

EMPLOYEES' AND MANAGERS' PERCEPTIONS ON WORK PERFORMANCE IN REMOTE AND IN-OFFICE WORKING SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT

Based on data collected through a survey on a sample of 801 employees and 200 managers in Romania, this research investigates the productivity of home versus office work, the demographics of efficient remote workers, and the accuracy of their productivity self-assessments. There is a general consensus among both employees and managers that work location alone does not impact overall, technical, or social performance based on both managerial and employee assessments. The analysis highlights several significant perceptual gaps and demographic influences. A notable discrepancy exists in performance ratings: managers consistently rate their employees' performance lower than how employees rate themselves, regardless of work location, particularly for core tasks like fulfilling performance criteria and duties without mistakes. Managers and in-office employees agree completely on social performance, but they show significant disagreement regarding remote workers' social skills and teamwork. This suggests that the lack of physical contact fosters managerial distrust or skepticism concerning the social effectiveness of remote staff. Demographic factors like gender and age are not significant predictors of self-assessed performance. On the other hand employees without minor children were significantly more likely to report higher productivity when working from home, indicating that the presence of children influences perceived productivity based on work location. The future of work depends on efficient adaptation of the organizations to new working conditions.

KEYWORDS: teleworking, managers vs employees, work performance, technical performance, social performance

1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic catalyzed an abrupt global transition to remote work, compelling rapid adaptation from both employees and organizations. This shift presented immediate challenges: employees struggled with work-life integration, while

companies addressed concerns over productivity and accelerated their digital transformation.

Initially a crisis response, the remote work model was soon lauded by corporate leaders for its cost savings and health benefits, with no apparent loss in productivity. By the

fall of 2020, leaders frequently claim that the new remote work model was highly beneficial. They argued it protected employees' health while simultaneously cutting costs related to office space and maintenance, with no reported decline in productivity (Mutiganda et al., 2022; Park & Jae, 2024; Straus et al., 2023; Van Der Wal, 2020).

However, as this arrangement became long-term, critical questions emerged regarding its sustainability. Given the widespread adoption of remote work, significant apprehension has emerged regarding its potential impact on employees. Key areas of concern include the erosion of work-life balance, the challenge of maintaining sustained productivity in non-traditional work environments replete with domestic distractions, and the manifestation of adverse psychosocial effects, most notably professional isolation. Consequently, a rigorous examination of these multifaceted issues is imperative to evaluate the long-term viability of teleworking paradigms. As organizations increasingly transition towards permanent remote or "work from anywhere" models, the acquisition of empirical data on employee well-being and performance is critical for the formulation of evidence-based, sustainable future-of-work policies.

Romania is an interesting case study for teleworking because it presents a high-contrast environment defined by several key factors:

➤ *First, Romania remains at the lower end of teleworking adoption within the European Union, with the practice stabilizing at levels far below the EU average post-pandemic.*

Before 2020, telework was almost non-existent in Romania. Data shows that less than 1% of Romanian employees worked from home (0.8% in 2019), one of the lowest rates in the entire European Union (Vasilescu, 2021). During the pandemic, Romania experienced an "explosion" in remote work, reaching a rate

of 2.5% in 2020 (Eurostat, 2025a). In a matter of months, the rate jumped significantly, with surveys showing telework adoption rates as high as 24% in sectors like pharmaceuticals and 50% of companies in the business service sector (which includes IT) using full telework models (Vasilescu, 2021). Data from Eurostat reveals that following the peak during the pandemic, the proportion of employees regularly telecommuting has levelled off at a substantially reduced rate of 1.2% by 2023 (Eurostat, 2025a). Within this context, Romania's legal framework (Law 81/2018) had to be rapidly amended post-2020 to become more flexible and to keep pace with technology and social change.

➤ *Second, Romania faces a significant infrastructure paradox regarding telework: while the country possesses world-class, widely available public internet, its businesses are failing to provide the necessary internal digital tools for remote work.*

Romania possesses a powerful "digital engine" for telework, characterized by high-speed fixed broadband internet infrastructure, ranking 13th in the world in 2025, (World Population Review, 2025), high internet penetration rate of 85.7% in 2023 (INS, 2023). On the other hand, the 2024 Eurostat figures show that Romanian enterprises lag in providing the necessary infrastructure for telework, with only 39% offering comprehensive remote access to emails, documents, and business applications, placing the country among the lowest in the EU (Eurostat, 2025b).

