professor Miguel Aguirre-Urreta, Major Professor

The increased development and proliferation of technology and simultaneous cost decreases have created a situation where employers have instantaneous and continuous access to employee data, often without their knowledge or consent. One segment of the work population affected by this trend has gained particular interest in recent years: remote workers. While organizations believe that this passive data can be applied to initiatives to improve worker performance and outcomes, these efforts can be undermined by employees' perceptions of leadership's intentions. The harmful influence electronic monitoring has on employee attitudes will impact intentions and behaviors, leading to adverse organizational outcomes, including increased turnover intentions and counterproductive work behaviors. This study aimed to understand the effects of electronic monitoring on employee attitudes and their ultimate impact on behaviors. Additionally, it aimed to understand the role of the perceived purpose of electronic monitoring in these relationships.

This study employed a quantitative data analysis approach with a sample of full-time remote participants from various US industries. Data were collected through a Qualtrics survey, and results were analyzed using both SPSS and SmartPLS. Results demonstrated negative relationships between electronic monitoring and motivation, job satisfaction, and engagement. When employees perceived electronic monitoring's purpose or intent was in their developmental or supportive interests, those relationships were positive. Engagement was negatively and significantly related to turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors.

The practical implications of these findings are meaningful, as the trend toward remote work and electronic monitoring is only continuing to grow. As such, more organizations will be utilizing surveillance on their employees. If organizations are to maximize the potential of their workforce, their understanding of the effects of electronic monitoring, and more importantly, the perceived purpose of those actions, is essential for creating value.

Keywords:

Electronic Monitoring, Perceived Purpose, Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Employee Engagement, Turnover Intention, Counterproductive Work Behaviors, Remote Work, Surveillance, Self-Determination Theory, Autonomy, Competence, Relatedness

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE PAGE

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE PAGE

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

"The major effect of the Panopticon is to induce a state of conscious and permanent visibility that assures the automatic functioning of power…visibility is a trap" (Foucault, 1975). In his seminal work, *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison*, philosopher Michel Foucault wrote extensively about the effects of monitoring individuals and how surveillance, in and of itself, may act as an invisible form of control. Furthermore, when knowledge is collected on the surveillant, this creates a power relationship with dominance given to the observer, not through overt use of force, but rather through the ever-present possibility of observation (Foucault, 1980). While nearly half a century has passed since Foucault's writings on the impacts of monitoring, his ideology is as relevant today as it was then, perhaps even more so.

Electronic monitoring has existed in the workplace and has been vigorously debated since the 1980s (Siegel et al., 2022). It refers to using different technologies to observe, record, and analyze information directly or indirectly related to employees (Stanton, 2000). The impacts of management's observations and interventions on the behaviors and outcomes of subordinates are not new. Nearly a century ago, in 1924, experiments exploring the relationships between factory working conditions and productivity were conducted at the Western Electric Company in Chicago, Illinois. Commonly known as the Hawthorne Effect, these studies determined that increased output in employee work was not the result of changes in lighting levels or other factory conditions but the development of the awareness that they were being directly observed (Mayo, 1933).

Compared to a hundred or even fifty years ago, what is different today is how we can now observe employees' behaviors. The increased development and proliferation of technology and simultaneous cost decreases have created a situation where employers have instantaneous and continuous access to employee data, often without their knowledge or consent (Ravid et al., 2019). The rapid advancements in technology and computing have exponentially changed employers' tools, allowing for much more intrusive surveillance. Historically, electronic monitoring has been done through audio and visual recording, keystroke tracking, phone, email, website monitoring, and key-card access monitoring. However, sophisticated new technologies include wearable devices, neurotechnology, biometric sensing tools, XR headsets, and precision location and movement tracking. Smart hats that measure brainwaves, smart glasses that monitor blinking patterns, and cameras to observe head and neck motion are all used to observe and measure fatigue. Furthermore, cameras that follow eyelid movements detect drowsiness and automatically turn on the air-conditioning. Additionally, no longer are employers simply observing behaviors and physiological responses such as fatigue; with the introduction of artificial intelligence, management can now use facial recognition algorithms and email analysis to interpret and gauge employee attitudes and feelings while working, illustrating a highly intrusive form of monitoring like we have not previously seen.

According to one recent survey of information technology, data science, and engineering professionals, the volume of data collected by their organizations is increasing by 63% each month, with data collected from an average of 400 different sources, including computers, smartphones, websites, and social media (Matillion, 2022).

Another survey found that 78% of employers use remote tools to monitor their employees (Banfield, 2022).

One segment of the work population affected by this trend has gained particular interest in recent years: remote workers. As advancements in new technology rapidly continue to emerge, the ability to work remotely is possible for a growing number of individuals. While the ability to work outside the traditional office is not a novel concept, access to high-speed internet service, mobile technology, email, instant messaging, and videoconferencing has expedited its growth. According to the State of the American Workplace, a report from the Gallup organization, remote work is rising. At least part of the time, the number of people doing so has gone from 39% in 2012 to 43% in 2016 (Gallup 2019).

Another factor propelling this trend has been the emergence and proliferation of younger generations in the general workforce. Millennials, and now the first of Generation Z, have not only grown up with this form of instant and virtual connectedness, but they also demand a higher work-life balance as well as perceived freedom and flexibility in their job schedule. Remote access to work via technology has played a part in overcoming work-life balance issues for organizations wishing to retain skilled employees (Grant et al., 2013). As more baby boomers exit the workforce, institutions must accommodate these younger workers' expectations to remain competitive and an employer of choice.

Organizations recognize the benefits that remote work has on direct operating costs. Rent, utilities, commuting expenses, office equipment and furnishings, security, maintenance, and housekeeping, to list a few, can all be eliminated or reduced, which

helps contribute to overall profitability. Remote work can reduce indirect costs as well. With the contemporary movement towards corporate social responsibility and sustainability, organizations can impact their carbon footprint through remote work. Energy consumption related to air conditioning, office space heating, lighting, general electricity use, and overall CO2 emissions from commuting is reduced. Also, people tend to print less paperwork when working remotely compared to an office environment. Research has also demonstrated various positive outcomes of remote work at the individual level as well. Studies have identified improved productivity with employees having fewer interruptions, reduced commuter time, and the ability to schedule their work when it is most convenient to them (Bloom et al., 2015). Greater autonomy, control, and flexibility over work can increase job satisfaction and overall work-life balance while simultaneously reducing stress and burnout (Golden et al., 2008)

From the beginning of COVID-19 through late 2022, the research found that nearly one-third of medium to large companies adopted new tools to monitor their remote workers to quantify the amount of time and on which projects they worked (Deloitte, 2023). A survey of desk-based knowledge workers found they spent an average of 67 extra minutes online daily to demonstrate their availability, even if they were not working (Mims, 2022). This highlights the fact that while organizations might believe that they are increasing productivity through their surveillance tactics, they may, in fact, be alienating employees and undermining their efforts to maximize outputs. Research has determined one of the most significant benefits of remote work is the increased perception of autonomy; however, that benefit can be decreased because of the relative ease of electronic monitoring and its hidden, ongoing, and instant nature (Gajendran &

Harrison, 2007). Electronic monitoring can be intrusive in any circumstance; however, one expects heightened privacy and a sense of security when working from home. This perception of invasiveness represents a sense of loss of autonomy or control, negatively affecting individuals' attitudes, such as their level of motivation, satisfaction, or engagement.

Problem Statement

The harmful influence electronic monitoring has on employee attitudes will impact intentions and behaviors, leading to adverse organizational outcomes, including increased turnover intentions and counterproductive work behaviors. On behalf of the employee, the perceived purpose of monitoring will moderate the relationship between surveillance and attitudes and ultimate outcomes such that they will be more negative when the perceived purpose is controlling, in the interests of the organization, and less negative when developmental and in the interests of the individual.

Significance of the Problem

High turnover rates are associated with increased costs, reduced productivity, and decreased morale (Ak, 2018). There are two types of costs for turnover: visible and invisible (Alkahtani, 2015). Visible or hard costs associated with separation include administrative time for processing, annual leave payouts, and COBRA or unemployment benefits. Other visible costs include added shifts, overtime, or the use of temporary workers. In contrast, replacement costs include recruiting and job posts, administrative time and expenses, background and reference checks, pre-employment and drug testing, and time and expenses for orientation and new hire training. Invisible or soft costs associated with separation include productivity loss from departing employees and

increased workload for co-workers, decreasing productivity. Additional invisible costs include the supervisor's lost productivity in coordinating and accommodating these changes and coaching, mentoring, and overseeing the new employee (shrm.org). Overall, the costs attributed to individual turnover are estimated to range from one-half to double the employee's salary. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 2017, the annual turnover rate in the U.S. was more than 26%. The Gallup organization estimates these costs to be a $1 trillion loss to U.S. businesses annually (Gallup, 2023). Research shows that of those who voluntarily chose to leave their organizations, fifty-two percent state that their manager could have done something to prevent them from leaving their job.

In comparison, fifty-one percent said that neither their supervisor nor any other leader discussed their work satisfaction, performance, or future career goals with them during the months before their departure. Management's ability to recognize and anticipate costly employee turnover and other harmful outcomes lies at the core of the practical implications of this study. Employees' perceptions of management's intentions, and whether they are directed toward the organization's benefit or the individual's developmental growth, can reduce turnover significantly. The insight that a majority of those who chose to leave their jobs voluntarily cited the lack of individual interests in their satisfaction and personal development reinforces the importance of this study.

Counterproductive work behaviors include many intentional actions to harm individuals and the organization. Economic consequences can be both direct and indirect. Direct financial implications of counterproductive work behaviors can result in significant monetary losses from the theft of merchandise, equipment, or fiscal assets (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), while indirect damage comes from the resources drain

associated with addressing such behaviors and diminished productivity (Dalal, 2005). Organizational culture and climate are damaged through reduced morale and satisfaction (Sutton, 2007), while fear and intimidation from bullying or a hostile environment can erode team dynamics and collaboration (Fox & Spector, 1999). For individuals, research has shown counterproductive work behaviors are associated with burnout and physical and psychological strain (Penney & Spector, 2005), while organizations can incur brand damage and reputational risks (Sutton, 2007), as well as legal implications in the form of lawsuits or regulatory penalties (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Organizations should actively identify preventative variables because of counterproductive work behaviors' broad-reaching, costly negative effects.

Research Gap

The age of information is upon us, and if Moore's Law and historical trends continue as predicted, technological innovations will continue to advance and become more widely integrated into various aspects of our lives, including work. This digital progress will predictably affect organizations in two critical manners. First, the appeal and motive to work remotely will only continue to grow. As newer, faster, and more convenient tools are developed that allow individuals the flexibility to detach from traditional workspaces, the appetite for such arrangements will expand. After experiencing such levels of autonomy resulting from the lockdown of COVID-19, employees are more devoted and enthusiastic about maintaining this level of independence than ever before, and they will seek opportunities within organizations that provide for this need. Second, as technological advancements offer employees more

opportunities to work remotely, they simultaneously allow organizations newer, cheaper, more extensive, and detailed ways to monitor workers and quantify their information.

A recent analysis on productivity described what was referred to as "the rise of the quantified organization" (Deloitte, 2023), emphasizing the ever-expanding amount of data sources and AI tools emerging and being utilized. Organizations have transitioned from traditional survey-based questionnaires and direct observations to passive data generated and collected without direct input and often without awareness. As employees increasingly interact with various forms of technology, a digital fingerprint or trail is left behind and compiled by employers. While organizations believe that this passive data can be applied to initiatives to improve worker performance and outcomes, these efforts can be undermined by employees' perceptions of leadership's intentions. Just because organizations can implement a particular form of electronic monitoring, it does not mean it will necessarily add value.

Furthermore, the most important to those being surveilled is their perception of how the data collection will affect them. If individuals interpret monitoring systems to benefit their wellness, safety, performance, or development, they will be more likely to accept them than perceptions of institutional control or discipline. Previous scholarly research has focused primarily on the dichotomous approach of measuring the presence or lack of monitoring and less on the interpretations or perceptions of purpose. "The perfect disciplinary apparatus would make it possible for a single gaze to see everything; the more numerous and anonymous, the greater the anxious awareness of being observed" (Foucault, 1975). Foucault understood the detrimental nature of monitoring individuals. If organizations are to maximize the potential of their workforce, their

understanding of the effects of electronic monitoring, and more importantly, the perceived purpose of those actions, is essential for creating value.

Research Questions

What are the effects of electronic monitoring on employee motivation, satisfaction, and engagement, and their ultimate impact on turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors for remote office workers in the U.S.?

What is the role of perceived purpose in the relationship between electronic monitoring and motivation, satisfaction, and engagement, and its ultimate impact on turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors for remote office workers in the U.S.?

Research Contributions

To answer this question, the first consideration must be which theoretical framework to apply to these relationships. A core tenant of this research presumes that the workplace factor of electronic monitoring is perceived as intrusive and controlling and that this invasion of privacy would diminish employee autonomy and agency. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) posits that human behavior is influenced by the satisfaction of the innate needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and different workplace factors can either facilitate or thwart these needs, ultimately influencing turnover and counterproductive work behaviors. Therefore, I apply the theoretical lens of self-determination theory to this study. While generally applied to motivation, this research explores the impact of need satisfaction as it relates to other attitudinal and behavioral constructs such as satisfaction, engagement, turnover intention,

and counterproductive work behaviors, contributing to the existing body of knowledge on this framework. This study addresses calls to apply self-determination theory to study the impacts of advanced technologies in interaction with work climates as well as the proposition to examine how workplace factors and perceived corporate support influence needs satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2017). Additionally, it speaks to the appeal of exploring the active thwarting of needs instead of satisfying them, as it appears to be much more effective in predicting adverse outcomes (Deci et al., 2017).

A second contribution of this study pertains to the added knowledge on the construct of electronic monitoring, particularly how it relates to remote workers. The effects of electronic monitoring for on-site employees are well known; however, we are still learning about the impacts of remote workers (Jeske, 2022). The position of this research is that electronic monitoring has a negative effect on employees, and this addresses the call that there is a significant need for more research on workplace health in different settings that are remote, monitored, and overlap with one's home environment (Jeske, 2022). Previous studies have been limited to groups that include undergraduates, clerical workers, participants of a single organization, or laboratory studies, limiting generalizability. This study will answer the call to include different professional backgrounds and employees who have not been studied yet (Siegel et al., 2022; Wells et al., 2007; Alder & Ambrose, 2005a). The impact of employee engagement on the relationship between electronic monitoring and the dependent variables addresses the call from Bakker et al. (2005) to investigate mediating influences of job demands and resources, while the focus on costs associated with turnover and counterproductive work

behaviors answers the question of how electronic monitoring translates to increased profitability or competitiveness (Holt, Lang, Sutton, 2016).

A third contribution from this research adds to the knowledge regarding the perceived purpose of electronic monitoring. As stated, previous research focused on the impacts of whether electronic monitoring was present and less on perceived purpose from employees. One study by Abraham et al. (2019) used an experimental vignette design; however, they noted that future studies should assess results from real work settings that have already implemented these tracking technologies. Another study on work privacy pointed out that an area for future research was the effects of increased perceptions of invasiveness in workspaces on employee outcomes (Bhave et al., 2019). A third study of remote work and performance monitoring posed the question of how the shift to remote work has influenced employees' perceptions of performance measurement and if they perceive an increase or loosening in control (Gustavsson & Soderlund, 2021).

A fourth contribution of this study pertains to the knowledge of remote work. While this area of research has gained significant attention recently because of COVID-19, the need for research remains imperative as this form of work arrangement will only continue to grow. Gallup's Future Workforce Report estimates that 73% of all business teams will have remote workers by 2028 to deliver higher productivity at lower costs (Pattnaik & Kesari, 2020), thus highlighting growing importance. Despite the expanding research already conducted, various aspects, factors, and conditions related to remote work continue the need for development and exploration. One study exploring the positive effects of engagement for remote works questioned which types of situations and circumstances might hinder that positive relationship (Boskovic, 2021), while another

recent study called for potential research to examine gaps between an organization's policies, procedures, and corporate culture and employees' perceptions of them (Maier, Laumer, Weitzel, 2021). A broader request for research on how technology influences the impact of remote work (Golden, 2006), while Golden and Gajendran (2018) suggested future research exploring moderating variables on the structural components of an organization's work process. As more people transition to remote positions and technology continues to permeate our jobs, the need to explore the factors that influence its success will grow.

The remainder of this dissertation is structured as follows. Chapter two includes the background literature review of each of the constructs included in the study and the unifying theoretical framework through which the research is viewed. Chapter three covers the research design, explaining the overall approach to the study. The conceptual framework includes the research model detailing all variables of interest and the direction and influence of their relationships. Definitions of each construct are provided in addition to the theoretical development of hypotheses with justifications drawn and offered from the extant literature. The fourth chapter of the research methodology comprises the participants, procedures for inclusion in the study, and how testing will be conducted. The research design explains the projected sample size and statistical methods. At the same time, the measurements section outlines each of the survey instruments to be used, including each of the questions for analysis.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORY

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a widely established and accepted framework in behavioral science. Recognized as a motivational theory, SDT has expanded our comprehension of human behavior, motivation, needs satisfaction, rewards contingency, and pursuing goals. The conception of SDT is credited to the work of Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan. In their work titled "Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior" (1985), they proposed that individuals possess an innate psychological need for control and volition (autonomy), the need to feel effective (competence), and the need for social connection (relatedness). The theory posits that individuals are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation (IM) when these needs are satisfied. This perspective represented a radical shift from the traditional operant theory from B. F. Skinner, which maintained that all behaviors are motivated by rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Over the years, SDT has undergone multiple changes, producing various mini theories to support this macro framework.

Continuing a long history of academic research on the driving forces of motivation and behavior, SDT builds on the concepts of preceding needs theories. One facet of these traditional perspectives, proposed by Hull (1943), is the concept of innate physiological needs. The belief is that these innate needs, such as food and water, will produce drive states that will initiate action to satisfy said states. The relationship between the stimulus-response was used in predicting behavior; however, it could not account for spontaneous activities, curiosity, exploration, and play (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

An alternate aspect of these traditional views is that from Murray (1938), which advanced the notion that needs were psychological and acquired, in contrast to physiological and innate. Murray's definition of needs was broad, including motives such as greed and dominance. These impulses moved individuals toward predictable action; however, they were not associated with optimal functioning or a healthy state of well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The foundation of contemporary SDT is derived from the early studies on intrinsic motivation (IM) by Edward Deci in the 1970s. The research identified that without any external rewards or incentives, individuals' behavior was motivated by their enjoyment, curiosity, and overall inherent interest, which led to personal growth and a sense of satisfaction. Continuing to expand this understanding of motivation, Deci (1971) explored the effects of extrinsically mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. Building on this concept, Deci and colleagues proposed the notion of Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), a mini theory of SDT, which introduced the groundwork for exploring the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. The belief is that intrinsically motivated individuals feel confidence and self-determination that can be affected by introducing rewards and changing the perceived locus of control (Deci et al., 1975). This theory asserts that the locus of control is internal when an individual is intrinsically motivated. When rewards are introduced, they become associated with the task or activity, and the perception of the locus of causality switches from within the individual to the external reward, thus reducing intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1975).

Furthering the evolution of these ideas, Ryan and Deci combined their work on intrinsic motivation with existing Organismic theory, advancing the concept of another

mini-theory, Organismic Integration Theory (OIC). OIC maintains that individuals have an innate, natural orientation toward proactive growth and self-determination. It asserts that human behavior is actively inclined toward integrating themselves into larger social structures, engaging in interesting activities, and exercising capabilities (Deci & Ryan. 2000).

From here, we see the basis of our contemporary understanding of self-determination theory. Deci and Ryan focused on needs as innate organismic necessities essential for psychological growth, integrity, and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). They assert that all individuals' three psychological needs are innate: autonomy, competency, and relatedness. Results from SDT research have consistently demonstrated that satisfying these needs facilitates positive outcomes on the individual level of analysis. Motivation, growth, psychological and physical well-being, and enhanced performance have all been associated with self-determination theory (SDT). For organizations, research has confirmed that long-term health, customer satisfaction, loyalty, increased profitability, reduced turnover, emotional exhaustion, and stress are all associated with employee well-being and motivation (Deci et al., 2017).

SDT distinguishes between two different types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is characterized by the spontaneity of the experience, with the rewards originating from the enjoyment of the experience itself (Deci et al., 2017). Furthermore, research has determined that high-quality performance and wellness are associated with individual employees who are intrinsically motivated. Extrinsic motivation is associated with behaviors focused on acquiring external, tangible rewards. Extrinsic motivation can be subdivided into external regulation, where employees believe

their behaviors are under the control of others, and introjected regulation, where employees focus on approval from their supervisors to avoid disapproval (Deci et al., 2017).

At the core of SDT is the belief that to fulfill these motivational goals, the degree to which individuals satisfy their psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness is essential. The first concept of autonomy refers to the need to feel in control of one's actions and the ability to make choices. It is the individual's need to experience ownership and self-regulation of their actions (Hood & Patton, 2021). Work environments that support individuals' autonomy by encouraging choice and initiative are associated with intrinsic motivation and positive work outcomes (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014).

The second psychological need within SDT is competence. It is described as the feeling of being effective and capable in one's environment and reflects a need to experience skill development and mastery (Hood & Patton, 2021). Environments that satisfy the need for competence by providing feedback for employees to enhance their skills and abilities are found to reinforce motivation and performance (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014).

The third factor of SDT, relatedness, refers to the feelings of connectedness or belongingness to others. It is a desire to be part of a group and a supportive collegiate relationship (Broeck et al., 2010). Work environments that support an individual's need for relatedness through acceptance and support have also been found to strengthen well-being and positive outcomes (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014).

As a widely utilized macro theory of motivation, SDT has been applied to various fields, including education, healthcare, sports, leadership, and remote work (Deci & Ryan, 2017). One study from Deci et al. (1991), applied to the education sector, sought to promote interest and value in education for students and enhance their confidence in their capacities. They concluded that when self-determined motivation was promoted through offering choice, minimizing controls, acknowledging feelings, and providing information for decision-making, students were more likely to retail natural curiosity and enhance conceptual understanding, problem-solving, personal adjustment, and social responsibility (Deci et al. 1991).

Other research from Hood & Patton (2021) investigated the impact of SDT needs satisfaction on work outcomes for healthcare assistants working in mental health hospitals. Specifically, they tested for job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention for both full-time and temporary workers. Results supported the notion that greater perceived autonomy predicted higher job satisfaction and lower job stress and turnover intention. At the same time, relatedness was also a significant predictor of job satisfaction and turnover intention (Hood & Patton, 2021).

Another area that has been able to support the principles of SDT has been organizational work settings. Various studies have identified connections between managerial autonomy support and positive work outcomes. One study by Deci et al. (1989) examined the impacts of managers' encouragement of self-initiation, acknowledgment of perspectives, and communication of choice and information to subordinates. This approach of autonomy support was associated with higher job satisfaction, increased trust, and more positive attitudes toward work (Gagne & Deci,

2005). Research has found that managerial autonomy support is positively associated with motivation and performance (Vallerand et al., 1992) and greater satisfaction with the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Gagne & Deci, 2005). While autonomy, competence, and relatedness have enhanced positive work outcomes, research has also identified how failure to satisfy these psychological needs can increase employee stress, burnout, and turnover (Hood & Patton, 2021).

Electronic Monitoring

As the digital revolution continues to impact and shape all aspects of our lives, organizations are changing and adapting how they assess employee performance. Technological advancements, reduced implementation costs, and societal shifts toward the information age allow management to observe employees like never before using electronic surveillance. While there has been a steady and continuous progression in this direction, the abrupt onset of COVID-19 catapulted organizations into a situation where they were compelled to implement these practices to survive. Nearly overnight, an estimated 72% of employees worldwide were required to switch to working remotely from home (Yu & Wu, 2021), exacerbating an already unprecedented uncertainty. As individuals were acclimating to the life disruptions of the pandemic, organizations were compelled to develop and implement strategies to maintain a sense of control and regulation. In times of uncertainty in the external environment, organizational leaders tend to exert higher levels of authority and oversight to maintain stability. To counterbalance the ambiguity of supervising dispersed teams while simultaneously securing institutional interests, organizations turned to a multitude of methods of electronic monitoring of their employees.

Electronic monitoring refers to various systems or tools that are used to collect, store, analyze, and report the behaviors or performance of employees (McNall & Roch, 2009; Samaranayke & Gamage, 2011). It comes in various forms and advances quickly in the digital revolution. Several methods include audio and video monitoring, telephone and email monitoring, website and computer-use tracking, GPS tracking, microchip implants, body-heat sensors, and emotion-detection facial recognition. This information can be used to analyze aspects that are both directly and indirectly related to job performance (Stanton, 2000). Software and technology can be used to track social media and network connections in and outside of work. Email monitoring allows for collecting cognitive and emotional attitude interpretation, and personal biometric and health data can be accessed using wearable technologies. While employee monitoring is a phenomenon that has been around for a while, compared to more traditional methods, electronic monitoring allows for continuously collecting vast amounts of personal data, often without individuals' awareness or consent.

Typically, an organization's rationale for implementing different electronic monitoring systems is two-fold, including the reduction of costs and risks, and the other is to increase performance and productivity. Proponents of the first aspect promote ideals such as improved employee security and safety, reduced theft and legal liabilities, and diminished cyber-loafing and non-productive behaviors (Ravid et al., 2019). Those who support the productivity aspect of electronic monitoring stress the importance of performance management of subordinates through proactive intervention and developmental feedback to ensure positive work outcomes (Jeske, 2022).