➤ *Third, in Romania, the telework-capable sector coexists with a large part of the general population that has lower-than-average digital skills.*

Romania has a dominant Information & Communications Technology sector, concentrated in hubs like Bucharest, Cluj-Napoca and Iasi, that employs about 200,000 specialists and direct contributes 7.99% of the national GDP in 2023 (ANIS, 2024).

According to *Digital Economy and Society Index 2022 – Human Capital*, Romania excels at producing highly skilled, specialized talent: it ranks 2nd in the EU for the percentage of female ICT specialists and 4th in the EU for the number of ICT graduates. This advanced capability simultaneously stands in sharp opposition to the general population's significantly lower-than-average digital skills, ranking 27th in the EU (European Commission, 2022). This means Romania has a small, highly concentrated pool of world-class tech specialists on one side, and a large part of the general population and workforce that is digitally disconnected on the other.

➤ *Forth, Romania is facing a unique socio-economic challenge related to telework housing.*

While the country has the general digital infrastructure for telework, its physical housing stock presents a major barrier. According to 2024 Eurostat data (Eurostat, 2024a), Romania has one of the highest overcrowding rates in the EU at 40% (16% average in EU). This means that for a significant portion of the workforce, the “work from home” ideal is practically difficult. The lack of adequate space, quiet, and privacy makes it difficult for many Romanians to telework effectively, leading to increased stress and work-life conflict.

In conclusion, the digital and physical infrastructure and skills gaps in Romania are major obstacles to the wider adoption of digital technologies in businesses and in digital public services, being a crucial real-world counter-narrative to the simple “work from anywhere” trend. More recent analyses from 2025 suggest that while the hybrid working model is gaining attraction as a preferred option for flexibility, a widespread shift to fully remote work is not materializing, with younger generations of workers increasingly valuing in-person interaction for career growth and connection (Alexe, 2025).

2. Literature Review

The COVID-19 pandemic catalysed a global shift towards teleworking, necessitating significant advancements in corporate digital infrastructure and the implementation of robust cybersecurity systems to support remote operational demands (Bedon et al., 2024; Santhiya et al., 2023). This transition was particularly precipitous in nations with previously low rates of remote work, such as Romania (Țălnar-Naghi, 2021). Given these sudden changes to the professional world, it is a priority to examine the link between work and employee performance.

A foundational framework for understanding employee performance was proposed by Abramis, who defined it as “*the effective execution by a worker of job-specific tasks and the employee's useful contribution to the work environment*” (Abramis, 1994, p. 549). Abramis's model delineates performance into two principal components: technical performance and social performance. The first refers to an employee's proficiency in executing core job responsibilities, meeting deadlines, making sound decisions, and maintaining accuracy, while social performance highlights the employee's ability to communicate effectively, negotiate, and resolve conflicts within the organizational context (Abramis, 1994). To measure these two dimensions, an instrument comprising several items was developed and validated in the same study. Thus, this way of measuring workplace performance once again emphasizes the multidimensionality of the concept (Abramis, 1994).

The impact of working from home (WFH) on organizational performance and productivity is a subject of ongoing debate with conflicting findings. Initial studies during the early pandemic often linked WFH to decreased productivity, attributing this decline to inadequate preparation, poor communication, and the sudden shock of the transition (Kitagawa et al., 2021).

More recent research, however, suggests a positive impact on productivity, with employees citing benefits such as the comfort of their home environment and significant time and money saved on commuting (Angelici & Profeta, 2020; Choukir et al., 2022; Săvescu et al., 2022).

Recent studies have further explored various aspects of employee performance in telework settings. A systematic review found that employees and supervisors with the option to telework voluntarily often reported higher perceived performance compared to those working on-site. This positive association was noted across jobs with varying complexity (Mutiganda et al., 2022). Also, a study of U.S. federal employees found that teleworkers who worked remotely more often tended to perform better, which may suggest that high-performing individuals are more likely to telework frequently (Park & Jae, 2024). This aligns with the notion that an employee's confidence in managing their own work acts as a buffer, preventing declines in well-being and engagement that could otherwise harm perceived performance (Straus et al., 2023).

On the other hand, sustained employee performance is not solely contingent upon organizational and technological factors, because it is intrinsically linked to individual well-being and the capacity to maintain a healthy work-life equilibrium. Teleworking, by its nature, can erode the traditional spatio-temporal boundaries separating professional and personal domains, posing significant challenges for employees (Wang et al., 2021). The resultant tension from concurrently managing responsibilities in both spheres can negatively affect professional engagement and, ultimately, performance. Also, a study on Nigerian university employees found no statistically significant positive relationship between telework and job performance (Naqshbandi et al., 2024). While daily output may be

higher on remote days, the long-term, person-level performance differences between remote and in-office workers are often negligible or mixed. This inconsistency is often attributed to the significant challenges of the remote environment; for example, one study during the pandemic demonstrated a decline in perceived productivity specifically due to hurdles such as inadequate technology, childcare responsibilities, isolation, and the lack of clear physical boundaries (Mutiganda et al., 2022).

Different studies from the organizational psychology area of research are focusing on the perception gap between how employees and managers rate performance. The most consistent finding is that employees' self-assessments of performance are significantly higher and more favourable than their managers' ratings (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988).

In summary, perceived performance in WFH is highly context-dependent, with individual, task-based, and organizational differences shaping outcomes compared to WFO (Mutiganda et al., 2022).

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Research Objectives

In this paper, we assessed work performance in remote and in-office working systems, based on managers' perceptions of employee performance against the employees' own self-assessments. The following research questions have been addressed: Is remote work conducive to productivity to the same extent as office work? Are workers (employees and managers) even more productive working from home? Are the subjective self-assessments that workers provide when it comes to their own productivity accurate? Who are the employees who work efficiently remotely/ from home (age, gender, number of kids in household)?

3.2. Study Design

Within the context of this study, teleworking refers to a voluntary and regular work arrangement wherein an employee utilizes information and communication technology to perform their duties remotely and away from the employer's organized premises.

3.2.1. Sampling

The survey targeted two distinct categories of teleworkers: employees and managers. Data was collected through an online survey administered through a Romanian online access panel.

● *Target 1 - Employees.* To fit this target, respondents had to be full-time employees, of ages between 21 to 60. Additionally, in a regular work week in the past 12 months they had to work from a residential location via an internet connection at least 20% of the total working hours. The research team used a quota sampling method to ensure the sample represented the target population of employees in terms of age (four age groups), gender, region, locality size (four urbanisation categories) and activity domain, based on data from the 2020 SNA Focus study coordinated by BRAT (Romanian Joint Industry Committee for Print and Internet) – a nation-wide survey carried out between June-December 2020 (Biroul Român de Audit Transmedia, 2020). The final sample of the employees included 801 participants, representing a 19% response rate. This size provides a margin of error of $\pm 3.46\%$ with 95% confidence. Afterward, the sample data was statistically weighted to precisely match the demographic structure of the target population. Within the total sample of 801 respondents, a subgroup of 378 participants confirmed that, in addition to teleworking, they also performed their duties from the employer's office, thereby engaging in a hybrid work arrangement.

● *Target 2 - Managers.* To fit this target, respondents had to be full-time employees, hold a management position in the company they worked for and manage a team of at least five employees that had worked from home in the past 12 months prior to data collection. No restriction regarding the share of time employees had to spend working from home was defined for this target, to avoid narrowing down the pool of respondents to the point where the sample would become very challenging to fulfil. The final sample for managers consisted of 200 participants. To reach the managers' target, recruitment was carried out via convenience sampling, using a combination of online panel members and snowball sampling. The 200 managers evaluated the work performance of their teams in both contexts. Out of them, 82 managers evaluated the activity of their team members who have been working from the workplace.