Because of the speed at which new technology is introduced in the workplace, electronic monitoring research is outpaced and must frequently be reexamined. Early studies of the impact on attitudes and behavior took a dichotomous perspective, considering only the presence or lack thereof of electronic monitoring. Any inconclusive findings can be attributed to the fact that electronic monitoring is not a psychological construct but rather a method (Ravid et al., 2019).

Ravid et al. (2019) offer a psychology-focused typology to organize various characteristics in electronic monitoring research to address their conclusion. The first facet of the typology is *purpose*, which refers to the function or rationale behind its use and communicates an organization's values and expectations toward employees. Research on various purpose facets has found that an individual's perceptions of that purpose influence their reactions to electronic monitoring (McNall & Stanton, 2011; Wells et al., 2007). The second facet is *invasiveness*, which refers to the intrusion imposed on an individual's privacy, autonomy, or personal boundaries and is defined by its scope, target, constraints, and employee control. The third typological facet is *synchronicity*, describing the temporal characteristics of electronic monitoring, noting the importance of timing between data collection and feedback delivery. The fourth facet of *transparency* represents the extent to which information and notice of electronic monitoring are provided to employees. Several other elements are believed to moderate the relationship between electronic monitoring and outcome variables, including personality, values, goal orientation, job characteristics, and organizational culture and climate (Ravid et al., 2019).

Prior research on electronic monitoring has been applied to an assorted collection of dependent variables such as work satisfaction, perceived stress, privacy violations, well-being, and perceived autonomy and trust (Alge & Hansen, 2013; Ravid et al., 2019; Siegel et al., 2022, Stanton, 2000). Each variable represents a psychologically focused perception of the organization's intentions and values towards workers. How employees interpret the goals of the company's policies, procedures, and actions will shape their work attitudes and, ultimately, behavioral outcomes, presenting the importance of understanding how these impressions are construed.

Perceived Monitoring Purpose:

Monitoring purpose refers to the intentions or objectives of the surveillant and is the motivating factor behind the use of electronic monitoring. Many reasons inspire organizations' implementation of electronic monitoring, yet the typology offered by Ravid et al. (2019) serves as a framework for understanding common denominators. A more thorough examination of their proposed characteristics of purpose reveals four separate dimensions: (1) performance appraisal, loss prevention, and profit; (2) development, growth, and training; (3) administration and safety; and (4) surveillance and authoritarian.

Performance electronic monitoring emphasizes and reinforces organizational expectations and clarifies values (Stanton & Julian, 2002). This form of employee monitoring is intended to discourage unwanted and counterproductive behaviors, such as theft and loafing while reinforcing results and outcomes using punishments and rewards (Ravid et al., 2019). The impacts of electronic monitoring for performance purposes have been debated with different findings. Studies have found support for the positive

relationship between electronic monitoring for performance and narrow task dimensions, yet this might result from an increased focus on those dimensions that are being measured at the cost of neglecting those that are not (Ravid et al., 2019). Regarding broader performance, research suggests that when employees are aware of performance monitoring, they are more likely to engage in organizational commitment behaviors if they believe those behaviors will be noticed (Bhave, 2013). The effects on attitudinal outcomes are more consistent, highlighting increased motivation, job dedication, and satisfaction (Stanton & Julian, 2002). Other studies identified decreased satisfaction and commitment, with higher reports of stress and burnout when the performance monitoring resulted in negative consequences for employees (Adams & Mastracci, 2018; Wells et al., 2007).

Developmental electronic monitoring focuses on identifying strengths and weaknesses, training needs, and skill acquisition to provide constructive feedback (Ravid et al., 2019). Despite the potential to improve development and learning, relatively few studies have established a positive link between electronic monitoring and performance. Ravid et al. (2019) note that research has concentrated on simple task accomplishment with student participants who could be more interested and uninvested in the goals. The evidence supporting attitudinal outcomes, however, is stronger. Developmental monitoring was associated with increased satisfaction and organizational commitment while accepting supervisor feedback as fairer (Wells et al., 2007). These positive workplace attitudes likely result from the perception of employees that the organization values their contribution and is invested in their growth.

The third characteristic of electronic monitoring purpose is administrative and safety, which is intended to protect against harm, including civil and legal liabilities (Ravid et al., 2019). The distinguishing factor of this characteristic is that it intends to protect and promote the well-being of both the organization and the employees surveilled. Attitudinal outcomes are also mixed. While employees recognize and value the beneficial effects of this type of monitoring, it can also be seen as intrusive and invasive. One study demonstrated that while employees appreciated recordings that protected them from customer complaints, they also noted that it came at a great cost to their autonomy (Sewell et al., 2012).

The fourth and final characteristic of electronic monitoring purpose is surveillance and authoritarianism, which refers to monitoring with no stated purpose or intention given to employees. Of all four characteristics proposed in this typology, surveillance purpose is considered to have the most prominent detrimental effect. Research has demonstrated that individuals' reactions tend to be more positive when justifications are provided, and even when rationales are weak, those being monitored experience greater perceptions of justice (Cialdini, 2008). There is, in fact, support for the notion that surveillance monitoring has a negative impact on performance and various attitudinal outcomes, such as decreased fairness and satisfaction, as well as increased stress (Ravid et al., 2019).

While stated purpose, under this framework, appears to influence behavioral and attitudinal outcomes, individual perceptions of the motives or reasoning behind electronic monitoring also affect employees' postures. Despite any intentions that an organization may claim to justify its use of various forms of electronic monitoring, employees'

perceptions of how the information and data will be used cannot be underestimated. When employees are asked to explain the purpose of performance appraisals, they typically state the intended reasons (Bretz, Milkovich, & Read, 1992), yet their personal perceptions may not align with organizational designs. Research has found that regardless of the surveillant's intentions, individuals' attitudes toward performance appraisals are formed and realized by their personal perceptions (Balzer & Sulsky, 1990). What is, perhaps, more influential in the factors that shape attitudinal outcomes is the meaning or perception that employees interpret and assign to electronic monitoring. Whether individuals consider the purpose behind monitoring as benefiting their personal interests through development versus organizational interests through control will shape their reactions.

One study on responses to employee monitoring systems found that individuals were less satisfied when the systems were used for control purposes rather than their development (Chalykoff & Kochan, 1989). Other studies have argued that participants reported lower anxiety and more positive attitudes when monitoring was perceived to benefit their interests rather than control their performance (Aiello, 1993). Employees who perceived managers' use of electronic monitoring mostly for developmental purposes were likelier to feel they were being treated fairly (McNall & Roch, 2009). Conversely, perceptions that the intended purpose is for control and constraint convey a lack of trust and confidence in the employee, resulting in more negative work attitudes. Young and Corsun (2010) reported that employees are likelier to report lower job satisfaction and greater stress when they perceive monitoring as unfair, while Kayas et al. (2019) found that individuals will engage in resistance and creative avoidance.

Furthermore, research has shown that pervasive monitoring is often perceived as a lack of trust on the part of the organization (Jamal et al., 2021) and that higher levels of surveillance are perceived as coercive control and associated with increased counterproductive work behaviors (Shaffer & Darnold, 2020). Without any overtly stated or implied purpose, perceptions of a controlling, self-interested organization will be assumed on behalf of employees. Surveillants tend to associate this approach toward monitoring with negative behavioral responses and attitudes. Subjects of one study with unstated intentions perceived the administrator as less trusting and reported lower levels of personal autonomy (Enzle & Anderson, 1993).

Motivation

Motivation is an expansive topic that is one of the most highly researched subjects of any other theory (Tremblay et al., 2009). Academic researchers and practitioners alike comprehend the importance and significance of a motivated workforce as a human capital asset and strategic advantage. Multiple disciplines have applied the concept of motivation, including psychology, education, and leadership, and various perspectives and approaches toward comprehending motivation and its influencing factors have been proposed over the years.

Early exploration of the nature of motivation focused on Behaviorism, or behavioral observations, to understand and predict human actions. Introduced in his book "The Behavior of Organisms," B.F. Skinner (1938) proposed the concept of Operant Conditioning (OC), or how behavior is influenced and shaped by consequences. OC involves the strengthening or weakening of behaviors using reinforcements as motivational factors. Positive reinforcement provides a reward to encourage future

behavior. Negative reinforcement removes an aversive condition and encourages behavior, and punishment introduces a negative stimulus to discourage behavior (Skinner, 1953). While these concepts reflect the principles of extrinsic rewards, the focus here is solely on human action (behavior) and not the underlying psychological needs.

In the mid-twentieth century, we saw a paradigm shift away from a behavioral approach and more toward Needs Theories. Here, motivation was believed to originate from the frustration experienced when vital needs are unsatisfied, introducing various influential models. A pioneer in this theme was Abraham Maslow, who proposed his Hierarchy of Needs, which stated that basic human needs are organized into a hierarchy of relative prepotency and that each drive is related to the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of other drives (Maslow, 1943). From the lowest level to the highest, the structure of needs includes (1) physiological, (2) safety, (3) love, often labeled as social, (4) esteem, and (5) self-actualization. Maslow proposed that intrinsic motivation was linked to fulfilling her-order needs such as esteem and self-actualization.

Building on this work, Clayton Alderfer introduced his ERG Theory, which distinguished between three classes of needs: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth (Alderfer, 1969). Although condensed, Alderfer's needs correlated with Maslow's in that existence paralleled physiological and safety needs, relatedness was associated with love (social) needs, and growth corresponded to esteem and self-actualization. The notable distinguishing feature of Alderfer's ERG theory was that it explained needs in terms of ranges that could be experienced simultaneously rather than in order on a hierarchal structure (Acquah et al., 2021).

Continuing to explore the role of needs in motivation, David McClelland introduced the Manifest Needs Theory, which also incorporated three motivators: achievement, affiliation, and power. McClelland's manifest needs also correlated with Alderfer's and Maslow's, with affiliation aligned with relatedness from Alderfer and love (social) from Maslow. Power is associated with Alderfer's growth and Maslow's esteem, and achievement with Alder's growth and Maslow's self-actualization. There are no comparable manifest needs to Alderfer's existence and Maslow's physiological or safety needs. The differentiating characteristic here is that McClelland emphasizes socially acquired needs that are created or developed in contrast to those that exist innately, as presented in the preceding theories (Acquah et al., 2021).

For this study, I will employ the perspective of autonomous intrinsic motivation as defined by Deci & Ryan (2000). Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviors and active engagement with tasks that individuals find interesting in and of themselves without separate rewards or consequences. The driving force behind intrinsic motivation is the psychological drive to satisfy the needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

As described in self-determination theory (SDT) above, autonomy refers to the feeling of having control over one's behaviors and choices and is promoted when individuals feel free to follow their inner interests (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Various research has shown that autonomy support from supervisors was positively related to intrinsic motivation, improved work performance, increased satisfaction, and overall enhanced well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Competence refers to the ability to perform a task successfully and can be fostered by providing individuals with challenges, feedback, and the opportunity to

develop their skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research has shown that intrinsic motivation is enhanced when individuals receive positive feedback and feel responsible for their performance instead of forces outside of their control, which would also impede their need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Relatedness is the feeling of connectedness and a sense of belongingness that can be fostered through social support, opportunities for collaboration, and positive social interactions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). While Deci & Ryan, 2000, state that relatedness plays a more distal role in intrinsic motivation compared to autonomy and competence, they do acknowledge that intrinsic motivation is more likely to flourish in the context of relatedness under self-determination theory. Furthermore, in various sub-fields of psychology that explore attachment theories, the importance of intimate relationships has been established, and relatedness provides for more effective group knowledge transfer and cohesiveness of social groups (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

As a research construct, intrinsic motivation has been examined across various fields and on multiple levels. One paper from Kusurkar et al. (2011) intended to explain how motivation was used to predict and understand processes and outcomes in the medical education field. Exploring a self-determination theory (SDT) perspective, they conducted a review of the existing literature on motivation as an independent variable (IV) or dependent variable (DV). Of the original 460 articles, findings from 56 were included in the review, noting that as an IV, motivation appeared to affect learning and study behavior, academic performance, choice of medicine and specialty, as well as the intention to continue. As a DV, motivation was determined to be affected by factors that cannot be manipulated, such as demographics, personality, teacher or peer support, and

socio-economic status, as well as factors that can partially be manipulated, including autonomy, competence, and relatedness; the basic psychological needs of SDT (Kusurkar et al., 2011).

As an IV, intrinsically motivated medical students demonstrated higher participation rates in supplemental courses and peer-tutoring activities (Sobral, 2008). Individuals with higher rates of intrinsic motivation were associated with higher grades, overall higher GPAs (Sobral, 2004; Webb et al., 1997), and increased intention to continue studies and remain in medical school (Sobral, 2004). As a DV, research has found that non-manipulatable conditions, such as age, gender, socioeconomic background, and personality, can influence achievement motivation. One study exploring the motivations to enter the medical field found that older mature students specified intellectual satisfaction as their primary motivation, followed by the desire to work with and help others, while younger students cited the exact opposite (Harth et al., 1990). Gender differences have also been noted, with females reporting the desire to help others and have a career as their driving motivational factors, while males specified an interest in science and being indispensable as theirs (Wierenga et al., 2003; Robbins et al., 1983; Vaglum et al., 1999, McManus et al., 2006)

Variables that can be manipulated (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) also impact motivation as a DV. A study by Williams et al. (1997) found that autonomy support by instructors enhanced students' motivation in residency selection, while a study of a problem-based learning curriculum enhanced students' intrinsic motivation because of autonomy, as opposed to the controlling environment of the traditional curriculum (White, 2007). Perceived self-efficacy, or competence, was positively correlated with

medical students' intrinsic motivation (Pelaccia et al. 2009). Entrants who were selected to participate in a school's medical program through a demanding application process were identified to have stronger motivation when compared to students chosen through a lottery process (Hulsman et al., 2007). Well-being, as defined by a balance between medical residents' professional responsibilities with their personal, familial, and social domains (relatedness), was found to affect their intrinsic motivation with a sense of increased purpose and passion for their work (Ratanawongsa et al., 2008).

Job Satisfaction:

The construct of job satisfaction (JS) has evoked interest in academia and the practitioner realm for many decades now. From the fields of organizational behavior, human resources, and social and industrial psychology to leadership and management, the concept of JS is one of the most influential to be studied. A review of published literature on job attitudes shows that JS is the most studied construct (Judge et al., 2017). Various research has demonstrated the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational interests, including performance and profitability, absenteeism and turnover, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012).

Our understanding of JS has evolved over time as we incorporate new information and perspectives. Hoppock (1935) offered the idea that JS consisted of any psychological, physiological, or environmental factors that resulted in an employee's declaration of satisfaction with their job. In general terms, it refers to individuals' attitudes and feelings about their work. On a more specific level, JS has been described in terms of the extent to which someone's expectations of rewards are met, such as recognition, salary, benefits,

tasks, or growth opportunities, while Statt (2004) included intrinsic motivation, in particular. For the purposes of this study, I consider the definition from Aziri (2008) that job satisfaction represents a feeling due to the perception that the job enables their material and psychological needs.

Our understanding of the concept of JS has undergone several changes over the past century that reflect the ideology of the times. Judge et al. (2017, 2020) chronicle the evolution of the construct and its development in research. In the pre-World War II era, an industrialized world experiencing the pressures from the Great Depression focused more on alleviating the emotional dissatisfaction of work. Early research in this area argued that chronic emotional maladjustments were responsible for job dissatisfaction (Fisher & Hanna, 1931). The post-war era assumed a more pragmatic approach and introduced Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, suggesting that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were influenced by two independent sets of factors rather than opposing ends on a singular continuum. Hygiene factors were related to the environment and included pay, job security, working conditions, supervision, and company policies, while motivation factors included recognition, achievement, responsibility, and involvement in decision-making.

The next progression saw an influence from the field of cognitive psychology, which focused on contextual factors such as organizational structure and climate as well as demographics and background factors. The ideology behind this perspective was that JS resulted from an individual's unique frame of reference. Continuing to align with changing social attitudes, the research focused next on behaviors. During this time, there was a significant increase in the research on turnover intention and the connection

between attitudes and action. Furthermore, one also witnesses the inception of a more dispositional approach to the research with trait-based models of personality and a burgeoning collection of work surrounding the Big Five. It appears that our contemporary interpretation and reasoning have reverted to an affective view, which incorporates a more holistic set of variables. The Affective Events Theory (AET) was introduced, and the idea that affective reactions are influenced by what occurs in the work environment and by an individual's traits was proposed. AET integrates perspectives from the affective, dispositional, and cognitive approaches to explain the impacts of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2020).

A discernable challenge in measuring job satisfaction is the fact that one can be satisfied with certain aspects of the job while simultaneously being dissatisfied with others (Spagnoli et al., 2012). Job satisfaction can be viewed from the approach of different facet measures such as satisfaction with pay, supervision, task, promotions, or autonomy; each specifically measures, and the second approach utilizes a general conceptualization of the construct. The choice of whether to use a general or facet-specific method ultimately depends on the goal of the research question and the practical appropriateness to meet the distinct empirical objectives (Harrison et al., 2006).

Job satisfaction has been researched as an independent variable (IV) shaping outcomes and a dependent variable (DV) affected by various antecedents. As a DV, antecedents can be grouped into three categories: dispositional, event-based, and contextual (Judge et al., 2020). Dispositional antecedents include factors such as affect, personality, and self-evaluations. Studies exploring positive and negative affect were found to be related to job satisfaction (Watson & Slack, 1993), and a meta-analysis of the

Big Five identified multiple correlations with JS (Judge, Heller, and Mount, 2002). Event-based influences revolve around creating temporary moods, with one study finding that a significant proportion of JS is preceded by affective daily events and moods (Weiss, Nichols, & Daus, 1999).

Contextual antecedents include various factors, such as environmental conditions, remuneration, supervisor support, growth opportunities, and work relationship dynamics. There is substantial support for the findings that job design (task identity, task significance, and skill variety), autonomy, and feedback are linked to job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldman, 1975; Fried & Ferris, 1987). Research on the impact of stress has uncovered two types of stressors affecting job satisfaction: challenges and hindrances. Challenging demands create opportunities for personal growth and achievement, while hindrance stressors thwart employee development and task completion efforts (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004).

Research has also sought to understand the influence JS has on other organizational outcomes such as performance and effectiveness, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs), as well as withdrawal behaviors (Judge et al., 2020). One study found empirical evidence supporting the negative relationship between JS and turnover intention and notes that the stronger the difference between an employee's expectations and reality (dissatisfaction), the stronger the turnover intention (Saeed et al., 2014). A meta-analytic study supports the negative correlation between JS and unethical behavior, suggesting that dissatisfied employees will retaliate to restore perceived injustice (Kish-Gephart et al., 2010).

Employee Engagement:

Employee Engagement (EE) has attracted the attention of researchers and organizational leaders because of the significant impact it is believed to have on various stakeholder outcomes. Typically, one finds that organizations with higher levels of employee engagement tend to have increased productivity and profitability, providing a competitive advantage. EE is relatively newer than other attitudinal constructs, with the onset of its exploration credited to William A. Kahn (1990). In his seminal paper on the psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work, he describes engagement as harnessing peoples' selves to their work, such that they fully invest their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources in the work roles (Kahn, 1990). An individual is said to be engaged implicitly when he is physically, psychologically, and emotionally present in work, implying he is attentive, focused, connected, and integrated into the role that his job demands. Erickson (2005) states that employee engagement is a psychological state of the employee characterized by passion, commitment, and willingness to invest one's discretionary effort while rendering his/her job. Engaged workforces respond with employer loyalty, raised creativity, increased satisfaction, and higher productivity (Busse & Weidner 2020). Engaged employees have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities, and they see themselves as able to deal well with the demands of their jobs.

Despite more than three decades of research, there is still debate over the definition, with the terms job engagement, work engagement, and employee engagement all being utilized interchangeably. Some research has suggested that job engagement revolves around the specific position or task, while work engagement implies attitudes

toward the organization. This paper will use the term employee engagement as it connotes more of an internal, intrinsic experience.

Traditionally, academics and practitioners were more focused on studying employee burnout, with the intention of preventing the negative consequences it had on an organization. However, reflecting the changing societal perspective toward strengths and positive psychology over weaknesses and dysfunction, the trend toward employee engagement gained momentum. Originally, burnout was measured using the MBI Maslach-Burnout Inventory) and subsequently adapted for more general application with the MBI-GS. This survey assessed three dimensions. Exhaustion measures fatigue, cynicism reflects indifference, while efficacy encompasses occupational accomplishments (Schaufeli et al., 2001). Early empirical research asserted that engagement, as an operationalized construct, was the antithesis of burnout and could be measured using the MBI, with low scores on exhaustion and cynicism and high scores on efficacy suggesting engagement (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

A subsequent conceptual framework was advanced by Schaufeli et al. (2001), proposing that burnout and engagement were not opposite functions on the same dimension, but rather they were separate concepts to be measured independently. They found that burnout was characterized by exhaustion (low activation) and cynicism (low identification), with engagement characterized by opposites, with vigor (high activation) and dedication (high identification). However, they differed on the third facet. While burnout includes reduced professional efficacy, engagement is expressed in terms of absorption. Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of

difficulties. Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

A third theoretical model of employee engagement is grounded in the idea that both job demands and job resources divide working conditions, where high demands lead to exhaustion and burnout, and low resources result in withdrawal behaviors and disengagement. Job demands refer to various physical, psychological, or emotional aspects with the potential to pressure or stress individuals, such as work overload, job insecurity, task ambiguity, or conflict. Job resources refer to the physical, psychological, or emotional elements that support work-related goals, reduce job demands, and promote growth development and engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014), including social support and feedback, participation in decision-making, career opportunities, and clarity of expectations. The ensuing research has expanded this concept to include personal resources such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and optimism, all of which are believed to affect employee engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

As a dependent variable (DV), research has found that there are numerous factors that influence employee engagement. In a meta-analysis by Christian et al. (2010), the elements of the Job Characteristics Model, which include task significance, task variety, feedback, and autonomy, were all positively related to employee engagement, while physical demands and adverse work conditions had negative impacts. A study from Crawford et al. (2010) identified nice separate resource variables, all with a positive

correlation with employee engagement: autonomy, feedback, developmental opportunity, positive work climate, recovery, rewards and recognition, support, job variety, and role fit (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

As an independent variable (IV), employee engagement has been associated with many positive individual and organizational outcomes. Increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been linked to employee engagement, increased well-being, and lower burnout (Hakanen et al., 200); Saks, 2006; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). A Halbesleben (2010) meta-analysis identified that employee engagement was related to higher commitment and health outcomes and lower turnover intention, while Christian et al. (2010) found a positive relationship associated with task and contextual performance. Additional organizational outcomes have been associated with employee engagement, including increased customer satisfaction, reduced absenteeism, and greater financial performance (Harter et al., 2002).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is the likelihood or extent of an employee leaving their current organization (Dwivedi, 2015). Multiple studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of turnover intention's ability to predict actual turnover behavior. One study that empirically demonstrates this concept surveyed a group of former employees who voluntarily left their place of employment and were compared to others who remained with the organization. Those within the organization were further divided into sub-groups, with those with low intentions of resigning and those with high intentions, who indicated a stronger desire to quit. Results found no significant differences between those who had voluntarily exited the organization and those with high intention to leave; however,

notable distinctions were identified between the exit group and those with low intention of leaving (Steensma et al., 2003).

Research from Bothma and Roodt (2013) sought to validate the turnover intention scale (TIS-6) and establish that it could be measured reliably. In their study, Bothma and Roodt (2013) used a census-based sample of employees from the information, communication, and technology (ICT) sector, identifying 2429 participants for a longitudinal study. Comparisons were conducted four months and again four years after the initial survey to measure the differences between those who had resigned versus those who remained with their organizations. It was identified that the turnover intention scores for those who voluntarily exited were significantly different from those who remained, providing evidence that turnover intention can be used as a proxy for actual turnover (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). This research confirms prior findings from Steensma et al. (2004), Byrne (2005), and Muliawan et al. (2009) that turnover intention and actual turnover results are positively correlated and that the TIS-6 significantly distinguished between those employees who left the organization versus those who stayed, confirming criterion-predictive validity.

It is important to note that not all turnover necessarily negatively impacts an organization. Generally, turnover is classified as voluntary and involuntary. Involuntary turnover is initiated by management and allows for the removal of underperforming individuals. This is considered a healthy loss as it can be utilized to remedy a problem or control staffing costs if needed. In addition, it can provide opportunities to add new, fresh talent and ideas, diversify the skillset and perspectives, and allow for the adaption to various market changes if needed (Belete, 2018).

Voluntary turnover, conversely, is initiated by the employee. When an employee voluntarily resigns, it creates significant losses and costs for an organization. Expenses related to the replacement of the individual include direct costs of advertisement and recruitment, interviewing and selection, onboarding and training, and general taxation of time and resources. Indirect costs are associated with the loss of productivity, additional stress and pressure on those who remain, and often a collective negative impact on morale. Damage also comes from losing institutional knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) experienced when one leaves. When substandard performers choose to leave, it is considered functional turnover. This group represents lower-performance individuals with weaker knowledge, abilities, and skills. Functional turnover applies to those with lower promotional potential, training investment, and experience level. Typically, it is easier to replace these individuals. While functional turnover still incurs the direct costs mentioned above, it also provides the opportunity to upgrade expectations, improve morale, and enhance competition and overall long-term performance.