3.2.2. Variables

Work performance was measured by adapting the battery developed by Abramis (Abramis, 1994). Participants conducted a self-evaluation of their performance across two distinct work modalities: remote (WFH) and on-site (WFO). The evaluation instrument consisted of a ten-item battery (Figure no. 2) segmented into two dimensions. The first dimension, technical performance, comprised seven items (Cronbach Alpha=0.9214) assessing task-oriented duties like decision-making, accuracy, and goal attainment. The second, social performance, included three items (Cronbach Alpha=0.7098), who measure interpersonal effectiveness, such as collaboration and conflict management. Agreement with each statement was quantified using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Totally disagree" to "Totally agree." This approach moves beyond simple output metrics and provides a more comprehensive assessment by analysing employees' self-perception of their abilities.

To have a broader image, the work performance was also measured as an output metric: employees were first asked evaluate their work over the past 12 month, choosing one answer from four options: excellent (“I had substantial achievements/ I exceeded targets”), good (“I managed to achieve my work objectives/ targets”), balanced (“I performed adequately, but there are areas where I could use some improvement”) and unsatisfactory (“There are many areas where my work needs improvement”). Then, without knowing in advance, they were asked to recount the results of the most recent performance review conducted by their manager: excellent (“I was praised for my substantial achievements/ for exceeding targets”), good (“I received appreciation for having achieved my work objectives/ reached targets”), balanced (“I received some positive feedback, but also some constructive criticism”), unsatisfactory (“the emphasis was on areas where my work needs improvement”).

As demographic variables, the focus was on gender and age since these are variables reported by EU in its studies related to areas such as “ICT specialists in employment” (Eurostat, 2025c) and “Digital economy and society statistics – households and individual” (Eurostat, 2024b). We included one more demographic variable related to number of kids in the household, because this one is important taking into consideration the specificity of Romanian social-economic context (housing “overcrowded”).

The theoretical framework of the research is presented in Figure no.1. This model tests different pathways:

- Is there a work productivity “location gap” (WFH vs WFO)?
- Is there a work productivity perception gap (managers vs employees) in case of different working types (WFH, WFO)?
- Does the effect of WFH on the employees’ perception gap depend on gender, age and number of people in the household?

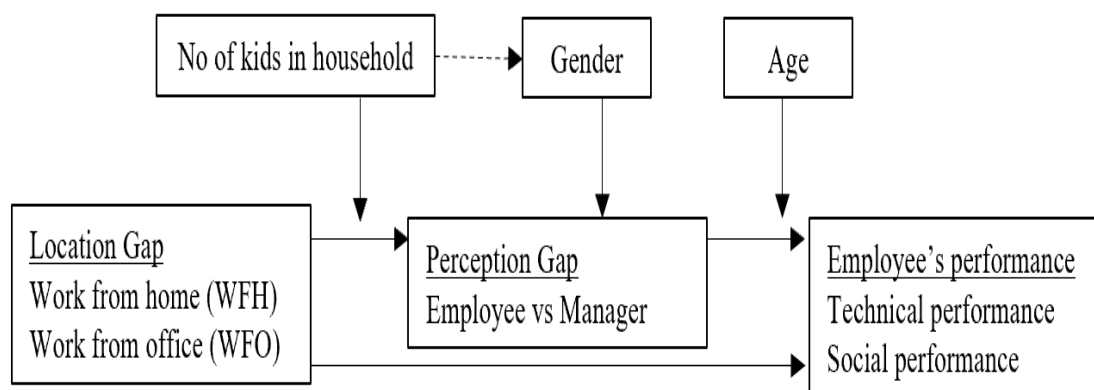


Figure no. 1: *The theoretical model of perceived work performance*
(Source: Own processing based on collected data)

4. Results

Table no. 1 describes statistics related to work performance (technical, social and overall). They are structured to compare

perceptions between managers and employees, across both remote and in-office work settings (Figure no. 2).

Table no. 1

Work performance statistics related to employees and managers in WFH and WFO settings

		Employees WFH	Employees WFO	Managers WFH	Managers WFO
Performance dimension / Nb of respondents		801	378	200	82
1. Handling the responsibilities and daily demands of your / their work	Mean	6.20	6.31	5.91	6.05
	St.dev.	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.8
2. Making the right decisions at work	Mean	5.94*	6.08*	5.72	5.84
	St.dev.	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
3. Performing your / their work-related duties without mistakes	Mean	6.01	6.04	5.65	5.87
	St.dev.	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9
4. Getting things done on time	Mean	6.10	6.15	5.83	5.87
	St.dev.	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0
5. Achieving your/ their work objectives	Mean	6.05	6.16	5.86	5.91
	St.dev.	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9
6. Taking initiatives at your/ their job	Mean	5.82*, **	6.02*	5.43**	5.68
	St.dev.	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.0
7. Fulfilling the performance criteria demanded at your/ their job	Mean	6.22**	6.26	5.82**	5.89
	St.dev.	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9
Technical performance	Mean	6.07**	6.14**	5.74**	5.87**
	St.dev.	0.91	0.85	0.89	0.77
8. Getting along with others at work	Mean	6.10	6.14	5.86	5.93
	St.dev.	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0
9. Avoiding arguing with others	Mean	6.05	5.92	5.75	5.76
	St.dev.	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0
10. Handling disagreements by compromising and meeting other people half-way	Mean	5.42	5.44	5.51	5.57
	St.dev.	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1
Social performance	Mean	5.86**	5.84	5.71**	5.82
	St.dev.	1.00	1.00	0.93	0.87
Overall performance	Mean	6.00**	6.05**	5.73**	5.86**
	St.dev.	0.86	0.82	0.84	0.74

* Significant location gap, WFH vs WFO (p<0.05)