When valued, productive employees voluntarily leave, this is considered dysfunctional turnover (Ak, 2018). This group encompasses those who are the top performers within the organization. These employees have valued intellectual capital and strong abilities and skills. They have the most experience, the highest training investment, and the strongest potential for development and promotion. Ordinarily, finding replacements for this group is most difficult and costly.

One final distinction of turnover classifies employee loss into unavoidable and avoidable. Unavoidable, voluntary turnover represents employee resignations beyond the

organization's control. The probability of preventing this loss is low, such as when people retire. Other factors contributing to unavoidable turnover include medical or health-related issues or the need to care for a loved one, such as an elderly family member or child. Additionally, relocations from someone returning to school, leaving the country, or individuals choosing to step away to take a break or start a new career also fall into this category.

Conversely, when high-potential top performers choose to leave their jobs for reasons that are within the organization's control, this is known as voluntary, dysfunctional, avoidable turnover and represents the biggest loss for the company. When this occurs, it largely results from the employee's needs failing to be satisfied. Reasons contributing to avoidable turnover can include lack of motivation, satisfaction, or engagement. Prior research has explored various organizational circumstances contributing to this loss, including leadership style (Siew, 2017; Puni et al., 2016), organizational commitment (Ahuja et al., 2007), organizational climate (Alkahtani, 2015), promotional opportunities (Stahl et al., 2009), salary (Kumar, 2011; Hassan, 2014), organizational culture (Dwivedi et al., 2013), and job stress (Hassan, 2014).

It is within the purview of organizational agents to decrease avoidable turnover. Idiosyncratic deals and arrangements, including flexible schedules and work arrangements, specially tailored tasks and responsibilities, opportunities for growth and development, or financial incentives that match employee contributions, can reduce the amount of avoidable turnover. It is the voluntary, avoidable, dysfunctional turnover that we seek to prevent by understanding the factors that contribute to these intentions.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWBs) are a set of broad actions employees take that harm organizations, individuals, or themselves. Sackett and DeVore (2001) defined CWBs as any volitional acts that harm or potentially violate an organization's or its stakeholders' interests. Early research exploring this topic has been labeled under the constraints of workplace aggression, employee deviance, and antisocial behavior (Sulea et al., 2010). Specific examples of such acts include theft, sabotage, absenteeism, substance abuse, or aggression. While researchers offer various definitions of CWBs and reference specific behaviors to highlight, consensus must be improved on a unified model of what should be included in the construct. Our understanding of the concept has expanded as researchers explore new aspects of this framework. Early research on employee theft from Hollinger and Clark (1983) distinguished between property deviance and production deviance using the terms “counterproductive behavior” and “deviance” simultaneously (Marcus et al., 2016). Further grouping of these behaviors has been applied to different categories, the most prominent being interpersonal counterproductive behaviors (CWBIs) and organizational counterproductive behaviors (CWBOs).

Three models have been identified as the most influential. The first, from Bennett and Robinson (2000), includes the two subcategories of the dimension: Organizational Deviance (OD) and Interpersonal Deviance (ID). Despite their similarity to Hollinger and Clark’s (1983) model, they offer a distinguishing point in their perspective. Contrary to previous views that OD and ID were diametric endpoints on a single continuum, Bennett and Robinson (2000) conceptualized these dimensions separately as individual constructs. While expanding the knowledge on CWBs, criticisms of this model are that

two categories are too broad, and the methodology may have excluded more narrow facets (Marcus et al., 2016).

Expanding our understanding of CWBs, a model was proposed by Spector et al. (2006), which included five facets: abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. There appears to be congruence and overlap between these two models. Interpersonal Deviance (ID) is closely related to abuse, while Organizational Deviance (OD) is aligned with production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. Criticisms of this model question why these specific facets were selected and how they incorporated five dimensions without validation (Marcus et al., 2016).

A third approach that offers an even more narrow and distinct focus is that of Gruys and Sackett (2003). Retaining the most severe CWBs from their research, a list of 66 items was refined. Eleven categories were identified, including (1) theft and related behaviors, (2) destruction of property, (3) misuse of information, (4) misuse of time and resources, (5) unsafe behavior, (6) poor attendance, (7) poor-quality work, (8) alcohol use, (9) drug use, (10) inappropriate verbal action, and (11) inappropriate physical action. While their research yielded a much more comprehensive model of CWBs, this approach has been applied less than the previous two. Like Spector et al. (2006), a criticism of this study is that the category-forming rationale is unclear (Marcus et al., 2016).

Two main categories of predictors are associated with CWBs: individual differences and situation factors. Individual differences influence the perception and interpretation of experiences or events. The most influential individual characteristic explored is personality, which is believed to moderate an employee's perception of their circumstances and behavior. Of the traits included in the Big Five personality index,

Conscientiousness has most consistently been identified to correlate with CWBs, followed by Neuroticism and Agreeableness (Sulea et al., 2010). Negative affectivity is believed to be associated with higher risks of CWBs. Demographic differences in the form of CWBs have been identified, with men reporting more alcohol abuse, women experiencing higher rates of absenteeism, and typically fewer CWBs among older individuals (Lau et al., 2003).

The second category of predictors is related to situational factors, including perceptions of organizational justice, job satisfaction, commitment, leadership effectiveness, and situational constraints (Sulea et al., 2010). Organizational justice comprises the four dimensions of procedural, distributed, interpersonal, and informational justice, each associated with CWBs. Previous research has found that theft and sabotage both increase due to the perception of procedural and distributed injustice (Ambrose et al., 2002). Interpersonal and informational justice have been identified to be negatively correlated with CWBs (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Job satisfaction has also been negatively correlated with deviance and CWBs and is particularly stronger at the organizational level (Sulea et al., 2010).

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH DESIGN

To answer the research questions posed, I offer the following research model. The sole independent variable is the construct of electronic monitoring, as its effect on work outcomes is the primary interest of this study. This paper posits that electronic monitoring has a negative effect on remote workers and, therefore, will negatively affect all direct and indirect variables. Due to the adverse nature of these relationships, the negative work outcomes of turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors were selected as the dependent variables. Turnover intention is the first dependent variable chosen because of the costly and harmful results for organizations' productivity and profitability. The second dependent variable of counterproductive work behavior was chosen because this construct measures various other forms of negative, costly, and harmful work outcomes that can occur aside from employees leaving the organization.

Rather than exploring the direct relationship between electronic monitoring and the dependent variables, three mediating variables were selected because of their strong psychological and cognitive associations with the dependent variables on the individual level of analysis. The first mediator of motivation pertains to psychological needs satisfaction and has a positive association with favorable work outcomes; therefore, understanding how motivation can be used to curtail electronic monitoring's negative effects is highly relevant. The second mediator of job satisfaction was included because of the established evidence of its negative relationship with turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors. Improving job satisfaction can diminish the negative effects caused by electronic monitoring. The third mediator included is employee

engagement, which is also negatively related to both dependent variables. The job demands and resources view of employee engagement is of interest as these factors can help mitigate the harmful impact of electronic monitoring.

The second research question pertains to the moderating effect of the perceived purpose between electronic monitoring and the mediating variables. It is the conjecture of this paper that the relationship between electronic monitoring and each of the mediating variables, motivation, job satisfaction, and employee engagement, will be more negative when perceived to be controlling and less negative when seen as developmental.

Controls in this study include demographic factors, as differences have been identified previously with counterproductive work behaviors for gender and age (Lau et al., 2003). Caring responsibilities, such as the presence of young children or infirmed parents, have impacted remote workers' well-being. Remote work experience will be controlled as those with less experience might be adjusting to the new arrangement, while job tenure will be included as the learning curve of a new job, its responsibilities, and other organizational and relationship dynamics might influence adjustment.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 Research Model

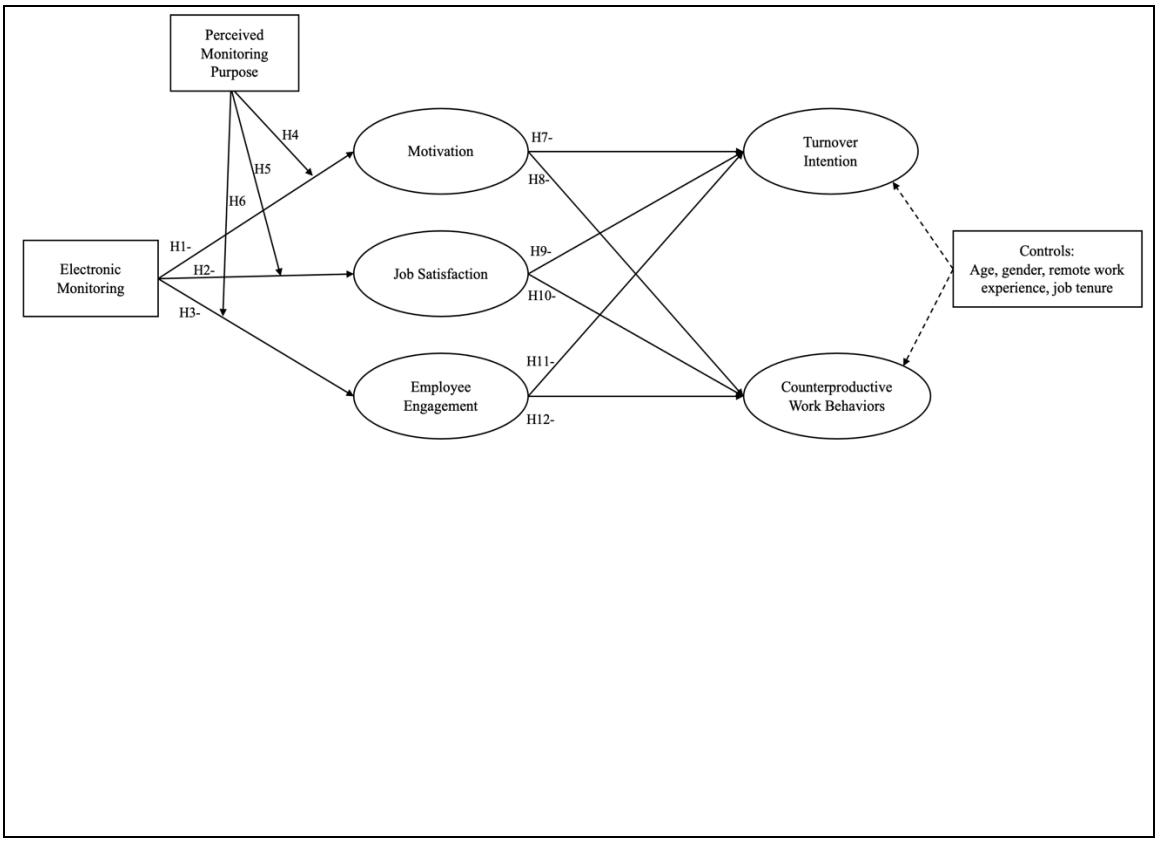

Table 1 Construct Definitions

Construct	Definition	Source
Self-Determination Theory	Self-determination theory posits that individuals possess an innate psychological need for control and volition (autonomy), the need to feel effective (competency), and the need for social connection (relatedness). The theory posits that individuals are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation (IM) when these needs are satisfied	Deci & Ryan, 1985
Electronic Monitoring	Electronic monitoring refers to various systems or tools that are used to collect, store, analyze, and report the behaviors or performance of employees	McNall & Roach, 2009
Perceived Monitoring Purpose	Perceived monitoring purpose refers to the intentions or objectives of the surveillant and is the motivating factor behind the use of electronic monitoring	Ravid et al., 2019
Motivation	Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviors and active engagement with tasks that individuals find interesting in and of themselves without separate rewards or consequences.	Deci & Ryan, 2000
Job Satisfaction	Job satisfaction represents a feeling due to the perception that the job enables their material and psychological needs	Aziri, 2008
Employee Engagement	Employee engagement is harnessing peoples' selves to their work, such that they fully invest their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources in the work roles	Kahn, 1990
Turnover Intention	Turnover intention is the likelihood or extent of an employee leaving their current organization	Dwivedi, 2015
Counterproductive Work Behaviors	Counterproductive work behaviors are any volitional acts that harm or potentially violate an organization's or its stakeholders' interests	Sackett & DeVore, 2002

Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

Hypotheses:

Electronic Monitoring's Effect on Motivation

The proliferation of technology has revolutionized how organizations operate, including increased opportunities for employees to work remotely. As a result of a more dispersed workforce, management has sought new ways to oversee productivity, ensure compliance, and secure institutional interests through various electronic monitoring systems. While advantages such as higher accountability and improved performance are stressed by proponents, concerns about the impact on employee motivation and the ultimate effects on work outcomes must also be addressed.

Electronic monitoring encompasses a range of tools that allow employers to surveil workers' activities. An early study by Nebeker & Tatum (1993) defined it as "the use of electronic instruments or devices such as audio, video, and computer systems to collect, store, analyze, and report individual or group actions or performance." Technological advances have greatly changed how monitoring can be accomplished and now provide the opportunity for continuous observations without surveillants' knowledge or consent. While the insights from electronic monitoring can provide significant amounts of performance data, there may be repercussions on employee motivation. As motivation has been linked to many work outcomes, it is imperative that organizations consider the effects of electronic monitoring on motivation.

Previous research provides evidence of the negative effects of electronic monitoring on employees, with critics citing the intrusive nature of monitoring non-work-related activities violating privacy (Ambrose et al., 1998). More recent studies point to

increased presenteeism (Sinclair et al., 2020), fear of punitive consequences, increased stress and emotional exhaustion, and higher tension and anxiety (Indiparambil, 2019). Remote work typically has been associated with increased levels of freedom and discretion because of the physical and psychological distance from direct observation by supervisors (Dubrin, 1991). One of the primary benefits of remote work is an increased perception of autonomy and the control that it provides individuals (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007) through scheduling and other work means.

Self-determination theory explains that intrinsic motivation is characterized by the drive to satisfy the needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and that the more internalized the motivation, the more favorable the outcomes (Gagne et al., 2022). Negative influences and perceptions of electronic monitoring for remote workers threaten the benefits of intrinsic motivation. The monitoring and quantifying of employee behaviors have been shown to reduce worker autonomy (Hayes & Moore, 2016). Feelings of trust and autonomous control over decisions are reduced as levels of monitoring increase (Bernstrom & Svare, 2017), while decreased feelings of autonomy also lead to increased stress levels and health problems (Aiello & Svec, 1993; Carayon, 1993). Highly controlled strategies that regulate individuals' actions also threaten intrinsic motivation. Overly monitored processes, externally imposed deadlines, and tightly constrained work designs drive employees to focus on measured aspects, thereby reducing their level of competence (Gagne et al., 2022). Threats to relatedness can also occur by discouraging informal chats and conversations with co-workers for fear that they are being monitored or that workers are being unproductive (Gagne et al., 2022). Also, research has found that team cohesion and collaboration decrease when employees

are monitored individually rather than measuring group contributions, which can result in conflicts between employees (Jeske, 2022). Surveillance has been shown to affect intrinsic motivation negatively (Enzle & Anderson, 1993); therefore, I propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Electronic monitoring will have a negative effect on motivation.

Electronic Monitoring's Effect on Job Satisfaction

As previously stated, job satisfaction is one of the most highly influential constructs to be studied in attitudinal literature (Judge et al., 2017), and it describes an individual's level of contentedness with different facets of, or the whole, of their job (Neuberger et al., 1978). Consistently, it is associated with outcomes of interest for organizations, including turnover intention, counterproductive work behaviors, performance, and profitability (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012) and, therefore, a highly relevant variable to examine for the effect of electronic monitoring.

Research has established that the introduction of electronic monitoring lowered task satisfaction while increasing stress (Aiello & Svec, 1993). Various other empirical studies have found a negative relationship between electronic monitoring and job satisfaction (Ravid et al., 2019). Different justifications have been argued to explain this relationship, with Holman et al. (2002) proposing that work pressure from increased stress caused by monitoring will lower job satisfaction, while Parker (2014) attributes the reduction in satisfaction to work designs and procedures that offer less variety and complexity.

While different theoretical interpretations have been applied to explain the effects, this study will explore the relation through the lens of self-determination theory. A meta-

analysis of 99 workforce studies confirmed that job satisfaction was positively associated with autonomy, competence, and relatedness, the three psychological needs of self-determination theory (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Previous research has found that the satisfaction of the needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness is associated with positive work-related outcomes, one of which is increased job satisfaction (Dreison et al., 2018; Olafsen et al., 2016). Specifically, Hood & Patton (2021) found that greater perceived autonomy for healthcare workers predicted higher job satisfaction. They also argued that facilitating worker involvement improved employee relatedness; another self-determination theory need that predicted job satisfaction (Hood & Patton., 2021).

Perception of control is essential to intrinsic motivation and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Having more perceived control over one's performance and work environment is related to competence and associated with higher job satisfaction, and performance monitoring threatens to reduce workers' control ability. Greenberger and Strasser's (1986) model demonstrated the correlation between greater personal control and greater satisfaction. Studies have shown that workers under the surveillance of electronic monitoring tend to complain about the restricted choice between work rate and work accuracy and quality (DiTecco et al., 1992; Smith et al., 1992), thus thwarting their need for competence.

Because of the perception of reduced autonomy, competence, and relatedness that was previously established with remote work, I offer the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Electronic monitoring will have a negative effect on job satisfaction.

Electronic Monitoring's Effect on Employee Engagement

Employee engagement continues to be a construct of interest to both the academic and practitioner realms because of its significant relevance to organizational interest and outcomes. Engaged employees tend to contribute more to organizational productivity, support higher commitment levels, customer satisfaction, and profitability (Mehta & Mehta, 2013)

Positive relationships between employee engagement and performance have been identified in various occupations, with Bakker and Bal (2010) finding that engagement predicted teacher performance. Additional studies have found positive relationships associated with employee engagement for firefighters (Rich, Lepine, Crawford, 2010) and flight attendants (Xanthopoulou, Baker, Heuven, Demerouti, and Schaufeli, 2008). One study of 65 organizations from various occupational fields demonstrated that the top 25% on an engagement index had a greater return on assets (ROA), profitability, and more than double the shareholder value than the bottom 25% (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, and Young, 2009).

How work systems are designed significantly impacts the employee experience, including performance, motivation, belongingness, and engagement (Tomczak et al., 2018; Koekemoer et al., 2021). The design and use of electronic monitoring have been found to have detrimental effects on employee engagement. One study found that employees who were required to have a video camera on during meetings experienced higher levels of daily fatigue and lower engagement levels than those who did not use a camera (Shockley et al., 2021). Organizations and leaders that foster supportive work environments typically show concern for employees' needs satisfaction by providing feedback, encouraging voice, and developing new skills (Deci & Ryan, 1987). Through

the lens of self-determination theory, one can examine the impact on employee engagement.

One study found that employees who are self-determined with a sense of regulating their own actions are more likely to engage at work (Edmondson, 1999), while others suggested that strengthening employee voice, the ability for employees to have input into decisions, was associated with engagement and performance (Truss et al., 2006). This ability of employees to make decisions that impact their performance and work-life quality (autonomy) will lead to higher levels of engagement (Lawler and Worley, 2006). Related to autonomy, studies have also found that involvement in decisions affecting the job or work (competence) was strongly associated with employee engagement (Purcell et al., 2003) and employee's degree of choice and discretion over how they perform their tasks and responsibilities. Furthermore, research has found that perceptions of being valued and involved, two-way communication, and high levels of cooperation (relatedness) were all closely linked to employee engagement (Kular et al., 2008). Research has determined that employee engagement is directly related to the relationship one has with one's manager and that disengagement is related to poor management (Kular et al., 2008). In general, job resources, including autonomy, job control, and supportive work relationships, are positively related to employee engagement (Bakker et al., 2010; Bakker et al., 2007).

As a result of the perception of reduced autonomy, competence, and relatedness previously established with remote work, I offer the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: Electronic monitoring will have a negative effect on employee engagement.

Perceived Monitoring Purposes' Effect on Electronic Monitoring and Motivation

While this paper contends that electronic monitoring negatively influences attitudinal variables, most research agrees that technology, in and of itself, is relatively objective and neutral (Alder & Tompkins, 1997), and what is relative is how the system is designed and used (Ambrose & Alder, 2000). Under the framework offered by Ravid et al. (2019), an organizational purpose for electronic monitoring can be subdivided into the four characteristics of: *performance*, *administrative*, *surveillance*, and *development*. However, despite any considerations offered by institutions for their intentions, what is most impactful is the perception of purpose from the employee's perspective. Is electronic surveillance beneficial for individuals and their growth and development, or is the intervention intended to control employees to secure the organization's interests?

Research has demonstrated that respondents agree that when used properly, monitoring is a good tool, and responses will differ depending on its use to provide developmental feedback or control employees (Chalykoff & Kochan, 1989). Ambrose and Alder (2000) argued that whether electronic monitoring's feedback was used for developmental or evaluative purposes would influence perceptions of procedural justice, while other studies have shown that individuals reported less anxiety and a more positive experience with monitoring when it was used for their benefit instead of attempting to identify poor performance (Aiello & Shao, 1993). McNall and Roch (2009) claim that their study supports the notion that employees reported positive outcomes such as fairer treatment and higher organizational commitment and felt obligation to reciprocate when monitoring was perceived to improve their performance in contrast to trying to catch misbehavior. Additionally, Wells, Moorman, and Werner (2007) also reported support for

their hypotheses that suggested a positive and significant relationship between a perceived developmental purpose and positive job attitudes. Results from their statistical analysis confirmed that when employees perceived monitoring to improve their performance, they saw it as fair and reported higher job satisfaction, commitment, and felt obligation.

Previous research also supports the outcome of motivation. Enzle and Anderson (1993) found greater measures of intrinsic motivation when monitoring intentions were non-controlling. Their study drew from Deci and Ryan (1987) and claimed that the evidence clearly demonstrated that surveillance that is perceived as arising from controlling intentions would undermine intrinsic motivation, whereas perceived non-controlling intentions will maintain intrinsic motivation (Enzle & Anderson, 1993). They argue that under the premise of cognitive evaluation theory, a mini theory of self-determination theory, surveillance undermines intrinsic motivation because of its extrinsic attempt to control behaviors.

Rather than the act of surveillance itself, the effects on intrinsic motivation depend on the purpose of the monitoring. When perceived to reflect controlling purposes in the organization's interests, those whose behaviors are being examined experience threats to their personal autonomy, resulting in decreased intrinsic motivation (Enzle & Anderson, 1993). As a result of the influence of the perception of intentions of monitoring on motivation, I offer the following hypothesis.

> *Hypothesis 4:* The relationship between electronic monitoring and motivation will be more negative when the perceived monitoring purpose is controlling and less negative when developmental.

Perceived Monitoring Purposes' Effect on Electronic Monitoring and Job Satisfaction

Consistent with previously stated findings on electronic monitoring, what is most influential is not the technology itself but rather how surveillance is used in practice, which has been found to have significant effects on general attitudes. Studies have established that electronic monitoring increases well-being, performance, and job satisfaction when used in a developmental and supportive manner (Ravid et al., 2019; Wells et al., 2007).

Research on employee performance appraisals discovered that perceptions of their developmental use were positively related to overall job satisfaction (Ellickson, 2002; Keeping & Levy, 2000), and when feedback was perceived as negative, job satisfaction levels dropped significantly (Pearce & Porter, 1986). These results inspired empirical research by Wells et al. (2007), who established that when perceptions of electronic monitoring's purpose were to develop skills and performance in the employee's interest, results were positively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Conversely, they identified that individuals reported lower job satisfaction if the perception of monitoring is to control and regulate behaviors.

In another study, Stanton (2000) argued that the perceived relevance of electronic monitoring ultimately influenced employee satisfaction, while Alder & Ambrose (2005) established evidence that the perceived fairness of electronic monitoring was associated with higher satisfaction. These findings influenced research on software professionals' job satisfaction and found that it was positively correlated with their perception of the relevance of electronic monitoring at work (Samaranayake & Gamage, 2012). When software professionals perceived that surveillance was implemented to augment their

work quality, an individual benefit as opposed to organizational control, monitoring did not negatively impact job satisfaction. Findings from Meyers (2003) claim that unacceptable levels of surveillance impacted employee perceptions of control by the organization, resulting in decreased job satisfaction.

Cognitive evaluation theory asserts that individuals experience confidence and self-determination due to a perceived internal locus of control (Deci et al., 1975). I offer the following hypothesis because of the effect of the perception of control purpose on electronic monitoring and job satisfaction.

> *Hypothesis 5:* The relationship between electronic monitoring and job satisfaction will be more negative when the perceived monitoring purpose is controlling and less negative when developmental.

Perceived Monitoring Purposes' Effect on Electronic Monitoring and Employee Engagement

How work is designed significantly shapes employee experiences and important work outcomes, including motivation, belongingness, and employee engagement (Tomczak et al., 2018; Koekemoer et al., 2021). Therefore, factors shaping employee experiences must be considered when organizations implement remote workers' monitoring systems (Jamal et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Despite any understanding of incorporating aspects of flexibility, autonomy, or control into jobs, these aspects need to be considered regarding remote work design. Moreover, while employers may consider these and other employee empowerment factors, as previously stated, the perception and meaningfulness attributed by individual workers truly shape impressions and feelings toward electronic monitoring systems.