** Significant perception gap, Managers vs. Employees (p<0.05)

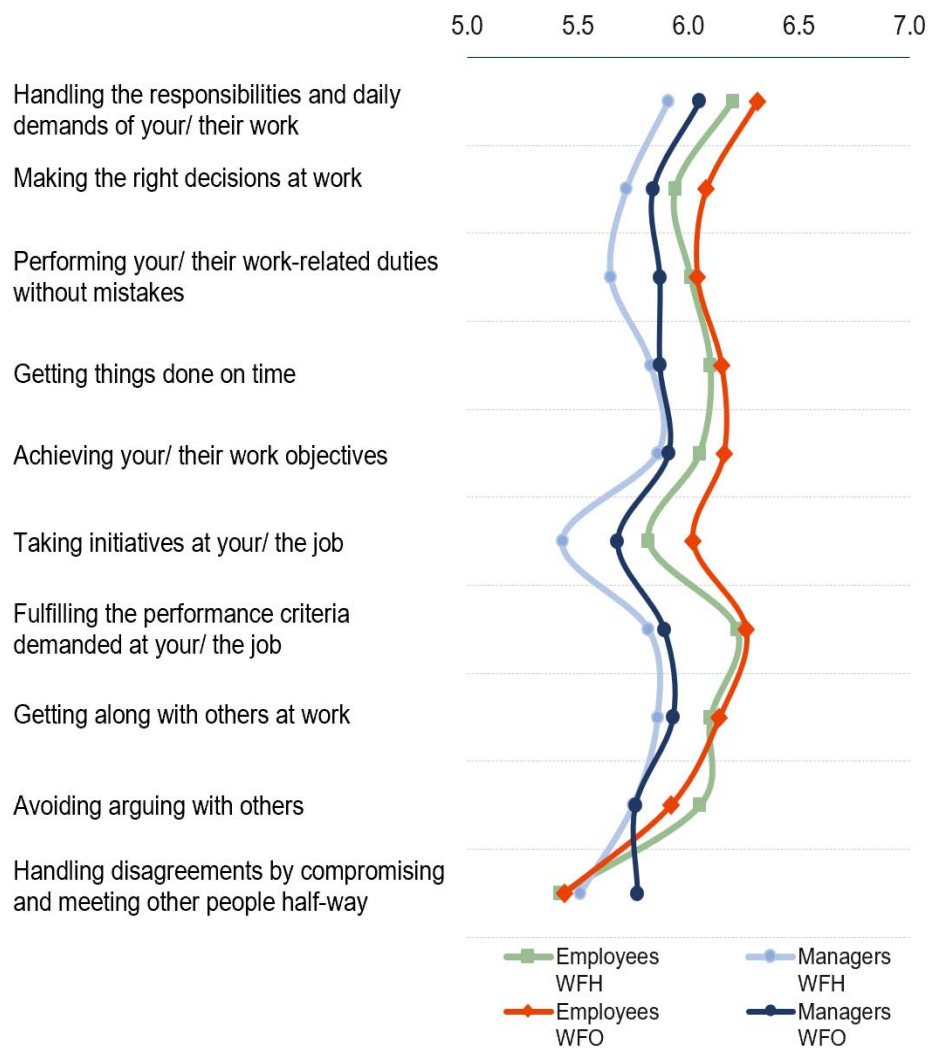


Figure no. 2: *Average scores on items measuring job performance (employees: 801 WFH, 378 WFO, managers: 200 WFH, 82 WFO) (scale: 1 – totally disagree ... 7 – totally agree)*
(Source: Own processing based on collected data)

Independent two-sample t-tests (Welch's t-test, assuming non-equal variance) were conducted to compare employees and managers' work performance ratings of remote versus in-office employees.

➤ **The "Location Gap" (WFH vs. WFO performance)**

Both categories (managers and employees) seem to agree that remote and in-office workers actually do not perform differently. According to managerial evaluations, there were no statistically significant differences in performance between remote and in-office workers

across overall ($p=0.2273$), technical ($p=0.2254$), or social ($p=0.3465$) dimensions, in general. This includes core tasks like "Handling the responsibilities and daily demands of their work" ($p=0.2211$), "Getting things done on time" ($p=0.7501$), and "Achieving their work objectives" ($p=0.6755$). The only item approaching significance was "Taking initiatives at their job", where managers rated WFH employees lower, but even this was not significant ($p=0.0816$). At the same time, employees' assessments indicate that work performance is not contingent on location (home vs. office). The differences between

remote and in-office staff are non-significant for Overall Performance ($p=0.3646$), Technical Performance ($p=0.1548$), and Social Performance ($p=0.7242$). For most individual items, there is no difference as well. However, employees did rate themselves as significantly lower in WFH on two specific items: “Making the right decisions at work” ($p=0.0313$) and “Taking initiatives at your job” ($p=0.0049$). This suggests that employees working in the office are perceived, at least by other employees, as being stronger in decision-making and proactivity.

➤ ***The “Perception Gap” (Managers vs. Employees perceptions on performance)***

There is a highly significant perception gap between employees and managers. In almost all cases, the employees’ mean score is higher than the managers’ mean score. For WFH staff, the perception gap is statistically significant across all three dimensions: Technical ($p<0.001$), Social ($p=0.043$) and Overall ($p<0.001$). In all cases, WFH employees have a higher mean performance score than WFH managers. For WFO staff, the perception gap is significant for Technical ($p=0.006$) and Overall ($p=0.037$) performance. WFO employees have higher mean scores in these categories. Interestingly, the gap for Social performance is not significant ($p=0.857$). This suggests that WFO employees and WFO managers are in agreement about their social performance. The perception gap (Employees vs. Managers) exists in almost every aspect of work, for both WFH and WFO. This gap is strongest in “Fulfilling the performance criteria demanded at your/ their job” ($p=0.0000$) “Performing duties without mistakes” ($p=0.0038$) and “Taking initiatives” ($p=0.0002$) for WFH staff.

➤ ***Performance dimensions where the two staff categories agree upon in one or both working settings***

The dimension with no significant gaps, meaning all groups (employees/managers; WFH/WFO) have a similar perception is the conflict resolution: “Handling disagreements by compromising and meeting other people half-way” ($p_{\text{employees (WFH vs WFO)}}=0.8224$; $p_{\text{managers (WFH vs WFO)}}=0.6771$; $p_{\text{WFH (managers vs employees)}}=0.3481$; $p_{\text{WFO (managers vs employees)}}=0.3527$). Both staff categories agree on social dimensions of work performance in WFO. There is no significant difference for perceptions on “Performing your/their work-related duties without mistakes” ($p=0.1273$), “Getting along with others at work” ($p=0.0854$) and “Avoiding arguing with others” ($p=0.1980$). At the same time, WFH employees and managers do have a significant perception gap on “Getting along with others at work” ($p=0.0051$) and “Avoiding arguing with others” ($p=0.0010$).