One study by Huczynski and Buchanan (2004) referred to perception as a dynamic psychological process that affects how individuals organize and interpret experiences and is essential in influencing an individual's behavior. Kahn's (1990) position was people would engage differently based on the psychological meaningfulness (purpose) they attributed to given experiences, while Rothbard (2001) argued that individuals interpret events and situations shaped by their frame of reference, reflecting their experiences, expectations, and needs to be satisfied. Other research has emphasized the importance of emotions and employee engagement, noting that emotional responses are part of our psychological condition that motivates our behaviors and contributes to our reality (Kular et al., 2008).

A literature review explains that research found key drivers of engagement were closely linked to employees' feelings and perceptions of being valued and involved, in addition to effective leadership and communication, cooperation, and personal development (May et al., 2004). Further promotion of these findings include research from Connell and Ryan (1989) that found when organizational leaders were trained to understand the perspectives of their subordinates through encouragement, developmental feedback, and support, in contrast to more controlling approaches, employees exhibited more positive work attitudes. Conversely, May et al. (2004) argued that employee perceptions of safety were found to be a psychological condition affecting their engagement, and high levels of management control impeded these perceptions. Supporting employees' perspectives through non-controlling means, offering choice, and encouraging self-initiation were associated with various positive work-related attitudes rather than regulating and pressuring subordinate behaviors (Deci et al., 1989).

Self-determination theory is an effective lens for evaluating the impact of perception of purpose between electronic monitoring and employee engagement. This psychological approach posits that individuals have an innate drive to satisfy the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and when fulfilled, individuals are more likely to exhibit motivation and enthusiasm (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Autonomy refers to the extent to which employees feel they have control over their work-related decisions and actions, and when afforded the opportunity to make decisions, choose methods, and exercise control, they are likelier to experience elevated levels of engagement. Edmondson (1999) stated that self-determined employees experience a sense of choice in regulating their actions, resulting in an increased likelihood to engage more fully. In a meta-analysis by Brown (1996), employee engagement was associated with the satisfaction of the need for autonomy, which has been supported by subsequent research (Baard, Deci & Ryan, 2004). In contrast, a study by Kakabadse (1986) examined the effects of a controlling, centralized organizational structure, which resulted in employees' feelings or perceptions of powerlessness. Ashforth (1989) defined powerlessness as a lack of autonomy and participation and found it resulted in negative attitudes.

Competence refers to an individual's perception of their ability to perform tasks and meet challenges successfully. Deci and Ryan (2000) demonstrated that when employees possess the skills, resources, and training necessary for their jobs, their perceptions of competence increase, leading to greater engagement. Organizations can foster these perceptions through employee development and constructive feedback. A global workforce study from Towers Perrin (2003) found that having a sense of personal accomplishment from one's job was a core component of engagement, while feelings of

overwhelming workloads and a lack of developmental opportunities had a negative impact on perceptions of self-competence. Locke and Taylor (1991) found that differences in skills and abilities were related to employee engagement levels.

Relatedness pertains to the sense of belongingness and connection with others in the work environment. Positive interpersonal relationships, effective communication, and supportive social interactions contributed to relatedness satisfaction and impacted employee engagement (Deci et al., 2017). Employees who perceive a sense of value, support, and connectedness to their coworkers are more likely to be engaged. When work relationships are perceived to be meaningful, they have been found to impact engagement (May et al., 2004). Locke and Taylor (1991) also argued that individuals who had rewarding interpersonal interactions with coworkers experienced greater perceived meaning or engagement at work.

Overall, work environments, managerial systems, and designs that support employee development rather than exerting organizational control promote the satisfaction of needs and positive work attributes. Therefore, I offer the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 6:* The relationship between electronic monitoring and employee engagement will be more negative when the perceived monitoring purpose is controlling and less negative when developmental.

Intrinsic Motivation and Turnover Intention

Turnover intention represents an employee's propensity to leave their workplace, and it is frequently applied to research studying actual turnover. Because of the challenges of examining actual turnover results along with possible privacy concerns,

turnover intention is a more practical construct to explore. Additionally, as one objective of this study is to determine factors that can prevent employee turnover, understanding the factors associated with its intention is highly relevant. Prior research has established turnover intention is a reliable surrogate for actual turnover results (Bothma & Roodt, 2013) and that both are positively correlated with the turnover intention scale (TIS-6) (Steensma et al., 2003; Muliawan et al., 2009).

Employee turnover is an important outcome variable to study because high rates can have substantial negative repercussions for organizations. Researchers have argued that turnover can have costly detrimental effects on organizational profitability if not managed effectively (Hogan, 1992; Wasmuth & Davis, 1983). Previous studies have established that employee turnover is expensive for organizations, and voluntary resignations represent a loss of human capital investment and are associated with varied replacement costs (Ongori, 2007). Both visible and invisible costs are associated, including administrative and training time, annual leave payouts, COBRA, and unemployment payments (Alkahtani, 2015), as well as decreased customer service and satisfaction (Ongori, 2007), overall lost sales and productivity (Gustafson, 2002) and they all demonstrate the detrimental effects turnover has on organizational productivity.

While turnover refers to the rate at which employees exit the organization, different factors contribute to this outcome, making it necessary to distinguish between involuntary and voluntary loss. Involuntary turnover is when the employer initiates the decision and can result from various issues, including employee performance, organizational costs, or restructuring. Voluntary turnover, conversely, is when the employee decides to end the working relationship and can be further divided into

functional and dysfunctional loss, where functional represents a turnover of low-performing individuals and dysfunction is the loss of high-performers (Griffeth et al., 2000). The loss of this group of individuals can have the biggest detrimental impact on organizations, making it necessary to understand which factors impact their turnover intentions, which are essential for productivity, profitability, and success.

As defined by Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation refers to an individual's inclination to engage in activities due to the inherent enjoyment and satisfaction they derive from the behavior or experience and not because of any external rewards or imposition of controls. Practitioners and researchers recognize the robust and compelling influence intrinsic motivation has on human behavior, making it a central focus on multiple domains of social science, including organizational behavior, education, leadership, healthcare, and psychology.

Early exploration of motivation focused on behaviors with operant conditioning (Skinner, 1938) aimed at understanding how the introduction or removal of rewards and punishments shaped consequences through positive and negative reinforcement. While profoundly influential in expanding our knowledge of motivation, operant conditioning illustrates the potential of extrinsic motivation on behavior and not the underlying psychological needs. Successive approaches focused on fulfilling needs, with Maslow (1943) introducing his hierarchy through which individuals move in consecutive order from the lowest basic physical needs to the pinnacle of self-actualization. Building on this notion, Alderfer (1969) proposed his ERG theory, explaining needs as ranges that could be experienced simultaneously, in contrast to the hierarchy where one could only progress to the next level after successfully satisfying the preceding need. Another

method proposed by McClelland (1961, 1965) is the Manifest Needs theory, which suggests that individuals have a primary need for achievement, affiliation, and power. The distinguishing characteristic here is that achievement motivation needs are socially acquired rather than through the innate psychological drive advanced by intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is autonomous by nature and asserts that the internal psychological needs to be satisfied are autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy refers to the desire for self-determination and control or volition over one's behaviors. Intrinsic motivation is enhanced when individuals are free to choose their activities and discretion to pursue their interests. Competence pertains to the need to feel effective and capable in one's endeavors. When individuals feel that work challenges are appropriate and they experience a sense of mastery, intrinsic motivation is enhanced. Relatedness involves the need for social connections and a sense of belonging. When interactions with co-workers and supervisors are supportive, and individuals experience a sense of relation to others, intrinsic motivation is enhanced. Intrinsic motivation and the satisfaction of the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness have been linked to various positive work outcomes, whereas highly controlled, externally regulated environments have a negative effect (Foss et al., 2009).

Self-determination theory, as the basis for this interpretation of intrinsic motivation, is the ideal theoretical lens through which we should examine the relationship with turnover intention. To support this approach, we examine the extant literature on need satisfaction. We know from prior studies that autonomy-supportive environments enhanced intrinsic motivation for medical students (White, 2006), while another study

established a strong positive correlation with company profitability (Preenen et al., 2016). Autonomy support is also related to turnover intention, with factors such as personal agency, sense of powerlessness, locus of control, and personal control all having measured effects (Firth et al., 2004). Other studies suggest that a lack of employee motivation results from poorly implemented organizational policies and practices, managerial approach, and work placement environment, all contributing to higher labor turnover (Abassi et al., 2000). A literature review by Ongori (2007) found that employee turnover intentions were lower when they were involved in some level of the decision-making process, and when supervisors empowered subordinates by delegating responsibilities, their chances of quitting the organization were minimal (Keller & Dansereau, 1995).

Employees have a strong need to feel effective and capable in the workplace, and threats to that competence also impact turnover intentions. Studies show that when expectations are unclear, information on how to perform the job adequately is insufficient, ambiguity exists on how performance is evaluated, or consensus on job function is obscure, this lack of role clarity accelerates the degree of employees quitting (Guimaraes, 1997). Additionally, employees have a strong need to be informed and connected to others, and organizations with strong communication systems experience lower turnover rates. Given the information above, it is highly plausible to hypothesize that satisfying intrinsic motivation needs will impact turnover intentions; therefore, I offer the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 7: Motivation will have a negative effect on turnover intention.

Motivation and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors represent an expansive array of harmful actions, behaviors, or attitudes on behalf of employees that are directed at various stakeholders, including co-workers, clients, supervisors, or the organization (Sackett & DeVore, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005). Examples of behaviors that can be deemed counterproductive can be grouped by intended target with infractions against colleagues, such as harassment or bullying by engaging in verbal, physical, or psychological abuse, undermining work by deliberately withholding information or resources, or general dishonestly by lying or taking credit for another's work. Violations against customers or clients can range from rudeness or dismissive attitudes to theft or fraud involving customers' information or assets. Offenses against the organization vary from attendance issues with frequent tardiness or absence, misuse of time through loafing, excessive breaks, or engaging in non-work-related activities during hours, and theft or sabotage by stealing supplies, equipment, funds, or damaging property. Other ways in which harm can be experienced is through ethical and legal violations like bribes or embezzlement, in addition to abuse of health and safety by ignoring protocols or engaging in risky behaviors.

While not an exhaustive list, each of the preceding examples illustrates ways in which counterproductive work behaviors can result in harmful and costly offenses for organizations, highlighting the importance of understanding the factors that can contribute to this phenomenon. Recognizing and interpreting the antecedents affecting counterproductive work behaviors will allow leadership to implement preventative measures, thereby protecting stakeholder interests.

The existing research that is aimed at defining and operationalizing this construct offers three frameworks that have had the most influential impact. Bennett and Robinson (2000) proposed the two categories of organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance, with all acts of transgression falling into the sub-sets that either harm the institution or people. This view, considered too broad by its critics, led to the model advanced by Spector et al. (2006) with five dimensions proposed: abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal, all of which still align with the basic behaviors of either organization or individual deviance. A third model by Gruys and Sackett (2003) expanded the construct even further, proposing the eleven subfactors including (1) theft and related behaviors, (2) destruction of property, (3) misuse of information, (4) misuse of time and resources, (5) unsafe behavior, (6) poor attendance, (7) poor-quality work, (8) alcohol use, (9) drug use, (10) inappropriate verbal action, and (11) inappropriate physical action. Each framework offers a different level of detail and demonstrates the lack of a unified definition among researchers.

Despite the absence of a specific interpretation, most research agrees on the two principal categories of predictors: individual differences and situational factors. Under the Five Factor model, personality traits, affectivity, and demographics have been identified as influential predictors. The second category of predictors relates to situational factors and includes employees' perceptions of organizational justice, job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, and situational controls or restraints (Sulea et al., 2010).

One situational factor of interest for organizational leaders is their employee's motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in activities or behaviors because of the inherent interest, enjoyment, or satisfaction rather than due to any external rewards or

controls. Intrinsic motivation is associated with various positive outcomes and has been applied to different industries and fields. The concept originates from the theoretical framework of self-determination theory, which posits that intrinsic motivation is enhanced when three innate psychological needs are satisfied: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Situational factors that satisfy these basic psychological needs contribute to optimal functioning, well-being, and adaptive behaviors, whereas factors that thwart or frustrate need satisfaction will result in unwanted outcomes (Van den Broeck et al., 2014).

The need for autonomy is defined as the inherent desire to feel psychologically free and have authorship over one's actions. It is characterized by a sense of choice and volition. When employees must work under controlling or threatening conditions, the need for autonomy is frustrated. The need for competence refers to the inclination to impact the environment to realize desired outcomes. This need becomes frustrated when employees are unable to change a particular circumstance. The need for relatedness refers to the inherent feeling of having reciprocal relationships and meaningful social interactions, and it can be frustrated when employees are excluded or when contact and exchange are deficient. Studies have found psychological need satisfaction is positively linked with general well-being, organizational commitment, and in-role performance (Van den Broeck et al., 2010), while other studies have found a negative relationship between need satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors and organizational deviance (Lian et al., 2012).

A study by Van den Broeck et al. (2010) examined qualitative job insecurity, which refers to employees' feelings or fears that their work conditions will be

diminished, and applied the lens of self-determination theory. They argued that qualitative insecurity's involuntary and undesired nature would affect employees' sense of choice and volition, reducing their sense of autonomy and increasing counterproductive work behaviors. Second, the lack of self-efficacy associated with qualitative job insecurity would frustrate the need for competence, thereby increasing counterproductive work behaviors. Finally, they argued that qualitative job insecurity would frustrate the need for relatedness through strained relationships with supervisors and coworkers, creating a negative general social atmosphere and increasing counterproductive work behaviors. The results of their empirical testing supported their hypotheses that through need frustration, qualitative job insecurity relates positively to both organizational and individual counterproductive behaviors (Van den Broeck et al., 2014). Because of the relationship identified between the situational factor of qualitative job insecurity, need frustration through the lens of self-determination theory, and the outcome of counterproductive work behaviors, I offer the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 8: Motivation will have a negative effect on counterproductive work behaviors.

Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Employee turnover intention is critical for effective human capital management and overall organizational behavior. Turnover intention refers to an individual's inclination to leave their place of employment and is considered the strongest predictor of actual turnover results (Hom et al., 2017). Furthermore, as intention to leave precedes actual turnover rates, the ability to identify and predict its antecedents is a crucial necessity for organizations to implement any interventions. Negative effects of turnover

include operational and administrative expenses related to the recruitment, hiring, and training of replacements. Reduced productivity, customer service, and sales contribute to profit losses, while the negative impact on morale and increased stress due to workload redistribution also have detrimental repercussions for employers. While all employee loss includes some scope of associated costs, some voluntary turnover is considered functional when low performers choose to self-select and remote themselves, providing opportunities to upgrade institutional knowledge, skills, and abilities. Turnover is considered dysfunctional when valued, productive employees leave and avoidable when organizational intervention could prevent such loss (Taylor, 2005; Wynen et al., 2019).

One factor for leadership to consider in preventing avoidable, dysfunctional turnover is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been applied to various fields, including human resources, management and leadership, psychology, and organizational behavior, and relationships have been established with various organizational interests, including turnover (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Like other attitudinal constructs, the way in which we view, interpret, and apply job satisfaction has been shaped by prevailing perspectives over time, offering various definitions. A broad definition proposed by Hoppock (1935) considered any declaration of satisfaction, whether environmental, physical, or psychological, while others have considered the extent to which rewards are met. Focus has oscillated between such factors as feelings and emotions, personality and demographics, organizational structure, and actions and behaviors. Herzberg introduced the Two-Factor theory, suggesting two separate dimensions where hygiene factors related to pay, security, policies, supervision, and work conditions, while motivators included achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and growth. This current study

applies the definition proposed by Aziri (2008), which is that job satisfaction represents a feeling due to the perception that the job enables material and psychological needs.

Defining job satisfaction in terms of psychological needs allows us to apply the self-determination theory to explore the relationship with turnover intention. Deci and Ryan (2000), through the mini theory of Organismic Integration Theory, focused on needs as innate organismic necessities that were essential for psychological growth and well-being and that human behavior is actively inclined toward exercising capabilities, engaging in interesting activities, and integrating into larger social structures, otherwise autonomy, competence, and relatedness. One study investigated the impact of self-determination theory needs satisfaction and found that greater perceived autonomy and relatedness predicted higher job satisfaction and, subsequently, lower turnover intention (Hood & Patton, 2021). Another study showed that employees' job autonomy was related to more work satisfaction and, in turn, lower turnover intentions (Richer et al., 2002). A study by Hay (2002) identified employee learning and development as related to job satisfaction and as the foremost reason for people to stay in organizations. Wright et al. (1992) found that satisfaction with meaningful work and promotion opportunities significantly predicted turnover intention. A meta-analysis found that among various other job attitudinal measures, work satisfaction displayed the highest relationship to turnover (Griffeth, Hom, Gaertner, 2000), which has been empirically supported as the main predictor by other researchers as well (Larrabee et al., 2003).

Autonomy-supportive work environments that encourage self-initiation and acknowledge perspectives, provide clear expectations and constructive feedback, offer opportunities for development and advancement, and foster trusting relationships are

related to psychological satisfaction and positive work outcomes; therefore, I offer the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 9: Job satisfaction will have a negative effect on turnover intention.

Job Satisfaction and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors, defined as volitional acts by employees that harm or intent to harm organizations and their stakeholders (Sackett & DeVore, 2001), broadly include various acts such as theft, sabotage, violence, absenteeism, loafing, harassment, and bullying. These behaviors share characteristics with other constructs in the literature, such as workplace aggression, antisocial behavior, employee deviance, and organizational misbehavior (Sulea et al., 2010). Organizations and researchers have focused more attention on this area because of the potential for significant damage that can be inflicted by these actions. Detrimental consequences can include direct and indirect financial losses through theft, property damage, lost sales, or decreased productivity (Hollinger & Clark, 1982). Brand and reputational damage can harm an organization's image through abuse or mistreatment of customers or employees, poor service, and legal or ethical violations (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Decreased well-being is associated with increased stress, low satisfaction, and negative health impacts (Bowling & Beehr, 2006), all negatively affecting organizational profitability, emphasizing the need to understand contributing factors to counterproductive work behaviors.

A prevalent position among researchers holds that antecedents fall into two distinct categories. Individual factors include personality traits such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism, which are highly correlated with counterproductive

work behaviors, and cognitive factors such as moral reasoning (Sulea et al., 2010). The second category of situational factors includes an organization's climate and culture and job-related factors, including perceived organizational justice, job satisfaction, and role ambiguity (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

The situational factor of job satisfaction is among the most influential and highly studied job attitudinal constructs in organizational behavior research (Judge et al., 2017). Broadly defined as an employee's overall attitude toward their job, it encompasses an individual's emotional and cognitive evaluation of their job and can apply to the overall job or certain aspects (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction has been linked to various work outcomes with positive relationships found with performance and productivity (Judge et al. 2001), organizational commitment and intention to stay, as well as health and well-being through reduced stress and burnout (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005) making it crucial for leadership to understand its impacts.

Different determinants have been studied to explain job satisfaction with the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), highlighting the core characteristics of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback as leading to psychological states affecting job satisfaction. Social factors, including an employee's relationship with their colleagues and supervisors, play a critical role in job satisfaction (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Organizational factors such as opportunities for professional growth and perceived organizational justice influence job satisfaction (Denison et al., 2004), while individual factors that include personal values and fulfillment of needs influence job satisfaction (McClelland, 1985).

Because of its focus on satisfying the innate psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, self-determination theory is an effective perspective to apply in understanding the relationship between job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors. Each of the determinants stated above relates to the satisfaction of needs for self-determination. The job characteristics model highlights autonomy, which is the same need as self-determination theory. Feedback is directly associated with the need for relatedness with one's supervisor and the need for competence to grow, while the dimensions of task significance, identity, and variety are aligned with the need for competence. The organizational factors of justice and the need for growth are associated with the need for competence, while the social factors of quality interactions with co-workers and supervisors are directly associated with the need for relatedness.

Previous research has found that situational predictors of counterproductive work behaviors include perceptions of organizational justice and job satisfaction (Dalal, 2005), as well as poor relationships with one's supervisor, co-workers, and organizational controls and constraints (Herschovis et al., 2007), demonstrating the relationships with relatedness and autonomy. Other studies established that job satisfaction is correlated with counterproductive work behaviors (Penney & Spector, 2002; Fox & Spector, 1999), and a meta-analysis on workplace aggression and absenteeism found a correlation between job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors. Because of the relationship identified between the situational factor of job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors, I offer the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 10: Job satisfaction will have a negative effect on counterproductive work behaviors.

Employee Engagement and Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is a critical outcome for organizations and researchers to understand because of its ability to predict actual employee turnover accurately (Hom et al., 2017). Actual employee turnover incurs many costs for organizations, including visible and direct expenses associated with the advertisement of job listings and salaries and resources diverted to the onboarding process, in addition to invisible and indirect costs such as stress and pressure on those who remain, damaged company reputation and decreased productivity and engagement. Some employee turnover is beneficial when those who are exiting can be replaced with people who can add value and strategic advantage to the organization regarding the experience, knowledge, and skills they bring. This form of turnover is considered functional. Conversely, when a highly skilled and productive individual voluntarily leaves the organization, this is considered dysfunctional, as it is often difficult and expensive to replace top performers' experience, abilities, and resources. Furthermore, losing highly influential top performers harms morale and can lead others to question their intentions. While circumstances for such top performers leaving can be beyond the organization's control, avoidable turnover is within management's capacity and best interest to intervene. One facet related to avoidable turnover is employee engagement.

Employee engagement is a multifaceted construct that has been defined in different ways. Kahn (1990) described the concept as harnessing people’s selves to their work so that they were fully invested in their work roles. Erickson (2005) proposed engagement as a psychological state characterized by passion, commitment, and willingness to invest one’s discretionary effort. As with other attitudinal work constructs,

engagement's definition and operationalization have emphasized different emotional, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions, depending on the contemporary paradigm of a given time and setting.

Early research suggested that employee engagement was the antithesis of burnout and could be assessed using the inverse results of the Maslach-Burnout Inventory (MBI) measuring for exhaustion, cynicism, and efficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). A second framework building on this concept proposed that engagement was composed of the facets of vigor, characterized by high levels of energy, dedication, or a strong involvement in one's work, and absorption, being fully concentrated and engrossed in work (Schaufeli et al., 2001). A third model was advanced, grounded in the belief of job demands and job resources. Job demands refer to various physical, psychological, or emotional aspects that lead to burnout, including work overload, job insecurity, task ambiguity, and conflict. Job resources, however, refer to the physical, psychological, or emotional aspects that support work objectives, growth and development, social support, feedback, participative decision-making, and role clarity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) embraces the view that autonomy-supportive approaches that reinforce the needs for decision-making and control, self-efficacy and expectation clarity, social support and feedback, and developmental growth opportunities will result in positive work outcomes, including engaged employees and reduced turnover intentions. A literature review on employee turnover determined that employee engagement hinges on work design, employee effectiveness, and management's commitment and support toward employees (Ongori, 2007). Other studies have identified that the extent of job involvement, which is related to

engagement's facet of absorption, was found to be negatively related to turnover intention (Brooke et al., 1988). Robinson (2006) stated that employee engagement can be achieved through the creation of a supportive work environment that promotes involvement and encouragement, which results in lower employee turnover, while Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that engaged employees are more likely to have greater organizational attachments and a lower tendency to quit. Each of these examples is related to the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, as detailed in self-determination theory. I therefore offer the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 11: Employee engagement will have a negative effect on turnover intention.

Employee Engagement and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Practitioners and academics recognize that various behaviors impact organizations' effectiveness, productivity, and profitability. While the contemporary trend of positive psychology directs us toward focusing on behaviors that align with organizational goals and constructive outcomes, we must balance our attention with the factors that obstruct or hamper productivity and undermine institutional objectives. These actions are known as counterproductive work behaviors and are essential to understand in order to protect business interests.

Counterproductive work behaviors are any intentional actions taken by employees that prevent or negate the interests of the organization or its stakeholders and can range from subtle acts like tardiness or absenteeism to more severe transgressions such as violence or theft. Counterproductive work behaviors are a critical concern for leadership because they result in serious financial costs and lost productivity, decreased employee

morale and commitment, as well as compromised brand reputation and increased legal exposure and liability. Individual personality factors such as trait anger and high emotionality have consistently been associated with an increased propensity for counterproductive work behaviors (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), while situation factors such as lack of role clarity and perceived unfair treatment may also result in retaliation and other counterproductive work behaviors (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

Employee engagement refers to employees' emotional commitment and involvement in their work, resulting in more positive outcomes. According to Kahn (1990), engaged employees were those who exhibited physical, cognitive, and emotional connections with their roles, while Schaufeli et al. (2002) refined the definition to emphasize a positive, fulfilling, work-related state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Engaged employees are enthusiastic and passionate about their work.

A third framework grounded in job demands and job resources argues that high demands lead to exhaustion and burnout, while low resources contribute to disengagement and withdrawal behaviors, all sub-facets of counterproductive work behaviors. Saks and Gruman (2014) state that job resources are the physical, psychological, or emotional elements that support goals and promote development, social support, participation, and career opportunities, while job demands increase stress, work overload, insecurity, ambiguity, and conflict. The concept of employee engagement as a psychological state with demands and resources working to frustrate or satisfy needs aligns with the core principles of self-determination theory and the innate psychological needs to satisfy autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

One study from Maslach et al. (2001) identified six engagement-related areas. They argued that engagement is associated with a sustainable workload and meaningful, valued work, both relating to the need for competence. Additionally, feelings of choice and control, fairness, and justice are associated with the need for autonomy, while the need for relatedness reflects recognition and a supportive work community. A study by Holbeche and Springett (2003) argues that high engagement levels can only be achieved through a shared sense of purpose that connects people and raises personal aspirations, which fit with the needs for relatedness and competence, respectively (Kular et al. 2008).

In further support for the need for autonomy, Lawler and Worley (2006) argued that for employee engagement, employees must be given power and the ability to make decisions that are relevant to their performance and involvement in a practice related to their work. Locke and Taylor (1991) identified the need for relatedness as increasing meaning in employees' work, resulting in higher engagement, while Truss et al. (2006) emphasized the relationship between employee engagement and an individual's skills and abilities, also connected to the need for competence.

Employee engagement is associated with positive outcomes, including increased well-being and lower burnout (Hakanen et al., 2006), higher organizational commitment and health outcomes (Halbesleben, 2010), and increased felt obligation to reciprocate (Wells et al., 2007); therefore, I offer the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 12: Employee engagement will have a negative effect on counterproductive work behaviors.

CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants and Procedure

This study was conducted using an electronic survey created on Qualtrics software and administered through Connect Cloud Research. Measuring instruments were validated through multiple pilot tests and incorporated a combination of unique questions and existing psychometric instruments. The final study used convenience samples from Connect Cloud Research. The unit of analysis for this research is individuals who perform knowledge-based office duties within the United States, are over the age of 18 years, work full-time for their organizations, and have been employed at their current job for at least one year. Additionally, participants had to be fully remote and under the surveillance of at least one form of electronic monitoring. These parameters were selected because of the contemporary issues involving employees' demands to work remotely and employers' efforts to maintain productivity. The boundary condition of selecting employees from the United States was to control for different cultural beliefs toward independence, personal privacy, and approach toward authority figures.

Research Design

The survey was formed by drawing from existing validated instruments created to measure the various constructs of interest and three original questions developed for this study. A comprehensive process was implemented to ensure the appropriateness of each of the final questions selected for the survey, including pilot testing and exploratory factor analysis (EFA), described in more detail below. The Qualtrics survey began with

participation consent and five qualifying questions to determine eligibility. Next, multiple questions addressed each of the variables of interest, followed by a set of demographic questions for descriptive statistics. Three attention check questions were also included to help ensure data quality and participant reliability.

Informed Pilot Testing

For the informed pilot, a non-probability convenience sample was selected from professional and personal contacts I have maintained with individuals familiar with remote work. A cover letter and instructions, including a summary of the research, an overview of the study, definitions for each of the constructs, the research model with an explanation of the context, and instructions with potential evaluation concerns were sent to these individuals along with a list of questions for each construct. A total of ten individuals were asked to provide feedback on the informed pilot, of which all participated. The informed pilot cohort consisted of five males and five females, aged between 44 and 60 years. Formal education among the group varied, with three having high-school diplomas, four having bachelor's degrees, and three with master's degrees. Members' occupational experiences included office managers and administrative roles, telecommunications, nursing, teaching, retail management, and two entrepreneurs. Feedback given revolved around understanding the meaning of some of the constructs, such as clarifying electronic monitoring intensity versus frequency and purpose. There was a comment about which scales would be used for each question, as those were not initially shared with the group. Respondents agreed that the questions all made sense at face value and appeared to measure their intended purpose clearly.

Pilot Testing

To ensure the feasibility of the research design and validity of the measurement instruments, a pilot study was conducted using Qualtrics software and launched on the Connect Cloud Research platform. The objective of the pilot test was to identify any possible issues with the questions selected, such as ambiguous meaning, multiple interpretations, or correlations with other constructs. The aim was to identify the strongest indicators to measure each variable. A second intent of the pilot test was to confirm participant variability. The study needed to include a wide selection of individuals representative of the target population to ensure generalizability. To pre-qualify for participation, demographic targeting parameters were set for potential participants, including organizational tenure of at least one year and a full-time remote work arrangement for at least one year. A third qualifying factor was that, at a minimum, participants had to be monitored by at least one form of electronic surveillance. A total of 167 people filled out the survey; however, 40 were removed because they were not, to their knowledge, electronically monitored by their employers, bringing the total to 127 participants. Adding this qualifying question to the description before individuals could begin the survey was the first change made to the main study.

Individual ages ranged from 23 to 70, with the single greatest number of people, ten (10), reporting an age of 28, followed by eight (8) people reporting an age of 29. Those who are in the generational cohort of Generation Y, colloquially known as Millennials, comprised the greatest number of participants at 83 or 65.4%, with 47 (37.0%) from late Gen Y and 36 (28.4%) from early Gen Y. The next highest participation was from Generation X with a total of 29 (21.3%) individuals, 20 (15.7%)

from late Gen X and 9 (7.1) from early Gen X. The youngest participants totaled 9 (7.1%) as this group is still entering the workforce and many were below participation age. Finally, Baby Boomers comprised the smallest number of participants, with 6 (4.7%) contributors. Of the 127 participants, 63 (49.6%) were male, 61 (48.0%) were female, and 3 (2.4%) identified as non-binary or another gender.

Race and ethnicity identifiers were closely aligned with general U.S. population results as reported by the United States Census Bureau. Participation rates for the pilot compared to Census Bureau reporting are as follows: White 95 (74.8%) compared to 75.5%, Black or African American 17 (13.4%) compared to 13.6%, American Indian or Alaska Native 1 (0.8%) compared to 1.3%, Asian 12 (9.4%) compared to 6.3%, Other 2 (1.6%) compared to 3%, Hispanic or Latino (of any race) 19 (15%) compared to 19.1% (census.gov).

For education, those with a high school diploma comprised 7 (5.5%), some college 25 (19.7%), associate degree 17 (13.4%), bachelor's degree 60 (47.2%), master's or professional 15 (11.8%), and doctoral degree 3 (2.4%). For the number of years working remotely, results were as follows: one to two years 14 (11%), three to four years 68 (53.5%), five to seven years 24 (18.9%), eight to ten years 11 (8.7%), and more than ten years 10 (7.9%). For organizational tenure, those who were with their companies for one to two years were 32 (25.2%), three to four years 16 (12.6%), five to seven years 34 (26.8), eight to ten years 15 (11.8%), and more than ten years 30 (23.6%)

Participation by industry group, from highest rate to lowest, was as follows. Computer, software, and information technology constituted the greatest number at 32 (25.2%); financial, accounting, investments 25 (19.7%); healthcare 12 (9.4%); customer

service, retail sales 12 (9.4%); professional, business services 11 (8.7%); education 10 (7.9%); arts and entertainment 8 (6.3%), communications and media 7 (5.5%); governmental agencies and non-profit 6 (4.7%); construction and engineering 4 (3.2%).

Table 2 Demographic Statistics - Pilot

Generation Cohort	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-27 = Gen Z	9	7.1	7.1	7.1
28-35 = Late Gen Y	47	37.0	37.0	44.1
36-43 = Early Gen Y	36	28.4	28.4	72.5
44-51 = Late Gen X	20	15.7	15.7	88.2
52-59 = Early Gen X	9	7.1	7.1	95.3
60 + = Baby Boomers	6	4.7	4.7	100
Gender Identity	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	63	49.6	49.6	49.6
Female	61	48	48	97.6
Non-binary / binary / another Gender	3	2.4	2.4	100
Total	127	100	100	
Race	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
White	95	74.8	74.8	74.8
Black or African American	17	13.4	13.4	88.2
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	0.8	0.8	89
Asian	12	9.4	9.4	98.4
Other	2	1.6	1.6	100
Total	127	100	100	
Hispanic Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	108	85	85	85
Yes	19	15	15	100
Total	127	100	100	
Education	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
High school graduate	7	5.5	5.5	5.5
Some college	25	19.7	19.7	25.2
Associate degree	17	13.4	13.4	38.6
Bachelor's degree	60	47.2	47.2	85.8
Master's or Professional degree	15	11.8	11.8	97.6
Doctorate	3	2.4	2.4	100
Total	127	100	100	
Years of Remote Work	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 to 2 years	14	11	11	11
3 to 4 years	68	53.5	53.5	64.6
5 to 7 years	24	18.9	18.9	83.5
8 to 10 years	11	8.7	8.7	92.1

More than 10 years	10	7.9	7.9	100
Total	127	100	100	
Organizational Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 to 2 years	32	25.2	25.2	25.2
3 to 4 years	16	12.6	12.6	37.8
5 to 7 years	34	26.8	26.8	64.6
8 to 10 years	15	11.8	11.8	76.4
More than 10 years	30	23.6	23.6	100
Total	127	100	100	
Industry	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Computer/software/	32	25.2	25.2	25.2
Financial Activities	25	19.7	19.7	44.9
Healthcare	12	9.4	9.4	54.3
Customer Service and Retail	12	9.4	9.4	63.7
Professional and Business Services	11	8.7	8.7	72.4
Education	10	7.9	7.9	80.3
Arts and Entertainment	8	6.3	6.3	86.6
Communications/Media	7	5.5	5.5	92.1
Government	6	4.7	4.7	96.8
Construction and Engineering	4	3.2	3.2	100
Total	127	100	100	100

Utilizing SPSS statistical software, a principal axis factor analysis (FA) was conducted on the 29 items with oblique rotation (direct oblimin). The Kaiser Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .802 ("meritorious" according to Kaiser and Rice, 1974), and all KMO values for individual items were greater than .627, which is above the acceptable limit of .50. An initial analysis was conducted to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Eight factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and, in combination, explained 77.70% of the variance. The scree plot was ambiguous and showed inflections that would justify retaining both seven and eight factors. I retained eight factors because of the large sample size, the convergence of the scree plot, and Kaiser's criterion on this value. The table below shows the factor loadings after rotation. The items that cluster on the same factor

suggest that factor 1 represents turnover intention, factor 2 represents perceived purpose (developmental), factor 3 represents counterproductive work behaviors, factor 4 represents employee engagement, factor 5 represents motivation, factor 6 represents perceived purpose (controlling), factor 7 represents electronic monitoring frequency, and factor 8 represents job satisfaction. The subscales for all constructs had high reliability, with turnover intention, employee engagement, and perceived purpose (controlling) having excellent Cronbach's alpha scores above .92. Perceived purpose (developmental), counterproductive work behaviors, electronic monitoring frequency, and job satisfaction all having good Cronbach's alphas above .82, while motivation had an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of .77.

Table 3 Reliability Statistics

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Turnover Intention	0.927	4
Perceived Purpose (Developmental)	0.867	3
Counterproductive Work Behaviors	0.838	4
Employee Engagement	0.927	5
Motivation	0.765	3
Perceived Purpose (Controlling)	0.918	2
Electronic Monitoring Frequency	0.820	3
Job Satisfaction	0.873	4
KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.802
Approx. Chi-Square		2707.988
df		406
Sig.		<.001

Table 4 Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	8.258	28.476	28.476	8.004	27.601	27.601	5.717
2	4.624	15.944	44.42	4.331	14.933	42.534	3.007
3	2.696	9.297	53.717	2.384	8.22	50.754	2.977
4	1.891	6.52	60.236	1.624	5.599	56.353	5.727
5	1.632	5.627	65.863	1.353	4.666	61.019	3.037
6	1.345	4.637	70.5	1.052	3.628	64.647	2.975
7	1.057	3.645	74.145	0.739	2.547	67.194	3.292
8	1.037	3.576	77.721	0.711	2.451	69.645	5.11
9	0.705	2.431	80.153				
10	0.619	2.134	82.286				
11	0.6	2.069	84.356				
12	0.569	1.961	86.316				
13	0.484	1.668	87.984				
14	0.468	1.614	89.598				
15	0.375	1.293	90.891				
16	0.316	1.091	91.982				
17	0.309	1.066	93.048				
18	0.298	1.027	94.076				
19	0.265	0.913	94.988				
20	0.241	0.832	95.82				
21	0.228	0.787	96.607				
22	0.192	0.662	97.269				
23	0.165	0.567	97.837				
24	0.155	0.534	98.371				
25	0.148	0.51	98.881				
26	0.113	0.388	99.269				
27	0.096	0.331	99.599				
28	0.063	0.218	99.817				
29	0.053	0.183	100				

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
EM_FREQ1 your activities, are monitored by the organization?	4.6	1.335	127
EM_FREQ2 How frequently do you feel electronically monitored during your work hours?	4.79	1.515	127
EM_FREQ3 The organization collects and uses the data it gathers through electronic monitoring?	4.45	1.587	127
PER_PURP1 Please answer each statement below by indicating to help me perform my job better.	3.57	1.837	127
PER_PURP2 to produce examples of correct procedures that can be used to train others.	3.82	1.87	127
PER_PURP3 to point out areas of my performance that need improvement.	4.18	1.97	127
PER_PURP4 to prevent wrongdoing on the part of employees.	5.34	1.449	127
PER_PURP5 to detect possible misconduct or fraud	5.44	1.367	127
PER_PURP6 to discourage employees from doing something wrong.	4.79	1.828	127
AUTO1 I feel like I can make a lot of impact	4.77	1.648	127
AUTO2 I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.	4.96	1.514	127
AUTO4R There is not much opportunity for me	4.6	1.742	127
ENG_VIG1 At my work, I feel bursting with energy	4.11	1.544	127
ENG_VIG2 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	3.9	1.777	127
ENG_DED1 I am enthusiastic about my job	4.39	1.594	127
ENG_DED2 My job inspires me	4.08	1.631	127
ENG_DED3 I am proud of the work that I do	4.94	1.659	127
TURN1 I have already started looking for another job	2.98	2.093	127
TURN2 I am seriously considering leaving this organization	3.11	2.143	127
TURN3 I would leave this organization if a better job opportunity arose.	4.65	2.099	127
TURN4 I am likely to leave this organization within the next year.	3.18	2.021	127
CWB1 Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	3.02	1.657	127
CWB2 Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	3.12	1.665	127
CWB3 Neglected to follow your boss's instruction	1.86	1.037	127
CWB4 Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	2.6	1.555	127
SAT_PAY2 How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?	4.5	1.786	127
SAT_JOB4 Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?	4.98	1.579	127
SAT_REL5 How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work - co-workers or peers?	5.29	1.31	127
SAT_SUP1 How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you - your organizational superior?	5.42	1.561	127

Main Study

Several questions were removed based on the findings and results of the pilot test and exploratory factor analysis. Electronic monitoring frequency, perceived purpose, job satisfaction, engagement, and all motivational questions pertaining to competency were remoted, resulting in a final survey consisting of twenty-nine items measuring the eight latent variables, in addition to the set of qualifying questions and demographic data. Identical to the pilot test, the survey was created on Qualtrics and launched on Connect Cloud Research. There were 323 entries; however, 42 were removed for not completing or not qualifying for the study. Of the 281 remaining participants, one individual missed two separate attention questions, with an additional 20 people missing at least one of the attention questions. All 21 of these individuals were removed, resulting in 260 participants in the final dataset.

The main study participant demographic results were aligned with the pilot study's findings. Individual ages ranged from 18 to 71, with the single greatest frequency of people, 21, reporting an age of 31 years, followed by 17 people reporting an age of 36. Those in the cohort of Generation Y, colloquially known as Millennials, comprised the greatest number of participants at 175 or 67.4%, with 94 (36.2%) from late Gen Y and 81 (31.2%) from early Gen Y. The next highest participation was from Generation X with a total of 57 (21.9%) individuals, 37 (14.2%) from early Gen X and 20 (7.7) from late Gen X. The youngest participants totaled 21 (8.1%) as this group is still entering the workforce and many were below participation age. Finally, Baby Boomers comprised the smallest number of participants, with 7 (2.7%) contributors. Of the 260 participants, 109

(41.9%) were male,146 (56.2%) were female, and 5 (1.9%) identified as non-binary or another gender.

Race and ethnicity identifiers were closely aligned with general U.S. population results as reported by the United States Census Bureau. Participation rates for the pilot compared to Census Bureau reporting are as follows: White 197 (75.8%) compared to 75.5%, Black or African American 37 (14.2%) compared to 13.6%, American Indian or Alaska Native 4 (1.5%) compared to 1.3%, Asian 15 (5.8%) compared to 6.3%, Other 7 (2.7%) compared to 3%, Hispanic or Latino (of any race) 37 (14.2%) compared to 19.1% (census.gov).

For education, those with a high school diploma comprised 14 (5.4%), some college 39 (15.0%), associate degree 34 (13.1%), bachelor's degree 122 (46.9%), master's or professional 44 (16.9%), and doctoral degree 7 (2.7%). For the number of years working remotely, results were as follows: one to two years 40 (15.4%), three to four years 131 (50.4%), five to seven years 51 (19.6%), eight to ten years 13 (5.0%), and more than ten years 25 (9.6%). For organizational tenure, those who were with their companies for one to two years were 79 (30.4%), three to four years 56 (21.5%), five to seven years 54 (20.8%), eight to ten years 20 (7.7%), and more than ten years 51 (19.6%) Participation by industry group, from highest rate to lowest, was as follows. Computer, software, and information technology constituted the greatest number at 73 (28.1%); financial, accounting, investments 45 (17.3%); professional, business services 38 (14.6%); healthcare 34 (13.0%); customer service, retail sales 16 (16.2%); communications and media 13 (5.0%); governmental agencies and non-profit 11 (4.2%); education 8 (3.1%); arts and entertainment 8 (3.1%), construction and engineering 7

(2.7%); and there was a new category created for transportation and utilities, with 7 (2.7%).

Table 6 Main Study Descriptive Statistics

Generation Cohort	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-27 = Gen Z	21	8.1	8.1	8.1
28-35 = Late Gen Y	94	36.2	36.2	44.3
36-43 = Early Gen Y	81	31.2	31.2	75.5
44-51 = Late Gen X	20	7.7	7.7	83.2
52-59 = Early Gen X	37	14.2	14.2	97.4
60 + = Baby Boomers	7	2.7	2.7	100
Gender Identity	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	109	41.9	41.9	41.9
Female	146	56.2	56.2	98.1
Non-binary / another Gender	5	1.9	1.9	100
Total	260	100	100	
Race	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
White	197	75.8	75.8	75.8
Black or African American	37	14.2	14.2	90
American Indian or Alaska Native	4	1.5	1.5	91.5
Asian	15	5.8	5.8	97.3
Other	7	2.7	2.7	100
Total	260	100	100	
Hispanic Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	223	85.8	85.8	85.8
Yes	37	14.2	14.2	100
Total	260	100	100	
Education	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
High school graduate	14	5.4	5.4	5.4
Some college	39	15	15	20.4
Associate degree	34	13.1	13.1	33.5
Bachelor's degree	122	46.9	46.9	80.4
Master's or Professional degree	44	16.9	16.9	97.3
Doctorate	7	2.7	2.7	100
Total	260	100	100	
Years of Remote Work	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 to 2 years	40	15.4	15.4	15.4
3 to 4 years	131	50.4	50.4	65.8
5 to 7 years	51	19.6	19.6	85.4
8 to 10 years	13	5	5	90.4
More than 10 years	25	9.6	9.6	100
Total	260	100	100	
Organizational Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent

1 to 2 years	79	30.4	30.4	30.4
3 to 4 years	56	21.5	21.5	51.9
5 to 7 years	54	20.8	20.8	72.7
8 to 10 years	20	7.7	7.7	80.4
More than 10 years	51	19.6	19.6	100
Total	260	100	100	
Industry	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Computer/software/	73	28.1	28.1	28.1
Financial Activities	45	17.3	17.3	45.4
Professional and Business Services	38	14.6	14.6	60.0
Healthcare	34	13.0	13.0	73.0
Customer Service, Sales, Retail	16	6.2	6.2	79.2
Communications/Media	13	5.0	5.0	84.2
Government	11	4.2	4.2	88.4
Education	8	3.1	3.1	91.5
Arts and Entertainment	8	3.1	3.1	94.6
Construction, Manufacturing, Engineer	7	2.7	2.7	97.3
Transportation & Utilities	7	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	260	100	100	100

Measurements

Electronic Monitoring - Intensity

Two approaches were used to operationalize electronic monitoring. First, this study modified an approach used in previous research by having participants confirm that at least one form of electronic monitoring was used while working remotely, and a list was presented for them to select as many forms as possible that apply. A study by Wang et al. (2021) on remote workers during COVID-19 developed a four-item checklist based on interviews from a qualitative study, where participants were asked whether their organization adopted each technique, and the sum of the totals was used to indicate the intensity of surveillance. Similarly, Holland et al. (2015) created a list of the seven most identified monitoring forms and asked participants how many applied. Examples of types

of electronic monitoring that were asked included “audio or telephone monitoring,” “video camera monitoring,” and “email or messaging monitoring.”

Electronic Monitoring - Frequency

The second operationalization employed was the creation of questions aimed at quantifying participants’ perceptions of their employers’ monitoring. Because the main tenet of this research revolves around employees’ perceptions of the intended purpose and their psychological impact on attitudes and subsequent behaviors, I chose to measure participants’ impressions or perspectives on electronic monitoring. Using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from Never to Always, participants rated the extent, frequency, or degree to which they believed they were being monitored. This measure was determined to be more aligned with the objectives of the study as their attitudes and reactions to monitoring were more relevant than the number of types of methods used.

Perceived Monitoring Purpose

Perceived purpose was measured by adopting a six-item tool created by Wells et al. (2007) to study the impact of the perceived purpose of electronic monitoring on various attitudinal variables. Content experts evaluated a list of items to determine the degree of fit with the intended definitions. Confirmatory Factor Analysis identified that perceived purposes loaded onto two distinct factors, developmental purpose and deterrence (control) purpose, with RMSEA = 0.079 and CFI = 0.95. Examples of developmental purpose questions include “The company uses the electronic monitoring system to help me perform my job better” and “The company uses the electronic monitoring system to produce examples of correct procedures that can be used to train others.” Examples of deterrence purposes include “The company uses the electronic monitoring system to

prevent wrongdoing on the part of employees" and "The company uses the electronic monitoring system to detect possible misconduct or fraud."

Motivation

Motivation was measured using the Basic Need Satisfaction scale for work (BNS-W). This scale is psychometrically sound and distinctly measures the three sub-factors of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The 21-item instrument has been used in numerous work studies (Deci et al., 2001) that have confirmed the concurrent and construct validity as well as the reliability with Cronbach alpha values exceeding 0.70

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI). This six-item instrument, developed by Schriesheim and Tsui (1980), assesses overall job satisfaction on various facets, including the work itself, supervisor, pay, promotion, promotion opportunities, and co-worker relations. Analysis has determined strong psychometric properties with strong reliability at a Coefficient alpha from .73 to .78 (Tsui et al., 1992).

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement was assessed using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale—short form (UWES-SF). This nine-item scale is a widely accepted measure of work engagement developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002). This tool was developed to identify the three dimensions of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Studies have identified internal consistency and test-retest reliability over time, confirming its psychometric value (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention was measured using the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6). This concise and comprehensive six-item tool was introduced by Bothman and Roodt (2013) and is used to gauge an employee's intentions to leave their job. It has been used in numerous studies, and validation research has identified excellent reliability with a Cronbach alpha value > 0.80 (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors were measured using a modified version of the 19-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). This tool measures the separate dimensions of deviant behaviors intended toward the organization and those intended toward individuals. For purposes of this study, only the dimensions related to deviant behaviors toward the organization were included. This scale has been identified as having excellent reliability with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.84 (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Electronic Monitoring (Intensity)

To qualify for participation in this study, potential candidates were presented with the following: Electronic monitoring refers to different systems or tools used to observe, analyze, collect, and report employees' behaviors or performance. Examples of different forms of electronic monitoring include, but are not limited to, the following list. Please select all the different forms your organization uses and include any additional methods not listed.

1. Audio or telephone monitoring
2. Video camera monitoring
3. Website or keystroke monitoring

4. Email or messaging monitoring
5. Timekeeping (clocking in or out) or location monitoring
6. Screenshot monitoring
7. Other (please specific)

Table 7 Construct Measurement Items

Construct	Definition	Source	Questions
Electronic Monitoring (Intensity)	Electronic monitoring refers to various systems or tools that are used to collect, store, analyze, and report the behaviors or performance of employees	Holland et al. (2015)	Please select all the different forms your organization uses and include any additional methods not listed. 1. Audio or telephone monitoring 2. Video camera monitoring 3. Website or keystroke monitoring 4. Email or messaging monitoring 5. Timekeeping (clocking in or out) or location monitoring 6. Screenshot monitoring 7. Other (please specific)
Electronic Monitoring (Frequency)	Electronic monitoring refers to various systems or tools that are used to collect, store, analyze, and report the behaviors or performance of employees	Guglielmo (2023)	For each statement, please indicate the frequency they occur. 1. To what extent do you believe your activities, both work-related and personal, are monitored by the organization? 2. How frequently do you feel electronically monitored during your work hours? 3. To what extent do you think the organization collects and uses the data it gathers through electronic monitoring?
Perceived Monitoring Purpose	Perceived monitoring purpose refers to the intentions or objectives of the surveillant and is the motivating factor behind the use of electronic monitoring	Wells et al. (2007)	Please answer each statement below by indicating the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements. 1. The company uses the electronic monitoring system to help me perform my job better. 2. The company uses the electronic monitoring

			system to produce examples of correct procedures that can be used to train others. 3. The company uses the electronic monitoring system to point out areas of my performance that need improvement. 4. The company uses the electronic monitoring system to prevent wrongdoing on the part of employees. 5. The company uses the electronic monitoring system to detect possible misconduct or fraud.
Motivation	Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviors and active engagement with tasks that individuals find interesting in and of themselves without separate rewards or consequences.	Basic Need Satisfaction scale for work (BNS-W)	When I Am At Work 1. I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done. 2. I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job. 3. There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work. (R)
Job Satisfaction	Job satisfaction represents a feeling due to the perception that the job enables their material and psychological needs	Schriesheim and Tsui (1980)	For each statement, respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement. 1. How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you - your organizational superior? 2. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job? 3. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation? 4. How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work - co-workers or peers?