Across demographic groups (Figure no. 3) we performed the Chi-squared test of independence, to see the significant relationships between these variables and the employees’ self-assessed work performance (differentiated into three categories: equal performance in WFH and WFO settings, higher performance at home compared to office and higher work performance in the office). This analysis focused specifically on the 378 respondents who engaged in a hybrid work model, meaning they performed work from both home and the office.

The analysis revealed no significant differences between gender and age categories across self-reported work performance categories ($p_{\text{gender}}=0.9728$; $p_{\text{age}}=0.4833$). On the other hand, employees who do not have children reported a significantly higher work performance when working from home than working at the office ($p=0.018$).

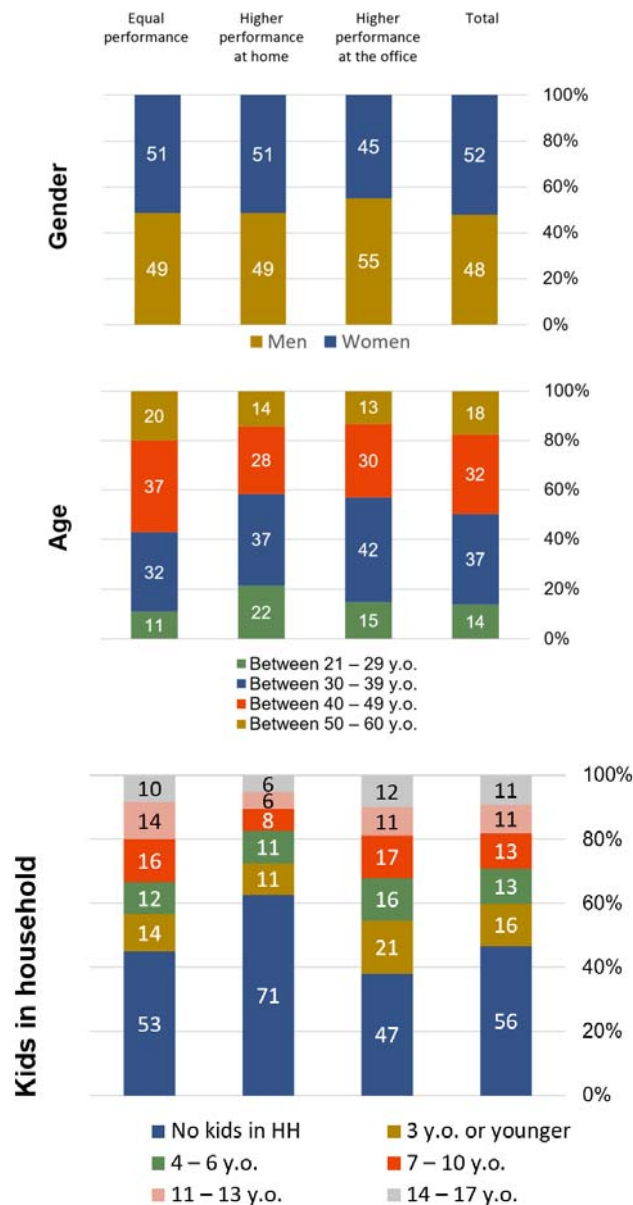


Figure no. 3: *Differences in work performance between the two setups (WFH & WFO) among demographic groups, % (employees: 378)*
(Source: Own processing based on collected data)

The latest formal job performance appraisals appear to match employees' own assessment of the quality of their work (Table no. 2). 72% of employees who recalled having received a good performance review, meaning they had successfully achieved their work objectives and targets, assessed their own performance as good. The highest divergence is among those who stated they had received a

balanced review, containing some criticism – 48% of them evaluated their own work better than their managers had. The fact that in a WFH system, nearly half of employees who receive constructive criticism do not agree with it (Table no. 2) and believe their performance is better than their manager's assessment can lead to demotivation, disengagement, and a failure to improve in key areas.