Employee Engagement	Employee engagement is harnessing peoples' selves to their work, such that they fully invest their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources in the work roles	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale—short form (UWES-SF). Schaufeli et al. (2002)	For each statement, respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement 1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy 2. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work 3. I am enthusiastic about my job 4. My job inspires me 5. I am proud of the work that I do
Turnover Intention	Turnover intention is the likelihood or extent of an employee leaving their current organization	Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6). Bothman and Roodt (2013)	For each statement, respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement 1. I have already started looking for another job 2. I am seriously considering leaving this organization 3. I would leave this organization if a better job opportunity arose. 4. I am likely to leave this organization within the next year.
Counter-productive Work Behaviors	Counterproductive work behaviors are any volitional acts that harm or potentially violate an organization's or its stakeholders' interests	Bennett and Robinson (2000)	Respondents are asked to rate how often they have engaged in the following behaviors 1. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working 2. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace 3. Neglected to follow your boss's instruction 4. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked

Evasion of Monitoring

Please select all the methods you've used to avoid electronic monitoring used by your employer while working remotely.

1. Automating Mouse Movement – Mouse Jigglers – Mouse over wristwatch
2. Using a Window as a Red Herring – Idle Windows – Screen over Screen
3. A Second Monitor – Dual Monitors
4. Disabling the Software
5. Predicting Time for Screenshots
6. By using a remote access tool
7. Using a Virtual Machine
8. Hiding Work From the Time Tracker
9. Falsifying Timesheets or records
10. Other (please specify)

Demographics

What is your age? (please enter the number)

How would you describe your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Non-binary/third gender / other

How would you best describe your race?

- White
- Black or African American
- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other

Are you of Hispanic, Latino, or Latino origin

- Yes
- No

What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

- Less than high school
- High school graduate
- Some college
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's or Professional degree
- Doctorate

How long have you worked remotely (years)?

- 1 to 2 years
- 3 to 4 years
- 5 to 7 years
- 8 to 10 years
- More than 10 years

How long have you worked at your current organization?

- 1 to 2 years
- 3 to 4 years
- 5 to 7 years
- 8 to 10 years
- More than 10 years

In what industry do you work?

- (please specify)

CHAPTER V: RESULTS

Main Study Findings

The constructs used in this study are latent variables, meaning that we cannot measure them directly. Instead, we analyze the data and look for patterns among observable characteristics that are believed to represent or infer the concepts of interest. One way for researchers to evaluate the complex relationships between latent variables is structural equation modeling (SEM), a quantifiable statistical method that estimates the

relationships between observable indicators and unobservable constructs. SmartPLS, version 4, software was employed to provide construct reliability and validity, discriminant validity, and path coefficients to complete the advanced calculations needed. SmartPLS is notably effective for latent variable models with smaller sample sizes (Hair et al., 2021).

Figure 2 shows the research model's graphical output. The path diagram indicates the direction of the relationships, the loading weights of the observable indicators of the latent variables, and the path coefficients between variables. Overall, this represents a visual synthesis of the data.

Figure 2 SEM Graphical Output

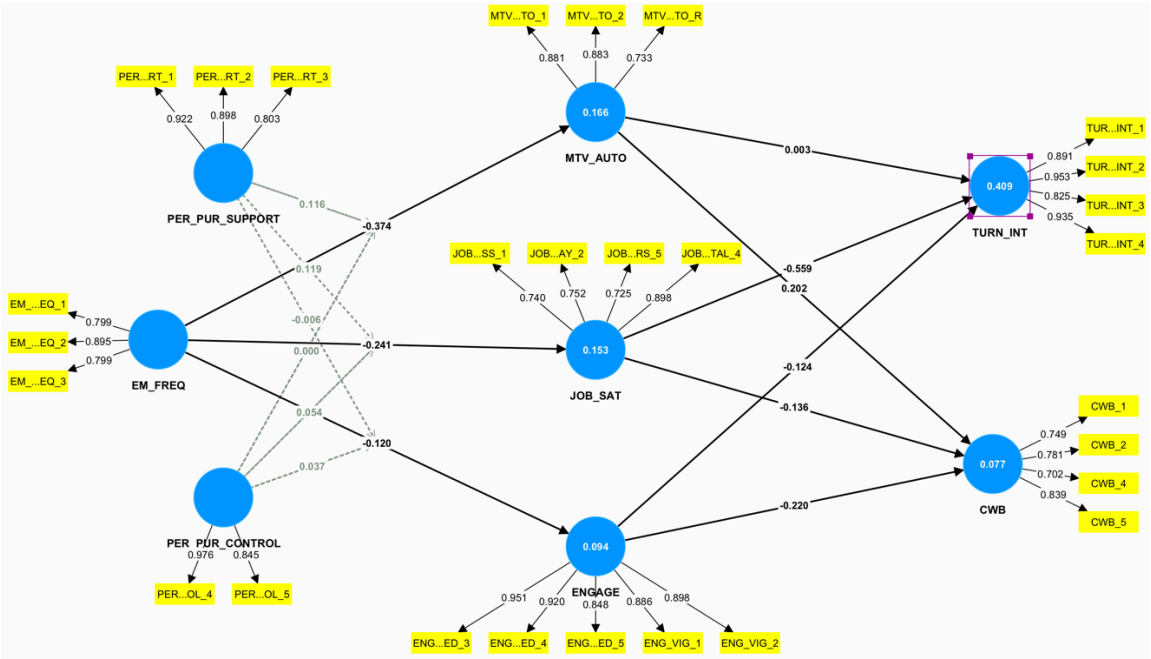

Table 8 Provides an overview of the study's construct reliability and validity. Construct reliability measures the extent to which the individual indicators of the latent construct are internally consistent and are captured through Cronbach's alpha and two

forms of composite reliability, rho a and rho c, all widely accepted measures. Values greater than or equal to 0.70 are accepted as the benchmark for internal consistency (Hair et al., 2021). Construct validity involves the extent to which a latent variable accurately measures what it was intended to assess, and it is done in two separate manners. First, convergent validity describes the extent to which the separate observable indicators used for the latent variables are related to one another. This relationship is indicated by the strength of the correlation using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), with values over 0.50 suggesting an acceptable validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

As can be seen in the table below, reliability was above the acceptable threshold of 0.70 for all constructs for each of the analyses used: Cronbach's alpha and Composite reliability, rho a and rho c. This means that the latent variables and observable indicators were all internally consistent and measured what they intended to measure.

Table 8 Construct Reliability and Validity - Overview

	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability (rho_a)	Composite reliability (rho_c)	Average variance extracted (AVE)
CWB	0.772	0.800	0.852	0.592
EM_FREQ	0.780	0.818	0.871	0.693
ENGAGE	0.942	0.947	0.956	0.812
JOB_SAT	0.786	0.82	0.862	0.611
MTV_AUTO	0.782	0.809	0.873	0.698
PER_PUR_CONTROL	0.830	1.368	0.909	0.834
PER_PUR_SUPPORT	0.853	0.916	0.908	0.768
TURN_INT	0.923	0.933	0.946	0.815

The second form of construct validity, Discriminant validity, measures the degree to which a variable is separate from the other constructs used in the study. By comparing the different indicators for all the latent variables, the distinctions can be assessed for all constructs. In SmartPLS, discriminant validity is measured using the Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT), which is calculated through a comparison of the squared roots of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and the acceptable threshold is a value less than 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015). As suggested in Table 9, all constructs in this study are uniquely distinct from one another, indicating discriminant validity.

Table 9 Discriminant Validity - Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)
EM_FREQ <-> CWB	0.156
ENGAGE <-> CWB	0.238
ENGAGE <-> EM_FREQ	0.063
JOB_SAT <-> CWB	0.227
JOB_SAT <-> EM_FREQ	0.227
JOB_SAT <-> ENGAGE	0.688
MTV_AUTO <-> CWB	0.138
MTV_AUTO <-> EM_FREQ	0.415
MTV_AUTO <-> ENGAGE	0.479
MTV_AUTO <-> JOB_SAT	0.682
PER_PUR_CONTROL <-> CWB	0.095
PER_PUR_CONTROL <-> EM_FREQ	0.232
PER_PUR_CONTROL <-> ENGAGE	0.086
PER_PUR_CONTROL <-> JOB_SAT	0.201
PER_PUR_CONTROL <-> MTV_AUTO	0.125
PER_PUR_SUPPORT <-> CWB	0.103
PER_PUR_SUPPORT <-> EM_FREQ	0.301
PER_PUR_SUPPORT <-> ENGAGE	0.299
PER_PUR_SUPPORT <-> JOB_SAT	0.263
PER_PUR_SUPPORT <-> MTV_AUTO	0.154

PER_PUR_SUPPORT <-> PER_PUR_CONTROL	0.288
TURN_INT <-> CWB	0.377
TURN_INT <-> EM_FREQ	0.237
TURN_INT <-> ENGAGE	0.489
TURN_INT <-> JOB_SAT	0.722
TURN_INT <-> MTV_AUTO	0.41
TURN_INT <-> PER_PUR_CONTROL	0.098
TURN_INT <-> PER_PUR_SUPPORT	0.153

Table 10 lists the model's path coefficients, original sample results, sample mean, standard deviation, T statistics, and P values. Resampling, commonly used in Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), was used as bootstrapping to strengthen estimates for errors, confidence intervals, and significance. Using the original dataset, values were resampled with replacement to create multiple samples, which makes this technique particularly effective for smaller sample sizes (Hair et al., 2014).

The Path coefficient sample mean signals the relative strength of the relationship between the different constructs, while the standard deviation informs about the variability among the different samples. These help to provide evidence of consistency for the path relationships, while T and P values help assess the statistical significance. High T values imply evidence against the null hypothesis, while low p values suggest the same. For purposes of this study, T values greater than 1.96, and P values less than 0.005 were used to inform the results for hypothesis testing.

Table 10 Path Coefficients - Mean, STDEV, T Values, P Values

	Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P values
EM_FREQ -> ENGAGE	-0.120	-0.124	0.067	1.786	0.074
EM_FREQ -> JOB_SAT	-0.241	-0.246	0.058	4.145	0.000

EM_FREQ -> MTV_AUTO	-0.374	-0.377	0.054	6.955	0.000
ENGAGE -> CWB	-0.220	-0.225	0.097	2.256	0.024
ENGAGE -> TURN_INT	-0.124	-0.124	0.062	1.990	0.047
JOB_SAT -> CWB	-0.136	-0.141	0.108	1.254	0.210
JOB_SAT -> TURN_INT	-0.559	-0.561	0.058	9.582	0.000
MTV_AUTO -> CWB	0.202	0.208	0.087	2.338	0.019
MTV_AUTO -> TURN_INT	0.003	0.002	0.059	0.047	0.962
PER_PUR_CNTL -> ENGAGE	0.024	0.035	0.066	0.365	0.715
PER_PUR_CNTL -> JOB_SAT	0.162	0.166	0.069	2.350	0.019
PER_PUR_CNTL -> MTV_AUTO	0.124	0.124	0.074	1.679	0.093
PER_PUR_SUPP -> ENGAGE	0.299	0.299	0.063	4.719	0.000
PER_PUR_SUPP -> JOB_SAT	0.215	0.219	0.063	3.394	0.001
PER_PUR_SUPP -> MTV_AUTO	0.124	0.125	0.067	1.862	0.063
PER_PUR_CNTL x EM_FREQ -> ENGAGE	0.037	0.038	0.072	0.507	0.612
PER_PUR_CNTL x EM_FREQ -> JOB_SAT	0.054	0.054	0.057	0.943	0.346
PER_PUR_CNTL x EM_FREQ -> MTV_AUTO	0.000	0.001	0.060	0.001	0.999
PER_PUR_SUPP x EM_FREQ -> ENGAGE	-0.006	-0.007	0.067	0.084	0.933
PER_PUR_SUPP x EM_FREQ -> JOB_SAT	0.119	0.119	0.057	2.078	0.038
PER_PUR_SUPP x EM_FREQ -> MTV_AUTO	0.116	0.112	0.063	1.848	0.065

Hypothesis 1 examined the relationship between electronic monitoring and motivation. More specifically, it proposed that electronic monitoring would negatively affect employee motivation due to its invasive nature. The results show a negative and significant relationship between the two variables (b = -0.374, p= 0.000), supporting the proposed hypothesis. These findings demonstrate that individuals who work remotely experience lower motivation, which results from decreased autonomy associated with electronic surveillance.

Hypothesis 2 examined the relationship between electronic monitoring and Job Satisfaction. More specifically, it proposed that due to the invasive nature of Electronic Monitoring, there would be a negative effect on Job Satisfaction. The results show a negative and significant relationship between the two variables (b = -0.241, p = 0.000),

supporting the proposed hypothesis. Therefore, employees working remotely experience lower levels of Job Satisfaction due to the increased stress associated with electronic monitoring.

Hypothesis 3 examined the relationship between Electronic Monitoring and Engagement. More specifically, it proposed that due to the invasive nature of Electronic Monitoring, there would be a negative effect on Engagement. The results show a negative and weak relationship between the two variables ($b = -0.120$, $p = 0.074$), supporting the proposed hypothesis. These results highlight the importance of the controlling and intrusive nature of electronic monitoring of remote workers, which will decrease employee engagement.

Hypothesis 4 examined the relationship between Electronic Monitoring and Motivation with the moderating role of Perceived Purpose. Specifically, it proposed that Motivation would be more negative when perceived as controlling and less negative when perceived as developmental. The results show a positive relationship that is weakly significant ($b = 0.116$, $p = 0.065$) for the Perceived Purpose of Support and ($b = 0.000$, $p = 0.038$) for the Perceived Purpose of Control, indicating that the relationship is not statistically meaningful and that the hypothesis is only partially supported. These findings mean that despite the encroaching aspects of electronic monitoring, remote workers report increased motivation when they perceive the surveillance as supportive and developmental, yet results are inconclusive when those perceptions are of control.

Hypothesis 5 examined the relationship between Electronic Monitoring and Job Satisfaction with the moderating role of Perceived Purpose. Specifically, it proposed that Job Satisfaction would be more negative when perceived as controlling and less negative

when perceived as developmental. The results show a positive and significant relationship (b = 0.119, p = 0.038) for the Perceived Purpose of Support and a positive and statistically insignificant relationship for the Perceived Purpose of Control (b = 0.054, p = 0.346), meaning that the hypothesis is only partially supported. These results tell us that despite the intrusive nature of electronic monitoring, remote workers report increased Job Satisfaction when said monitoring is perceived to be in their best interest and supportive, while results are inconclusive when monitoring is perceived as being in the organization's interests.

Hypothesis 6 examined the relationship between Electronic Monitoring and Engagement with the moderating role of Perceived Purpose. Specifically, it proposed that Engagement would be more negative when perceived as controlling and less negative when perceived as developmental. The results show a negative and insignificant relationship (b = -0.006, p = 0.933) for the Perceived Purpose of Support and a negative and statistically insignificant relationship for the Perceived Purpose of Control (b = -0.037, p = 0.612), meaning that the proposed hypothesis is unsupported. This study could not determine the effect of perceptions of control or support on electronic monitoring's impact on engagement.

Hypothesis 7 examined the relationship between Motivation and Turnover Intention. More specifically, it proposed that due to the autonomous nature of Motivation, there would be a negative effect on Turnover Intention. The results show a positive and insignificant relationship between the two variables (b = 0.003, p = 0.962), meaning the proposed hypothesis is unsupported. The results of this study were unable to establish a

relationship between motivation and turnover intention for electronically monitored remote workers.

Hypothesis 8 examined the relationship between Motivation and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. More specifically, it proposed that due to the autonomous nature of Motivation, there would be a negative effect on Counterproductive Work Behaviors. The results show a positive and significant relationship between the two variables ($b = 0.202$, $p = 0.019$), which partially supports the proposed hypothesis. These findings suggest that while a relationship exists between motivation and counterproductive work behaviors, those who experience more autonomy are more likely to engage in such behaviors.

Hypothesis 9 examined the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention. More specifically, it proposed that there would be a negative effect on Turnover Intention due to Job Satisfaction's fulfillment nature. The results show a negative and significant relationship between the two variables ($b = -0.559$, $p = 0.000$), which supports the proposed hypothesis. These results illustrate that remote workers who are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to resign from their organizations voluntarily.

Hypothesis 10 examined the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. More specifically, it proposed that there would be a negative effect on Counterproductive Work Behaviors due to Job Satisfaction's fulfillment nature. The results show a negative but insignificant relationship between the two variables ($b = -0.136$, $p = 0.210$), meaning the proposed hypothesis is unsupported. The findings from this study could not establish a relationship between Job Satisfaction of remote workers and counterproductive work behaviors.

Hypothesis 11 examined the relationship between Engagement and Turnover Intention. More specifically, it proposed that due to Engagement's committed nature, there would be a negative effect on Turnover Intention. The results show a negative and significant relationship between the two variables (b = -0.124, p = 0.047), which supports the proposed hypothesis. These findings reveal that engaged remote workers are less likely to resign from their organizations despite electronic surveillance.

Hypothesis 12 examined the relationship between Engagement and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. More specifically, it proposed that due to Engagement's committed nature, there would be a negative effect on Counterproductive Work Behaviors. The results show a negative and significant relationship between the two variables (b = -0.220, p = 0.024), which supports the proposed hypothesis. These findings highlight that employees who are engaged while working remotely are less likely to partake in counterproductive work behaviors despite being monitored electronically.

Table 11 Hypotheses Summary

Hypothesis	Description	Original Sample	P Value	Findings
H1	Electronic monitoring will have a negative effect on motivation.	-0.374	0.000	Supported
H2	Electronic monitoring will have a negative effect on job satisfaction.	-0.241	0.000	Supported
H3	Electronic monitoring will have a negative effect on employee engagement.	-0.120	0.074	Supported
H4	The relationship between electronic monitoring and motivation will be more negative when the perceived monitoring purpose is controlling and less negative when developmental.	0.000 0.116	0.999 0.065	Partially Supported
H5	The relationship between electronic monitoring and job satisfaction will be more negative when the perceived monitoring purpose is controlling and less negative when developmental.	0.054 0.119	0.346 0.038	Partially Supported

H6	The relationship between electronic monitoring and employee engagement will be more negative when the perceived monitoring purpose is controlling and less negative when developmental and less negative when developmental.	0.037 -0.006	0.933	Not Supported
H7	Motivation will have a negative effect on turnover intention.	0.003	0.962	Not Supported
H8	Motivation will have a negative effect on counterproductive work behaviors.	0.202	0.019	Partially Supported
H9	Job satisfaction will have a negative effect on turnover intention.	-0.559	0.000	Supported
H10	Job satisfaction will have a negative effect on counterproductive work behaviors	-0.136	0.210	Not Supported
H11	Employee engagement will have a negative effect on turnover intention.	-0.124	0.047	Supported
H12	Employee engagement will have a negative effect on counterproductive work behaviors.	-0.220	0.024	Supported

CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSION

Summary of Results

In today's contemporary employment environment, a digital revolution is impacting both the environmental conditions in which people work and the practice of how they are being managed. Technological advancements that provide increased flexibility to work outside of the traditional office have been a driving force behind the increased demand for remote work. Exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic, remote work arrangements continue to be in demand by today's workforce despite growing concern about productivity among certain organizations.

The need to maintain efficiency and effectiveness through the traditional management practice of observation, along with the same technological advancements driving the push for remote work, has resulted in increased adoption of various forms of electronic monitoring. While organizations state that electronic surveillance enhances

worker outcomes, simply monitoring behaviors does not add value, particularly when these actions are perceived to be controlling and punitive. Previous research has demonstrated that continuous monitoring can decrease employee autonomy (Gajendran & Harrison, 2017), eroding trust, commitment, and productivity.

This study sought to identify the controlling effects of electronic monitoring on remote workers and answer the following two questions.

- What are the effects of electronic monitoring on employee motivation, satisfaction, and engagement, and their ultimate impact on turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors for remote office workers in the U.S.?
- What is the role of perceived purpose in the relationship between electronic monitoring and motivation, satisfaction, and engagement, and its ultimate impact on turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviors for remote office workers in the U.S.?

To answer these questions, I chose to examine the problems through the lens of Self-Determination Theory, which presumes that individuals possess an innate psychological need for control and volition, the need to feel effective, and the need for social connection. The theory posits that individuals are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation when these needs are satisfied. This framework permitted me to focus on the innate psychological condition of needs satisfaction, particularly autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

The first question involves the direct effects that electronic monitoring has on the three separate attitudinal variables of Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Engagement. As predicted, a negative relationship was found between each of these relationships. A core

position of this research is that electronic monitoring inherently represents an invasive and intrusive form of power on the part of the organization that challenges an employee's privacy, autonomy, and personal boundaries. The results supported the hypotheses that the three psychological conditions of Motivation (H1), Job Satisfaction (H2), and Engagement (H3) were all negatively and significantly impacted by the controlling nature of electronic surveillance. Motivation was assessed using the following questions: (1) I feel like I can make a lot of input in deciding how my job gets done. (2) I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job. (3) There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work (R), all measuring the effects on autonomy. Relatedness could be measured through Job Satisfaction questions: (1) How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you - your organizational superior? (2) How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work - co-workers or peers? The effects of competence were seen in Engagement questions: (1) I am enthusiastic about my job. (2) My job inspires me. (3) I am proud of the work that I do.

At its core, self-determination theory believes that the degree to which individuals satisfy their psychosocial needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness is essential. Work environments that support individuals' autonomy by encouraging choice and initiative are associated with intrinsic motivation and positive work outcomes (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014). Environments that satisfy the need for competence by providing feedback for employees to enhance their skills and abilities are found to reinforce motivation and performance (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014). Work environments that support an individual's need for relatedness through acceptance and support have

also been found to strengthen well-being and positive outcomes (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014). Therefore, self-determination theory was an effective framework for understanding these relationships.

This research question also sought to understand Electronic monitoring's ultimate impact on Turnover Intention and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. These hypotheses had mixed results. Findings did not support the direct relationship between Motivation and Turnover intention (H7). This could indicate poorly worded questions, as those used for motivation only measured autonomy. Motivation's direct effect on Counterproductive Work Behavior is partially supported (H8), as a significant relationship was identified. However, it was predicted to be negative, and the results were positive. This could also be associated with the choice of questions used. Motivation's autonomy and the four questions measuring specific CWBs may not reflect the complete relationship.

Job Satisfaction's impact on these outcomes had mixed results, with the effects on Turnover Intention (H9) supported by a negative and significant relationship. Results show that satisfaction with one's supervisor, co-workers, pay, and overall situation appears to deter one's intentions to resign voluntarily. However, those same factors were not found to be supported when applied to CWBs (H10). A possible explanation is that the CWBs included in the study are not as common for remote workers.

The measurement questions for this construct were taken from Bennett & Robinson's (2000) Workplace Deviance Scale, which is comprised of two subscales: a seven-item measure of interpersonal deviance, or behaviors that are directly harmful to individuals in the organization, and a thirteen-item measure of organizational deviance, or behaviors directed toward harming the organization. From that list, a subset of four questions aimed

at organizational deviance were selected: (1) spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming; (2) taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace; (3) neglected to follow your boss's instructions, (4) intentionally worked slower than you could have worked. While these questions have been determined to be reliable and data in previous research, those studies were not applied to remote work. Instead, remote workers have reported utilizing other counterproductive behaviors, including using their own unmonitored devices, scheduling fake or ghost meetings to appear busy, having a separate monitor for non-work activities, and using a device to jiggle their mouse to appear productive.

The last part of the research question explored the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intention (H11) and CWBs (H12), both found to be negatively and significantly related. Results show that fully invested in their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources can help hinder an employee's intentions to leave the organization while averting their intentions to work slowly, neglect their boss's instructions, take longer breaks, or spend too much time daydreaming. As Kahn (1990) described, engaged employees are implicitly attentive, focused, connected, and integrated into their work demands, while Ericson (2005) characterized engaged employees as having passion, commitment, and willingness to invest their discretionary effort while rendering their jobs. Busse & Weidner (2020) found engaged workforces to respond with employer loyalty, raised creativity, increased satisfaction, and higher productivity. The results of this study are aligned with previous research demonstrating that when remote workers are engaged, they respond with decreased turnover intention, increased productivity, and lower tendencies to take harmful actions against their organizations.

The second research question sought to identify the effect of the perceived purpose of electronic monitoring on these relationships. Monitor purpose refers to the motivating factors behind the surveillant's use of electronic surveillance. Employees' perceptions of whether those intentions are meant for the organization's benefit through discouraging or punishing unwanted behaviors or for the employee's benefit through support or development will impact their psychological need satisfaction and, ultimately, behavioral outcomes. Results for these hypotheses were mixed and partially supported.

Hypothesis H4 examined the relationship between Electronic Monitoring and Motivation and predicted Motivation would be more negative when the purpose was controlling and less negative when perceived as developmental. Results show that when perceived as controlling, results were not supported, while the perception of support was positively and weakly related. These findings suggest that motivation increased when perceived as beneficial to the employee. While originally predicted that a supportive intention would result in a "less negative" impact, as Electronic Monitoring increased, Motivation did as well.