Table no. 2

Employees' own work assessment vs. formal performance review conducted by manager (employees: 801 WFH)

On columns - Formal work performance review On rows - Work self-assessment	Balanced: I received some positive feedback, but also some constructive criticism	Good: I received appreciation for having achieved my work objectives/ reached targets	Excellent: I was praised for my substantial achievements/ for exceeding targets
Balanced: I performed adequately, but there are areas where I could use some improvement	51%	16%	3%
Good: I managed to achieve my work objectives/targets	37%	72%	29%
Excellent: I had substantial achievements/ I exceeded targets	11%	12%	68%

5. Conclusions

We investigated several faces of the work performance in two systems: WFH and WFO, showing that it is a complex concept. Some conclusions are listed below.

Work location (WFH vs. WFO) does not impact performance. The analysis shows no statistically significant difference in performance – whether overall, technical, or social – between remote and in-office workers. This finding is consistent across both managerial evaluations and employee self-assessments.

A significant perception gap exists between managers and employees. Employees consistently rate their own performance significantly higher than their managers do. This disagreement is present in both WFH and WFO settings and is strongest when evaluating core tasks like “fulfilling performance criteria” and “performing duties without mistakes”.

Managers distrust remote social skills. For in-office workers, managers and employees are in complete agreement about social performance. For remote workers, there is a significant disagreement. This suggests that a manager’s lack of physical/visual contact creates significant

skepticism about an employee’s social skills and teamwork that does not exist for in-office staff.

The analysis revealed that while demographic factors like gender and age are not statistically significant predictors of self-assessed performance, neither in the office or home settings, parental status emerged as a critical differentiator). The findings indicate that the presence of minor children significantly influences perceived productivity depending on the work location. Specifically, employees without children were significantly more likely to report higher performance when working from home.

Several important theoretical contributions can be mentioned based on the results of this study. The fact that managers and employees agree that technical, social, and overall performance are statistically identical regardless of location (WFH/WFO) provides strong evidence against theories that state physical co-location as a prerequisite for effective performance. Another interesting finding is the difference in the perception gap for social performance. WFO teams are aligned (no gap), while WFH teams are deeply misaligned. This is important to the fields

of organizational behaviour, suggesting that a single “organizational culture” might not apply uniformly in a hybrid setting.

The results of the study provide actionable insights for organizational leadership. Managers can implement more effective strategies and support systems designed to address the unique demands of modern work arrangements, ultimately leading to a more productive work environment. Managers rate the performance of their employees lower than how employees rate themselves, regardless of the place from where they are working. One critical point is the fact that employees and managers disagree on core items of a good work, like “Fulfilling performance criteria” and “Performing duties without mistakes”. Within this context, it is recommended to implement objective, measurable and transparent performance criteria. At the same time, the fact that both staff categories agree that WFH and WFO actually do not perform differently, but there is a worrying perception from both employees and managers that WFH staff is less proactive and decisive, imposes some practical measures to make the proactive work of WFH employees seen. Other areas of improvement are measures to align on social performance in WFH system and measures to improve communication, clarity and the perceived fairness of the performance review process.

6. Limitations of the Study and Future Research Directions

The study is affected by several limitations. First, the authors used a mixed non-probabilistic sampling method (combination of quota sampling and convenience sampling). This sampling method was considered as the most suitable for the study’s national scope. By applying quotas based on age, gender, region, locality size and activity domain, the risk of

unrepresentativeness on these key variables was mitigated. This pragmatic approach was considered appropriate given the exploratory nature of the research and its objective to facilitate comparative analysis between specific subgroups: remote versus in-office workers and managers versus non-managerial employees. Second, the measurement of the performance is based on self-reported data, the results therefore might be affected by subjectivity or by the “self-enhancement” effect. The authors mitigated the risk of self-evaluation bias by using a detailed, multi-item scale to measure both technical and social performance self-perceptions, and by strategically asking for the output metric performance self-assessment before prompting employees to recall their manager’s formal appraisal. Third, the study is a cross-sectorial survey, the sample consisted in Romanian employees. Therefore, the results might be different on the long run or in other socio-economic environments.

For future research, it would be interesting to extend such studies in other countries or to investigate homogenous sectors of activity. Another interesting direction would be to compare employees’ self-reported performance with formal evaluation provided by direct managers. Nevertheless direction, future research should move beyond “is remote work (more) productive?” and instead to focus on “why” and “how” performance, and its perception, diverges between these two groups: employees and managers.

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