Hypothesis H5 explored the impact of Perceived Purpose between Electronic Monitoring and Job Satisfaction with mixed and partially supported results, like Motivation. There was no statistically significant support for the prediction that a controlling purpose would result in a more negative relationship; however, when perceived to be developmental in nature, Electronic Monitoring was positively and significantly related to Job Satisfaction. Originally hypothesized that this relationship would be "less negative," a supportive intention appears to have a positive impact.

For the last relationship between electronic monitoring and Engagement, the role of perceived purpose was not found to be statistically significant for either a controlling or a supportive intention. These results could indicate that factors other than the perception of intended purpose influence employee engagement. As described earlier, one theoretical engagement model is grounded in the idea that job demands and resources divide working conditions, where high demands lead to exhaustion and burnout, and low resources result in withdrawal behaviors and disengagement. Job demands refer to physical, psychological, or emotional aspects with the potential to pressure or stress individuals, such as in the case of the perception of a controlling, punitive intent of electronic monitoring. Conversely, job resources refer to the physical, psychological, or emotional elements that support work-related goals, reduce job demands, and promote growth development and engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014), such as in the case of the perception of a supportive, developmental intent of electronic monitoring. Under the ideology of this job demands versus job resources approach, it is possible that the conflicting perceptions from the increased demands and stress associated with electronic monitoring were contrary to the perception of increased support also associated with electronic monitoring. Future research could explore different questions that focus on understanding the dynamic between these opposing views.

While not included in the research model or proposed hypotheses, SmartPLS also examined the direct relationships between Perceived Purpose and the three mediating constructs of Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Employee Engagement. For the intended purpose of control, the correlations with Engagement and Motivation were not significant with Engagement as ($b = 0.162$, $p = 0.019$) and Motivation ($b = 0.124$, $p = 0.093$).

However, for Job Satisfaction, results were positive and significant (b = 0.162, p = 0.019). For the supportive or developmental perceived purpose, the relationships for Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Engagement were all positive and significant (b = 0.124, p = 0.063; b = 0.215, p = 0.001; b=0.299, p = 0.000), respectively. All these findings support the notion that while Electronic Monitoring is inherently seen as a form of power or control on behalf of the organization, employee perceptions of support increase employee motivation, job satisfaction, and engagement.

Theoretical Implications and Contributions

The theoretical lens through which this research was examined was Self-Determination Theory. While commonly applied to research exploring intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, this theory was chosen because of its core tenet that human behavior is influenced by the satisfaction of thwarting innate psychological needs. This research included various psychological perceptions, intentions, and constructs related to electronic monitoring. This study adds to the theoretical knowledge of SDT by answering the calls by Deci & Ryan (2017) to apply STD to study the impacts of advanced technologies in interaction with work climates and how workplace factors are perceived to influence need satisfaction. Additionally, this research addresses the call to examine the thwarting of needs as a predictor of negative outcomes (Deci et al., 2017).

A second theoretical implication of this study revolved around the added knowledge of electronic monitoring and how it relates to remote workers. Exploring the psychological well-being of participants addresses the call for more research on workplace health in remote work settings that are monitored and overlap with the home environment (Jeske, 2022). As noted, previous studies were limited in generalizability as

participant groups included undergraduate students, clerical workers, employees of a single organization, or laboratory studies. With the diverse set of industries included in this research, I have answered the call to include different professional backgrounds and employees who have not yet been studied (Siegel et al., 2022; Wells et al., 2017; Alder &Ambrose, 2005a). In addition, by highlighting the financial implications of employee turnover and CWBs, this study addresses the question of how Electronic Monitoring translates to increased profitability and competitiveness (Holt et al., 2016).

A third theoretical implication of this study involves the added knowledge of the Perceived Purpose of Electronic Monitoring concept. Historically, the study of Electronic Monitoring generally focused on the presence or lack of monitoring and not the perceptions of the surveilled. By researching employees in real work settings that have already implemented these monitoring technologies, this study answers the call from Abraham et al. (2019). Furthermore, it addresses the call for future research on the effects of perceptions of invasiveness in workspaces on employee outcomes (Bhave et al., 2019), as well as the question of how remote work has influenced employee perceptions of performance measurement (Gustavsson & Soderlund, 2021).

This research's fourth and final theoretical contribution adds to the body of knowledge regarding remote work. This study addresses the question of which types of situations might hinder the positive relationship between engagement and remote work (Boskovic, 2021) while also answering the call to explore the gaps between an organization's policies, procedures, and culture as they relate to employee perceptions (Maier et al., 2021). Additionally, Golden (2006) called for research to examine how technology influences the impact of remote work, while Golden & Gajendran (2018)

suggested future research on moderating variables on the structure of an organization's work process.

Practical Implications and Contributions

One highly valuable outcome of the Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) program is the ability to translate or bridge the gap between theoretical findings and managerial implementations. Therefore, the practical implications come from applying the theoretical findings previously mentioned. The first contribution discussed above was that of SDT. We know from empirical research, including this study, that employee behaviors are impacted by the satisfaction of innate needs, including autonomy, competence, and relatedness. We also know that this satisfaction is associated with positive outcomes such as reduced turnover and CWBs, which are both directly and indirectly tied to costs and an organization's profitability. It should, therefore, go without mentioning that organizations, specifically managers, should actively seek to satisfy these needs in their employees. From work analysis, job description creation, process and operational flow, workspace design, and talent management programs to communication channels, all aspects of work design should consider how an employee's autonomy, competence, and relatedness will be addressed and, more importantly, satisfied. While it may seem daunting and even labor-intensive, increased profitability in the form of reduced direct and indirect turnover and CWB costs, as well as increased productivity and efficiency, will result in a strategic competitive advantage for the organization.

The second practical implication pertains to Electronic Monitoring, particularly for remote workers. Regardless of the industry or any other conditions, this study shows that the presence of Electronic Monitoring inherently hurts employee motivation, Job

Satisfaction, and Engagement, while the impacts on productivity are inconclusive. This means that while managers might justify implementing various forms of electronic monitoring to improve outcomes, they may inadvertently hurt the business. Just because they can add a new monitoring form does not mean it adds value. Studies show that employees will focus on the aspects of their jobs they know are being watched while also taking action to evade the surveillance system altogether. Managers should limit the number of systems used to monitor employees and consider the impacts on autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

The third practical contribution of this research involved one of the more novel constructs, Perceived Purpose. Particularly, this study focused on examining the effects of the perceived purpose of Electronic Monitoring. While results were mixed and only partially supported some hypotheses, one of the principal findings of this study involved the impact of perceived purpose. Results show that when employees perceive the intentions of Electronic Monitoring in their interests, and not just the organization's, they react more positively. When the purpose is developmental and supportive in nature, employees report increased Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Engagement despite the negative overall feelings toward Electronic monitoring.

The managerial implications for these findings are momentous. As stated, the trend toward remote work and electronic monitoring is only growing, so increasingly, more organizations will be utilizing surveillance on their employees. To capitalize on the positive effects that increased Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Engagement have on employee outcomes, leaders will need to know how to communicate their monitoring purpose effectively. To help shape employees' perceptions of the Electronic monitoring

system, managers must explain how the surveillance strategy benefits employees. More than simply telling people that monitoring is in their best interests, it must be designed to address their psychological needs to satisfy autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This means that (1) the organization must establish and communicate goals without controlling the process, (2) it needs to give constructive feedback without punishment, and (3) it must provide connections with others while still maintaining privacy at times. If done effectively, employees will see Electronic Monitoring as a tool for their growth and benefit, resulting in improved outcomes and advantages.

The fourth and final managerial implication is remote work, which involves all the previously mentioned points. As detailed throughout this paper, remote work is here to stay and will only continue to grow in demand. Organizational leadership needs to embrace this form of work and learn how to integrate it into their business plan. Recognizing remote work for its many advantages rather than viewing it as a perk or accommodation will help organizations attract and retain top talent, not just from their local market but on a national or even global scale. Differing opinions exist on how to approach remote work arrangements. Some view the ability to work from home as an additional benefit and propose removing paid time off (PTO) as a balance, while others see that as a form of punishment and counterintuitive to the benefits gained. Many believe that employees will slack and need strict rules, reporting, working hours, and monitoring, while others believe that remote work should be eliminated altogether. I recommend that remote work is an essential option needed to remain competitive. Direct savings are associated with reduced commuting costs, reduced office space and equipment needed, and less demand for utilities and supplies. There are indirect savings

from a more motivated, satisfied, and engaged team, reducing turnover and CWBs and increasing the team's institutional knowledge. Monitoring and surveillance are seen as controlling and invasive, so systems should help develop and support remote workers to satisfy their needs. When done effectively and strategically, implementing an employee monitoring system for remote workers can benefit all stakeholders involved.

Limitations and Future Research

One area of limitation for this study involves the criteria for participation selection. The first point under this topic is the boundary condition that all participants had to work remotely, full-time, 100% of the time. While my original belief was that these individuals would have the most experience with the effects of electronic monitoring, most remote workers follow some hybrid schedule where they work remotely and also on location. The participants for this study represent a subset of remote workers, making the findings less generalizable to the greater remote work population. A second limitation related to the selection criteria for participation involves requiring individuals to be at their current jobs for at least a year. As one of the dependent variables is turnover intention, a requirement that test subjects would not be included if they left their job within the past year may have distorted results.

My recommendation for future research is to include both full-time and hybrid work arrangements to identify if there are any differences between these groups. Perhaps the impact of electronic monitoring is perceived differently by those who are only subjected to a limited basis. Also, I recommend including participants who may be at their jobs for less than a year. If employees are unhappy with the remote work or level of

electronic monitoring, it is possible that they will leave in under a year. Those who choose to stay may be less affected by the situation, therefore impacting results.

Another area of limitation in the study involves the number of constructs and, consequently, the survey questions included. While each mediating attitudinal variable is recognized as a separate construct, they are also very closely related, especially through the SDT lens of need satisfaction. Also, my interest was in negative behavioral outcomes; however, including both turnover Intention and CWBs means more survey questions to include. Because of the number of variables in the study and the need to keep the survey reasonably short, a limited number of questions were included to measure each construct, possibly reducing the effectiveness of the breadth of measurement for each.

My recommendation for future research is to reduce the number of variables in the model to increase the number of questions measuring each, possibly providing more data to avoid unsupported hypotheses.

Additional possible future research ideas include applying the study to different cultures, as our views of authority, individuality, and privacy are different from other value systems. Another idea for this research involves the concept of algorithmic management, where monitoring, goal setting, and performance feedback are all done by Artificial Intelligence (AI) rather than a human surveillant. With the introduction and prominence of AI entering all aspects of our lives, this topic will be of particular interest to researchers and practicians alike.

Conclusion

While electronic monitoring has existed in different forms for decades, the information and technology age has accelerated its use exponentially. The ways in which

employers can now surveil their employees with instantaneous and passive data collection represent a level of privacy invasion and authoritative control that we have not seen before. This phenomenon is particularly poignant for remote workers, a growing segment of the work population, as organizations attempt to control employee behavior and results. Electronic monitoring's harmful influence on employee attitudes impacts intentions and behaviors, resulting in negative outcomes. Employee perceptions of organizational intentions, however, can help shape attitudes and, ultimately, behaviors.

This study identifies the negative impact of electronic monitoring on motivation, job satisfaction, and engagement and their ultimate influence on turnover intention and CWBs. This research demonstrates partial support for the influence that perceived purpose has on attitudinal results, indicating that perceptions of supportive developmental intention positively impact attitudes. These findings contribute to an array of theoretical implications, helping to advance the body of knowledge in multiple areas of research. Additionally, this study's practical contributions add to managerial knowledge by providing suggestions and recommendations for the effective handling of these factors. Finally, this study suggests future research to continue advancing knowledge in electronic monitoring and remote work.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Abraham, M., Niessen, C., Schnabel, C., Lorek, K., Grimm, V., Möslein, K., & Wrede, M. (2019). Electronic monitoring at work: The role of attitudes, functions, and perceived control for the acceptance of tracking technologies. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *29*(4), 657–675. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12250

Acquah, A., Nsiah, T. K., Antie, E. N. A., & Otoo, B. (2021). LITERATURE REVIEW ON THEORIES MOTIVATION. *EPRA International Journal of Economic and Business Review*, *9*(5), 25–29. https://doi.org/10.36713/epra6848

Adams, I., & Mastracci, S. (2018). Police Body-Worn Cameras: Effects on Officers' Burnout and Perceived Organizational Support. *Police Quarterly*, *22*(1), 109861111878398. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098611118783987

Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight, & George. (2007). IT Road Warriors: Balancing Work-Family Conflict, Job Autonomy, and Work Overload to Mitigate Turnover Intentions. *MIS Quarterly*, *31*(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.2307/25148778

Aiello, J. R. (1993). Computer-Based Work Monitoring: Electronic Surveillance and Its Effects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *23*(7), 499–507. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1993.tb01100.x

Aiello, J. R., & Shao, Y. (1993). Electronic performance monitoring and stress: The role of feedback and goal setting. *HCI*, *1*, 1011–1016.

Aiello, J. R., & Svec, C. M. (1993). Computer Monitoring of Work Performance: Extending the Social Facilitation Framework to Electronic Presence1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *23*(7), 537–548. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1993.tb01102.x

AK, B. (2018). Turnover Intention Influencing Factors of Employees: An Empirical Work Review. *Journal of Entrepreneurship & Organization Management*, *07*(03). https://doi.org/10.4172/2169-026x.1000253

Alder, G. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2005). An examination of the effect of computerized performance monitoring feedback on monitoring fairness, performance, and satisfaction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*(2), 161–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.003

Alder, G. S., & Tompkins, P. K. (1997). Electronic Performance Monitoring. *Management Communication Quarterly*, *10*(3), 259–288. https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318997010003001

Alderfer, C. P. (1969). An empirical test of a new theory of human needs. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *4*(2), 142–175. https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(69)90004-x

Alge, B. J., & Hansen, S. D. (2013). Workplace Monitoring and Surveillance Research since "1984": A Review Agenda. *The Psychology of Workplace Technology*, 209–237.

Alkahtani, A. H. (2015). Investigating Factors that Influence Employees' Turnover Intention: A Review of Existing Empirical Works. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *10*(12), 152. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v10n12p152

Ambrose, M. L. (2002). Contemporary justice research: A new look at familiar questions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *89*(1), 803–812. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0749-5978(02)00030-4

Ambrose, M. L., & Alder, G. S. (2000). Designing, implementing, and utilizing computerized performance monitoring: Enhancing organizational justice. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *18*, 187–220.

Ambrose, R. M. L., Alder, G. S., & Noel, T. W. (1998). Electronic performance monitoring: A consideration of rights. *Managerial Ethics*, 71–90.

Ashforth, B. E. (1989). The experience of powerlessness in organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *43*(2), 207–242. https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(89)90051-4

Aziri, B. (2011). Job satisfaction: A literature review. *Management Research & Practice*, *3*(4).

Baard, P. P., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2004). Intrinsic need satisfaction: A motivational basis of performance and well-being in two work settings. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *34*(10), 2045–2068. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2004.tb02690.x

Bakker, A. B., & Bal, M. P. (2010). Weekly work engagement and performance: A study among starting teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*(1), 189–206. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317909x402596

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands-Resources Model: State of the Art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(3), 309–328.

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. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.2.170

Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behavior: engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*(2), 147–154. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.515

Balzer, W. K., & Sulsky, L. M. (1990). Performance appraisal effectiveness. In *Psychology in Organizations:* (pp. 133–156). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Banfield, M. (2022, December 23). *78% of Employers Are Using Remote Work Tools to Spy on You*. Entrepreneur. https://www.entrepreneur.com/growing-a-business/78-of-employers-are-using-remote-work-tools-to-spy-on-you/440400

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(3), 349–360. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.3.349

Bernstrøm, V. H., & Svare, H. (2017). Significance of Monitoring and Control for Employees' Felt Trust, Motivation, and Mastery. *Nordic Journal of Working Life Studies*, *7*(4). https://doi.org/10.18291/njwls.v7i4.102356

Bhave, D. P. (2013). The Invisible Eye? Electronic Performance Monitoring and Employee Job Performance. *Personnel Psychology*, *67*(3), n/a-n/a. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12046

Bhave, D. P., Teo, L. H., & Dalal, R. S. (2019). Privacy at Work: A Review and a Research Agenda for a Contested Terrain. *Journal of Management*, *46*(1), 127–164. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206319878254

Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J., & Ying, Z. J. (2015). Does Working from Home Work? Evidence from a Chinese Experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *130*(1), 165–218. https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qju032

Bošković, A. (2021). Employee autonomy and engagement in the digital age: The moderating role of remote working. *Ekonomski Horizonti*, *23*(3), 231–246. https://doi.org/10.5937/ekonhor2103241b

Boswell, W. R., Olson-Buchanan, J. B., & LePine, M. A. (2004). Relations between stress and work outcomes: The role of felt challenge, job control, and psychological strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *64*(1), 165–181. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(03)00049-6

Bothma, C. F. C., & Roodt, G. (2013). The validation of the turnover intention scale. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(1). https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v11i1.507

Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(5), 998–1012. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.998

Bretz, R. D., Milkovich, G. T., & Read, W. (1992). The Current State of Performance Appraisal Research and Practice: Concerns, Directions, and Implications. *Journal of Management*, *18*(2), 321–352. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639201800206

Broeck, A., Vansteenkiste, M., Witte, H., Soenens, B., & Lens, W. (2010). Capturing autonomy, competence, and relatedness at work: Construction and initial validation of the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*(4), 981–1002. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317909x481382

Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(2), 139–145. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.2.139

Brown, S. P. (1996). A meta-analysis and review of organizational research on job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin*, *120*(2), 235–255. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.120.2.235

Busse, R., & Weidner, G. (2020). A qualitative investigation on combined effects of distant leadership, organizational agility, and digital collaboration on perceived employee engagement. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *41*(4), 535–550. https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-05-2019-0224

Byrne, Z. S. (2005). Fairness Reduces the Negative Effects of Organizational Politics on Turnover Intentions, Citizenship Behavior, and Job Performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *20*(2), 175–200. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-005-8258-0

Carayon, P. (1993). Effect of Electronic Performance Monitoring on Job Design and Worker Stress: Review of the Literature and Conceptual Model. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, *35*(3), 385–395. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872089303500301

CHALYKOFF, J., & KOCHAN, T. A. (1989). COMPUTER-AIDED MONITORING: ITS INFLUENCE ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER. *Personnel Psychology*, *42*(4), 807–834. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1989.tb00676.x

CHRISTIAN, M. S., EDWARDS, B. D., & BRADLEY, J. C. (2010). SITUATIONAL JUDGMENT TESTS: CONSTRUCTS ASSESSED AND A META-ANALYSIS

OF THEIR CRITERION-RELATED VALIDITIES. *Personnel Psychology*, *63*(1), 83–117. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2009.01163.x

Cialdini, R. B. (2008). *Influence: science and practice* (5th ed.). Pearson Education.

Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: A theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(5), 834–848. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019364

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A Meta-Analysis of the Relationship Between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Counterproductive Work Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(6), 1241–1255. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.6.1241

Deci, E. L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *18*(1), 105–115.

Deci, E. L., Cascio, W. F., & Krusell, J. (1975). Cognitive evaluation theory and some comments on the Calder and Staw critique. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *31*(1), 81–85. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0076168

Deci, E. L., Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Self-determination in a work organization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(4), 580–590. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.4.580

Deci, E. L., Olafsen, A. H., & Ryan, R. M. (2017). Self-Determination Theory in Work Organizations: The State of a Science. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *4*(1), 19–43. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113108

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985a). Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior. *Contemporary Sociology*, *17*(2).

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985b). The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *19*(2), 109–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-6566(85)90023-6

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1987). The support of autonomy and the control of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *53*(6), 1024–1037. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.53.6.1024

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*(4), 227–268.

Deci, E. L., Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., & Ryan, R. M. (1991). Motivation and Education: The Self-Determination Perspective. *Educational Psychologist*, *26*(3-4), 325–346. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.1991.9653137

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 499–512. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.499

DENISON, D. R., HAALAND, S., & GOELZER, P. (2004). Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness. *Organizational Dynamics*, *33*(1), 98–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2003.11.008

DiTecco, D., Cwitco, G., Arsenault, A., & André, M. (1992). Operator stress and monitoring practices. *Applied Ergonomics*, *23*(1), 29–34. https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-6870(92)90007-i

Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(4), 547–559. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.4.547

Dreison, K. C., Luther, L., Bonfils, K. A., Sliter, M. T., McGrew, J. H., & Salyers, M. P. (2018). Job burnout in mental health providers: A meta-analysis of 35 years of intervention research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *23*(1), 18–30. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000047

Dubrin, A. J. (1991). Comparison of the Job Satisfaction and Productivity of Telecommuters versus in-house Employees: A Research Note on Work in Progress. *Psychological Reports*, *68*(3), 1223–1234. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1991.68.3c.1223

Dwivedi, S. (2015). Turnover Intentions: Scale Construction & Validation. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, *50*(3), 452–468. https://www.jstor.org/stable/24549107

Dwivedi, S., Kaushik, S., & Luxmi. (2013). Impact of Organizational Culture on Turnover Intentions in BPO Sector in India. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, *48*(4), 679–691. https://www.jstor.org/stable/23509823

Edmondson, A. (1999). Psychological Safety and Learning Behavior in Work Teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *44*(2), 350–383.

Ellickson, M. C., & Logsdon, K. (2002). Determinants of Job Satisfaction of Municipal Government Employees. *Public Personnel Management*, *31*(3), 343–358. https://doi.org/10.1177/009102600203100307

Enzle, M. E., & Anderson, S. C. (1993). Surveillant intentions and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*(2), 257–266. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.2.257

Erickson, T. J. (2005, May 26). *Testimony submitted before the US Senate Committee on Health*. Education, Labor and Pensions.

Faragher, E. B., Cass, M., & Cooper, C. L. (2005). The relationship between job satisfaction and health: a meta-analysis. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *62*(2), 105–112. https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.2002.006734

Firth, L., Mellor, D. J., Moore, K. A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How can managers reduce employee intention to quit? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *19*(2), 170–187. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940410526127

Fisher, V. E., & Hanna, J. V. (1931). *The dissatisfied worker.* https://doi.org/10.1037/10719-000

Foss, N. J., Minbaeva, D. B., Pedersen, T., & Reinholt, M. (2009). Encouraging knowledge sharing among employees: How job design matters. *Human Resource Management*, *48*(6), 871–893. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20320

Foucault, M. (1975). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison.* Penguin Books.

Foucault, M. (1980). *The history of sexuality*. Vintage Books.

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration-aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *20*(6), 915–931. https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1099-1379(199911)20:6%3C915::aid-job918%3E3.0.co;2-6

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) in Response to Job Stressors and Organizational Justice: Some Mediator and Moderator Tests for Autonomy and Emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *59*(3), 291–309. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1803

FRIED, Y., & FERRIS, G. R. (1987). THE VALIDITY OF THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL: A REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(2), 287–322. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1987.tb00605.x

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination Theory and Work Motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(4), 331–362. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.322

Gagné, M., Parker, S. K., Griffin, M. A., Dunlop, P. D., Knight, C., Klonek, F. E., & Parent-Rocheleau, X. (2022). Understanding and shaping the future of work with self-determination theory. *Nature Reviews Psychology*, *1*(1). https://doi.org/10.1038/s44159-022-00056-w

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

Gallup. (2020). *State of the american workplace*. Gallup. https://www.gallup.com/workplace/238085/state-american-workplace-report-2017.aspx

Golden, T. D. (2006). Avoiding depletion in virtual work: Telework and the intervening impact of work exhaustion on commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69*(1), 176–187. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2006.02.003

Golden, T. D., & Gajendran, R. S. (2019). Unpacking the Role of a Telecommuter's Job in Their Performance: Examining Job Complexity, Problem Solving, Interdependence, and Social Support. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *34*(1), 55–69. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9530-4

Golden, T. D., & Veiga, J. F. (2008). The impact of superior–subordinate relationships on the commitment, job satisfaction, and performance of virtual workers. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*(1), 77–88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.12.009

Golden, T. D., Veiga, J. F., & Simsek, Z. (2006). Telecommuting's differential impact on work-family conflict: Is there no place like home? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(6), 1340–1350. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.6.1340

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-Based Approach to Leadership: Development of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory of Leadership over 25 Years: Applying a Multi-Level Multi-Domain Perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *6*(2), 219–247. https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Grant, C. A., Wallace, L. M., & Spurgeon, P. C. (2013). An Exploration of the Psychological Factors Affecting Remote e-worker's Job effectiveness, Well-being and Work-life Balance. *Employee Relations*, *35*(5), 527–546. https://doi.org/10.1108/er-08-2012-0059

Greenberger, D. B., & Strasser, S. (1986). Development and Application of a Model of Personal Control in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *11*(1), 164–177. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1986.4282657

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Correlates of Employee Turnover: Update, Moderator Tests, and Research Implications for the Next Millennium. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 463–488. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600305

Gruys, M. L., & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the Dimensionality of Counterproductive Work Behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *11*(1), 30–42. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00224

Guimaraes, T. (1997). Assessing employee turnover intentions before/after TQM. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, *14*(1), 46–63. https://doi.org/10.1108/02656719710156770

Gustafson, C. M. (2002). Staff turnover: Retention. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *14*(3), 106–110.

Gustavsson, R., & Söderlund, M. (2021). *The Impact of Remote Work on Performance Monitoring*. https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/record.jsf?pid=diva2%3A1575044&dswid=4465

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *60*(2), 159–170. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0076546

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, *43*(6), 495–513. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2005.11.001

Halbesleben, J. R. (2010). A meta-analysis of work engagement: Relationships with burnout, demands, resources, and consequences. *Work Engagement: A Handbook of Essential Theory and Research*, *8*(1), 102–117.

Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., & Roth, P. L. (2006). HOW IMPORTANT ARE JOB ATTITUDES? META-ANALYTIC COMPARISONS OF INTEGRATIVE BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES AND TIME SEQUENCES. *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(2), 305–325. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2006.20786077

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(2), 268–279.

HARTH, S. C., BIGGS, J. S. G., & THONG, Y. H. (1990). Mature-age entrants to medical school: a controlled study of sociodemographic characteristics, career choice and job satisfaction. *Medical Education*, *24*(6), 488–498. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.1990.tb02664.x

Hassan, R. (2014). Factors influencing turnover intention among technical employees in Information technology organization: A Case of XYZ. *International Journal of Arts and Commerce*, *3*(9), 120–137.

Hay, M. (2002). Strategies for survival in the war of talent. *Career Development International*, *7*(1), 52–55. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430210414883

Hayes, L. J. B., & Moore, S. (2016). Care in a Time of Austerity: the Electronic Monitoring of Homecare Workers' Time. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *24*(4), 329–344. https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12164

Hershcovis, M. S., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., LeBlanc, M. M., & Sivanathan, N. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(1), 228–238. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.228

Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland : World Publishing Company.

Hogan, J. J. (1992). Turnover and What to Do About It. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *33*(1), 40–45. https://doi.org/10.1177/001088049203300120

Holland, P. J., Cooper, B., & Hecker, R. (2015). Electronic monitoring and surveillance in the workplace. *Personnel Review*, *44*(1), 161–175. https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-11-2013-0211

Hollinger, R. C., & Clark, J. P. (1983). *Theft by employees* (Vol. 126). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Holman, D., Chissick, C., & Totterdell, P. (2002). The effects of performance monitoring on emotional labor and well-being in call centers. *Motivation and Emotion*, *26*(1), 57–81. https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1015194108376

Holt, M., Lang, B., & Sutton, S. G. (2016). Potential Employees' Ethical Perceptions of Active Monitoring: The Dark Side of Data Analytics. *Journal of Information Systems*, *31*(2), 107–124. https://doi.org/10.2308/isys-51580

Hom, P. W., Lee, T. W., Shaw, J. D., & Hausknecht, J. P. (2017). One hundred years of employee turnover theory and research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*(3), 530–545. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000103

Hood, C., & Patton, R. (2021). Exploring the role of psychological need fulfilment on stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention in support staff working in inpatient mental health hospitals in the NHS: a self-determination theory perspective.

Journal of Mental Health, *31*(5), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/09638237.2021.1979487

Hoppock, R. (1935). *Job Satisfaction*.

Huczynski, A., & Buchanan, D. (2004). Theory from Fiction: A Narrative Process Perspective on the Pedagogical Use of Feature Film. *Journal of Management Education*, *28*(6), 707–726. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562903262163

Hull, C. L. (1943). Principles of Behavior. An Introduction to Behavior Theory. *The Journal of Philosophy*, *40*(20), 558. https://doi.org/10.2307/2019960

Hulsman, R. L., van der Ende, J. S. J., Oort, F. J., Michels, R. P. J., Casteelen, G., & Griffioen, F. M. M. (2007). Effectiveness of selection in medical school admissions: evaluation of the outcomes among freshmen. *Medical Education*, *41*(4), 369–377. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2929.2007.02708.x

Inc, G. (2023). *Indicator: Employee Retention & Attraction*. Gallup.com. https://www.gallup.com/467702/indicator-employee-retention-attraction.aspx

Jamal, M. T., Alalyani, W. R., Thoudam, P., Anwar, I., & Bino, E. (2021). Telecommuting during COVID 19: A Moderated-Mediation Approach Linking Job Resources to Job Satisfaction. *Sustainability*, *13*(20), 11449. https://doi.org/10.3390/su132011449

Jeske, D. (2022). Remote workers' experiences with electronic monitoring during Covid-19: implications and recommendations. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, *ahead-of-print*(ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/ijwhm-02-2021-0042

Judge, T. A., & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D. (2012). Job Attitudes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *63*(1), 341–367. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100511

Judge, T. A., Weiss, H. M., Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., & Hulin, C. L. (2017). Job attitudes, job satisfaction, and job affect: A century of continuity and of change. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*(3), 356–374. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000181

Judge, T. A., Zhang, S. C., & Glerum, D. R. (2020). *Job satisfaction. Essentials of job attitudes and other workplace psychological constructs* (pp. 207–241).

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*(4), 692–724. https://doi.org/10.5465/256287

Kakabadse, A. (1986). Organizational Alienation and Job Climate. *Small Group Behavior*, *17*(4), 458–471. https://doi.org/10.1177/104649648601700406

Kayas, O. G., Hines, T., McLean, R., & Wright, G. H. (2018). Resisting government rendered surveillance in a local authority. *Public Management Review*, *21*(8), 1170–1190. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2018.1544661

Keeping, L. M., & Levy, P. E. (2000). Performance appraisal reactions: Measurement, modeling, and method bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(5), 708–723. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.5.708

Keller, T., & Dansereau, F. (1995). Leadership and Empowerment: A Social Exchange Perspective. *Human Relations*, *48*(2), 127–146. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679504800202

Kish-Gephart, J. J., Harrison, D. A., & Treviño, L. K. (2010). Bad apples, bad cases, and bad barrels: Meta-analytic evidence about sources of unethical decisions at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(1), 1–31. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017103

Koekemoer, L., De Beer, L. T., Govender, K., & Brouwers, M. (2021). Leadership behaviour, Team effectiveness, Technological flexibility, Work Engagement and Performance during COVID-19 lockdown: an Exploratory Study. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *47*(1). https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v47i0.1829

Kular, S., Gatenby, M., Rees, C., Soane, E., & Truss, K. (2008). *Employee engagement: A literature review*.

Kumar, R. R. (2011). Turnover issues in the textile industry in Ethiopia: A case of ArbaMinch Textile Company. *African Journal of Marketing Management*, *3*(2), 32–44. https://doi.org/10.5897/AJMM.9000082

Kusurkar, R. A., Ten Cate, Th. J., van Asperen, M., & Croiset, G. (2011). Motivation as an independent and a dependent variable in medical education: A review of the literature. *Medical Teacher*, *33*(5), e242–e262. https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159x.2011.558539

Larrabee, J. H., Janney, M. A., Ostrow, C. L., Withrow, M. L., Hobbs, G. R., & Burant, C. (2003). Predicting Registered Nurse Job Satisfaction and Intent to Leave. *JONA: The Journal of Nursing Administration*, *33*(5), 271–283. https://doi.org/10.1097/00005110-200305000-00003

Lau, V. C. S., Au, W. T., & Ho, J. M. C. (2003). A Qualitative and Quantitative Review of Antecedents of Counterproductive Behavior in Organizations. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *18*(1), 73–99. https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1025035004930

Lawler, E., & Worley, C. G. (2006). Winning support for organizational change: Designing employee reward systems that keep on working. *Ivey Business Journal*, *70*(4), 1–5.

Lian, H., Lance Ferris, D., & Brown, D. J. (2012). Does taking the good with the bad make things worse? How abusive supervision and leader–member exchange interact to impact need satisfaction and organizational deviance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *117*(1), 41–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.10.003

Locke, E. A., & Taylor, M. S. (1991). Stress, Coping, and the Meaning of Work. *Stress and Coping: An Anthology*, 140–157. https://doi.org/10.7312/mona92982-014

Macey, W. H., & Al, E. (2009). *Employee engagement : tools for analysis, practice, and competitive advantage*. Wiley.

Maier, C., Laumer, S., & Weitzel, T. (2022). A Dark Side of Telework: A Social Comparison-Based Study from the Perspective of Office Workers. *Business & Information Systems Engineering*, *64*(6), 793–811. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12599-022-00758-8

Marcus, B., Taylor, O. A., Hastings, S. E., Sturm, A., & Weigelt, O. (2013). The Structure of Counterproductive Work Behavior. *Journal of Management*, *42*(1), 203–233. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313503019

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(3), 498–512. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.3.498

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job Burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*(1), 397–422. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A Theory of Human Motivation. *Psychological Review*, *50*(4), 370–396. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346

Matillion and IDG Survey: Data Growth is Real, and 3 Other Key…. (2022, January 26). Matillion. https://www.matillion.com/blog/matillion-and-idg-survey-data-growth-is-real-and-3-other-key-findings

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *77*(1), 11–37. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904322915892

Mayo, E. (1933). *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilisation*. the Andover Press.

McFeely, S., & Wigert, B. (2019, March 13). *This Fixable Problem Costs U.S. Businesses $1 Trillion*. Gallup.com; Gallup. https://www.gallup.com/workplace/247391/fixable-problem-costs-businesses-trillion.aspx

McManus, I., Livingston, G., & Katona, C. (2006). The attractions of medicine: the generic motivations of medical school applicants in relation to demography, personality and achievement. *BMC Medical Education*, *6*(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6920-6-11

McNall, L. A., & Roch, S. G. (2009). A Social Exchange Model of Employee Reactions to Electronic Performance Monitoring. *Human Performance*, *22*(3), 204–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/08959280902970385

Mehta, D., & Mehta, N. K. (2013). Employee engagement: A literature review. *Economia. Seria Management*, *16*(2), 208–215.

Meyers, N. (2003). Employee privacy in the electronic workplace. *Current Issues for IT Professionals*.

Mims, C. (2022, September 17). More Bosses Are Spying on Quiet Quitters. It Could Backfire. *Wall Street Journal*. https://www.wsj.com/articles/more-bosses-are-spying-on-quiet-quitters-it-could-backfire-11663387216

Muliawan, A. D., Green, P. F., & Robb, D. A. (2009). The turnover intentions of information systems auditors. *International Journal of Accounting Information Systems*, *10*(3), 117–136. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.accinf.2009.03.001

Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in Personality*. Oxford University Press.

Nebeker, D. M., & Tatum, B. C. (1993). The Effects of Computer Monitoring, Standards, and Rewards on Work Performance, Job Satisfaction, and Stress1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *23*(7), 508–536. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1993.tb01101.x

Neuberger, O., & Allerbeck, M. (1978). *Measurement and analysis of satisfaction with work*. Bern: Rubber.

Office and Administrative Support Occupations. (2008, September 9). Bls.gov. https://www.bls.gov/oes/current/oes430000.htm

Olafsen, A. H., Niemiec, C. P., Halvari, H., Deci, E. L., & Williams, G. C. (2016). On the dark side of work: a longitudinal analysis using self-determination theory. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *26*(2), 275–285. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432x.2016.1257611

Ongori, H. (2007). A review of the literature on employee turnover. *African Journal of Business Management P*, 49–54. http://ithuteng.ub.bw/bitstream/handle/10311/1154/Ongori_AJBM_2007.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

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

Pattnaik, L., & Jena, L. K. (2020). Mindfulness, remote engagement and employee morale: conceptual analysis to address the "new normal." *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *ahead-of-print*(ahead-of-print). https://doi.org/10.1108/ijoa-06-2020-2267

Pearce, J. L., & Porter, L. W. (1986). Employee responses to formal performance appraisal feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(2), 211–218. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.2.211

Pelaccia, T., Delplancq, H., Triby, E., Bartier, J.-C., Leman, C., & Dupeyron, J.-P. (2009). Impact of training periods in the emergency department on the motivation of health care students to learn. *Medical Education*, *43*(5), 462–469. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2009.03356.x

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2002). Narcissism and Counterproductive Work Behavior: Do Bigger Egos Mean Bigger Problems? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *10*(1&2), 126–134. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00199

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): the moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(7), 777–796. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.336

Preenen, P. T. Y., Oeij, P. R. A., Dhondt, S., Kraan, K. O., & Jansen, E. (2016). Why job autonomy matters for young companies' performance: company maturity as a moderator between job autonomy and company performance. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, *12*(1), 74. https://doi.org/10.1504/wremsd.2016.073425

Puni, A., Agyemang, C. B., & Asamoah, E. S. (2016). Leadership styles, employee turnover intentions and counterproductive work. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Development*, *5*(1), 1–7.

Purcell, J. (2013). Employee voice and engagement. In *Employee engagement in theory and practice* (pp. 205–264). Routhledge.

Quantified Organization | Deloitte. (2023, May). Www.deloitte.com. https://www.deloitte.com/an/en/issues/work/quantified-organization.html

Ratanawongsa, N., Wright, S. M., & Carrese, J. A. (2008). Well-being in residency: Effects on relationships with patients, interactions with colleagues, performance, and motivation. *Patient Education and Counseling*, *72*(2), 194–200. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2008.04.010

Ravid, D. M., Tomczak, D. L., White, J. C., & Behrend, T. S. (2019). EPM 20/20: A Review, Framework, and Research Agenda for Electronic Performance Monitoring. *Journal of Management*, *46*(1), 100–126. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206319869435

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job Engagement: Antecedents and Effects on Job Performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(3), 617–635. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.51468988

Richer, S. F., Blanchard, C., & Vallerand, R. J. (2002). A Motivational Model of Work Turnover. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *32*(10), 2089–2113. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2002.tb02065.x

Robbins, L., Katz, E. S., Geliebter, S. E., & Stern, M. (1983). Achievement motivation in medical students. *Academic Medicine*, *58*(11), 850–858.

Robinson, I. (2006). *Human Resouce Management in Organizations*. London, CIPD.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A Typology of Deviant Workplace Behaviors: A Multidimensional Scaling Study. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(2), 555–572. https://doi.org/10.5465/256693

Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or Depleting? The Dynamics of Engagement in Work and Family Roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*(4), 655. https://doi.org/10.2307/3094827

Ryan. (2017). Ryan, R. M. et Deci, E. L. (2017). Self-determination theory. Basic psychological needs in motivation, development and wellness. New York, NY : Guilford Press. *Revue Québécoise de Psychologie*, *38*(3), 231. https://doi.org/10.7202/1041847ar

Ryan, R. M., & Connell, J. P. (1989). Perceived locus of causality and internalization: Examining reasons for acting in two domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *57*(5), 749–761.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 54–67. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020

Sackett, P. R., & DeVore, C. J. (2002). Counterproductive behaviors at work. In *Handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology, Personnel psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 145–164). Sage Publications Ltd.

Saeed, I., Waseem, M., Sikander, S., & Rizwan, M. (2014). The relationship of Turnover intention with job satisfaction, job performance, Leader member exchange, Emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, *4*(2). https://doi.org/10.5296/ijld.v4i2.6100

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *21*(7), 600–619. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169

Saks, A. M., & Gruman, J. A. (2014). What Do We Really Know about Employee Engagement? *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(2), 155–182.

Samaranayake, V., & Gamage, C. (2012). Employee perception towards electronic monitoring at work place and its impact on job satisfaction of software professionals in Sri Lanka. *Telematics and Informatics*, *29*(2), 233–244. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2011.08.003

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, Job resources, and Their Relationship with Burnout and engagement: a multi-sample Study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*(3), 293–315. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.248

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *3*(1), 71–92. https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1015630930326

Sewell, G., Barker, J. R., & Nyberg, D. (2012). Working under intensive surveillance: When does "measuring everything that moves" become intolerable?. *Human Relations*, *65*(2), 189–215. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726711428958

Shaffer, J., & Darnold, T. (2020). HR practices and counterproductive behaviors: a meta-ethnographic study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *35*(7/8), 589–602. https://doi.org/10.1108/jmp-02-2020-0062

Shockley, K. M., Gabriel, A. S., Robertson, D., Rosen, C. C., Chawla, N., Ganster, M. L., & Ezerins, M. E. (2021). The fatiguing effects of camera use in virtual meetings:

A within-person field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*(8), 1137–1155. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000948

SHRM – The Voice of All Things Work. (2018, November 5). SHRM. https://www.shrm.org/pages/default.aspx

Siegel, R., König, C. J., & Lazar, V. (2022). Impact of electronic monitoring on employees: A meta-analysis. *Computers in Human Behavior Reports*, *8*, 100227. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chbr.2022.100227

Siew, L. K. (2017). Analysis of the relationship between leadership styles and turnover intention within small medium enterprise in Malaysia. *Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, *1*(1), 1–11.

Sinclair, R. R., Allen, T., Barber, L., Bergman, M., Britt, T., Butler, A., Ford, M., Hammer, L., Kath, L., Probst, T., & Yuan, Z. (2020). Occupational Health Science in the Time of COVID-19: Now more than Ever. *Occupational Health Science*, *4*(1-2), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41542-020-00064-3

Skinner, B. F. (1938). *The Behavior of Organisms: An Experimental Analysis*. Copley Publ. Group.

Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and human behavior*. Free Press.

Smith, M. J., Carayon, P., Sanders, K. J., Lim, S-Y., & LeGrande, D. (1992). Employee stress and health complaints in jobs with and without electronic performance monitoring. *Applied Ergonomics*, *23*(1), 17–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-6870(92)90006-h

Sobral, D. T. (2004). What kind of motivation drives medical students' learning quests? *Medical Education*, *38*(9), 950–957. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2929.2004.01913.x

Sobral, D. T. (2008). Student-selected courses in a medical school: scope and relationships. *Medical Teacher*, *30*(2), 199–205. https://doi.org/10.1080/01421590701754169

Spagnoli, P., Molino, M., Molinaro, D., Giancaspro, M. L., Manuti, A., & Ghislieri, C. (2020). Workaholism and Technostress During the COVID-19 Emergency: The Crucial Role of the Leaders on Remote Working. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.620310

Spector, P. E. (1997). The Role of Frustration in Antisocial Behavior at Work. In *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp. 1–17). Sage Publications Inc.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). The Stressor-Emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behavior. *Counterproductive Work Behavior: Investigations of Actors and Targets.*, 151–174. https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-007

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68*(3), 446–460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.10.005

Stahl, G. K., Chua, C. H., Caligiuri, P., Cerdin, J.-L., & Taniguchi, M. (2009). Predictors of turnover intentions in learning-driven and demand-driven international assignments: The role of repatriation concerns, satisfaction with company support, and perceived career advancement opportunities. *Human Resource Management*, *48*(1), 89–109. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20268

Stanton, J. M. (2000). *Reactions to Employee Task-specific Monitoring: Framework, Review, and Research Directions.* Human Performance 13 (1), 85–113.

Stanton, J. M., & Julian, A. L. (2002). The impact of electronic monitoring on quality and quantity of performance. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *18*(1), 85–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0747-5632(01)00029-2

Statt, D. A. (2004). *The Routledge Dictionary of Business Management*. Routledge.

STEENSMA, H., BREUKELEN, W. V., & STURM, M. (2003). STUDYING EMPLOYEE TURNOVER BY SPLITTING UP THE USUAL COMPARISON GROUP. *Journal of Individual Employment Rights*, *11*(3), 211–227. https://doi.org/10.2190/46u9-t06l-8m32-pefm

Șulea, C., Maricuțoiu, L., Pitariu, H. D., & Dumitru, C. Z. (2010). Predicting counterproductive work behaviors: A meta-analysis of their relationship with individual and situational factors. *Psihologia Resurselor Umane*, *8*(1), 66–81. https://doi.org/10.24837/pru.v8i1.427

Taylor, S., & Chartered Institute Of Personnel And Development. Cipd. (2005). *People resourcing.* London.

Tomczak, D. L., Lanzo, L. A., & Aguinis, H. (2018). Evidence-based recommendations for employee performance monitoring. *Business Horizons*, *61*(2), 251–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2017.11.006

Tremblay, M. A., Blanchard, C. M., Taylor, S., Pelletier, L. G., & Villeneuve, M. (2009). Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale: Its value for organizational psychology research. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue*

Canadienne Des Sciences Du Comportement, *41*(4), 213–226. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015167

Truss, C. (2007). *Working life : employee attitudes and engagement 2006 ; [research report]*. Chartered Inst. Of Personnel And Development.

Tsui, A. S., Egan, T. D., & III, C. A. O. (1992). Being Different: Relational Demography and Organizational Attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *37*(4), 549. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393472

Tsui, A. S., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1980). Exploring individual and Organizational Boundaries: A Tavistock Open Systems ApproachLawrenceW. Gordon. (Ed.). Exploring individual and Organizational Boundaries: A Tavistock Open Systems Approach. New York: Wiley, 1979. 256 pp., $25.00. *Academy of Management Review*, *5*(2), 308–310. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1980.4288791

Vaglum, Wiers-Jenssen, & Ekeberg. (1999). Motivation for medical school: the relationship to gender and specialty preferences in a nationwide sample. *Medical Education*, *33*(4), 236–242. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2923.1999.00293.x

Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L. G., Blais, M. R., Briere, N. M., Senecal, C., & Vallieres, E. F. (1992). The Academic Motivation Scale: A Measure of Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Amotivation in Education. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *52*(4), 1003–1017.

Van den Broeck, A., De Cuyper, N., De Witte, H., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2010). Not all job demands are equal: Differentiating job hindrances and job challenges in the Job Demands–Resources model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *19*(6), 735–759. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320903223839

Van den Broeck, A., Ferris, D. L., Chang, C.-H., & Rosen, C. C. (2016). A Review of Self-Determination Theory's Basic Psychological Needs at Work. *Journal of Management*, *42*(5), 1195–1229. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316632058

Van den Broeck, A., Sulea, C., Vander Elst, T., Fischmann, G., Iliescu, D., & De Witte, H. (2014). The mediating role of psychological needs in the relation between qualitative job insecurity and counterproductive work behavior. *Career Development International*, *19*(5), 526–547. https://doi.org/10.1108/cdi-05-2013-0063

Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., Elliot, A. J., Soenens, B., & Mouratidis, A. (2014). Moving the Achievement Goal Approach One Step Forward: Toward a Systematic Examination of the Autonomous and Controlled Reasons Underlying Achievement Goals. *Educational Psychologist*, *49*(3), 153–174. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2014.928598

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. Wiley.

Wasmuth, W. J., & Davis, S. W. (1983). Managing Employee Turnover. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *23*(4), 15–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/001088048302300406

Watson, D., & Slack, A. K. (1993). General Factors of Affective Temperament and Their Relation to Job Satisfaction over Time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *54*(2), 181–202. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1993.1009

Webb, C. T., Sedlacek, W. E., Cohen, D. I., Shields, P. H., Gracely, E. J., Hawkins, M., & Nieman, L. Z. (1997). The impact of nonacademic variables on performance at two medical schools. *PubMed*, *89*(3), 173–180.

Weiss, H. M., Nicholas, J. P., & Daus, C. S. (1999). An Examination of the Joint Effects of Affective Experiences and Job Beliefs on Job Satisfaction and Variations in Affective Experiences over Time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *78*(1), 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1999.2824

Wells, D. L., Moorman, R. H., & Werner, J. M. (2007). The impact of the perceived purpose of electronic performance monitoring on an array of attitudinal variables. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *18*(1), 121–138. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1194

White, C. B. (2006). Smoothing Out Transitions: How Pedagogy Influences Medical Students' Achievement of Self-regulated Learning Goals. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, *12*(3), 279–297. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-006-9000-z

Wierenga, A., Branday Jm, Simeon, D., Pottinger, A. M., & Brathwaite, B. (2003). Motivation for and concerns about entering a medical programme. *PubMed*, *52*(4), 304–310.

Williams, G. C., Saizow, R., Ross, L., & Deci, E. L. (1997). Motivation underlying career choice for internal medicine and surgery. *Social Science & Medicine*, *45*(11), 1705–1713. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0277-9536(97)00103-2

Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. (1992). Theoretical Perspectives for Strategic Human Resource Management. *Journal of Management*, *18*(2), 295–320. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639201800205

Wynen, J., Van Dooren, W., Mattijs, J., & Deschamps, C. (2018). Linking turnover to organizational performance: the role of process conformance. *Public Management Review*, *21*(5), 669–685. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2018.1503704

Xanthopoulou, D., Baker, A. B., Heuven, E., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Working in the sky: A diary study on work engagement among flight attendants. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *13*(4), 345–356. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.13.4.345

Young, C. A., & Corsun, D. L. (2009). Burned! the Impact of Work Aspects, Injury, and Job Satisfaction On Unionized Cooks' Intentions To Leave the Cooking Occupation. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *34*(1), 78–102. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348009349816

Yu, J., & Wu, Y. (2021). The Impact of Enforced Working from Home on Employee Job Satisfaction during COVID-19: An Event System Perspective. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *18*(24), 13207.

VITA

MICHAEL ANTHONY GUGLIELMO

	Born, Goshen, New York
1992-1997	Bachelor of Science - Psychology University at Albany Albany, NY
2003-2014	District Manager of South Florida & Puerto Rico Guess, Inc. Miami, FL
2008-2014	Bachelor of Arts – Liberal Studies Florida International University Miami, FL
2014-2015	Master of Science – Human Resource Management Florida International University Miami, FL
20216-2022	Manager of U.S. Stores Vilebrequin Miami, FL
2020-2024	Doctor of Business Administration Florida International University Miami, FL
2023-Present	Adjunct Faculty Miami Dade College Miami, FL
2024-Present	Adjunct Faculty Florida International University Miami, FL
2024-Present	People & Culture Generalist Frost Science Museum Miami, FL