



Employee Experience Design Across Flexible Work Arrangements

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Abstract

Flexible work has expanded the range of choices organizations can make concerning when, where, and how employees perform their roles. Yet employee experience cannot be inferred from work location alone. An employee working remotely may experience high autonomy but weak social connection, while an office-based employee with flexible hours may experience strong team inclusion but limited control over workload boundaries. Hybrid arrangements can combine the advantages of spatial flexibility and interpersonal contact, but they can also produce coordination complexity and unequal access to information when poorly designed. This study develops an Employee Experience Design Framework for Flexible Work (EXDF) that evaluates flexible arrangements through six dimensions: employee choice, role–arrangement fit, inclusion parity, coordination clarity, boundary control, and managerial support. Because no real employee survey, work-scheduling, collaboration-platform, or human-resource dataset was supplied, the study adopts a transparent simulation-based design. A synthetic analytical sample of 400 employee profiles was distributed equally across flex-time on-site, hybrid, predominantly remote, and compressed/flexible-hour arrangements. Under a high-maturity experience-design scenario, simulated mean employee-experience scores were 77.6 for flex-time on-site employees, 81.9 for hybrid employees, 78.4 for predominantly remote employees, and 80.8 for employees using compressed or flexible-hour arrangements.

The relatively overlapping distributions demonstrate that no arrangement is assumed to be universally superior. Instead, experience quality depends on whether flexibility provides meaningful choice, fair access to organizational opportunities, reliable communication, appropriate social connection, manageable boundaries, and supportive supervision. The paper contributes to flexible-work research by shifting attention from the binary question of where employees work toward the broader problem of how organizations design equitable and sustainable experiences across heterogeneous work arrangements. All numerical findings are simulated and should be interpreted as methodological scenario evidence rather than empirical estimates of actual organizations.

Keywords: employee experience, flexible work arrangements, hybrid work, telework, work flexibility, employee well-being, work design, organizational inclusion

1. Introduction

Flexible work arrangements encompass organizational practices that give employees varying degrees of control over the location, timing, duration, or scheduling of work. These arrangements can include



telecommuting, flexible starting and finishing times, compressed workweeks, reduced-location requirements, and combinations of office-based and remote work. Earlier research already demonstrated that telecommuting and other flexible arrangements cannot be evaluated through a simple positive-versus-negative distinction. Gajendran and Harrison's meta-analysis found generally favorable associations between telecommuting and several employee outcomes while also showing that effects are connected with factors such as perceived autonomy and the intensity of telecommuting. Allen, Golden, and Shockley later concluded that telecommuting effectiveness depends substantially on contextual and implementation conditions rather than on remote work itself.

One important mechanism through which flexible work can improve employee experience is increased control over working time and location. Kelly and colleagues found that workplace interventions increasing employees' schedule control could reduce work–family conflict and improve work–family fit. Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, and Shockley's meta-analysis likewise showed that the relationship between flexible work arrangements and work–family conflict depends on the particular form and meaning of flexibility rather than flexibility operating as a single uniform construct. These findings suggest that the experiential value of flexibility derives partly from whether employees obtain genuine discretion that helps them manage work and nonwork responsibilities.

Flexibility can nevertheless generate new demands. Kelliher and Anderson identified work intensification as a potential unintended consequence of flexible working, showing why greater autonomy does not necessarily translate automatically into a lighter or healthier employee experience. Ter Hoeven and Van Zoonen similarly found that flexible work designs can contribute positively to well-being through work–life balance, autonomy, and effective communication, while also creating negative pathways through interruptions. An employee may therefore value freedom concerning work location while simultaneously experiencing extended availability, communication overload, fragmented concentration, or difficulty separating work from personal life.

Organizational support and fairness further influence how employees experience flexibility. Bentley and colleagues' socio-technical analysis of teleworker well-being emphasized the importance of organizational support, while Kossek and Lautsch highlighted inequalities in access to and outcomes from work–life flexibility across occupational levels. Choi's longitudinal analysis of U.S. federal agencies found that telework prevalence and organizational support for telework were associated with lower voluntary turnover. Flexible work therefore becomes an employee-experience issue not only because individuals work in different places but because those arrangements can affect visibility, opportunity access, managerial relationships, work–life boundaries, and perceptions of organizational support.

The present study consequently conceptualizes Employee Experience Design Across Flexible Work Arrangements as an integrated organizational-design problem. It argues that a high-quality flexible-work system should not attempt to make every employee's daily experience identical. Instead, it should create comparable access to support, information, inclusion, development, autonomy, and organizational belonging while allowing legitimate differences in how work is performed. A simulation-based methodology is adopted because no actual employee dataset was supplied. The objective is to develop a transparent analytical framework through which different flexible arrangements can later be evaluated with real employee-experience evidence.

2. Objectives of the Study

2.1 To Conceptualize Employee Experience Beyond Work Location

The first objective is to develop a broader understanding of employee experience under flexible work. Flexible work research frequently distinguishes teleworkers from nonteleworkers or examines individual flexibility practices separately. Such distinctions are useful, but they can obscure the fact that employees using the same nominal arrangement may have very different experiences. Allen, Golden, and Shockley's synthesis demonstrates that telecommuting outcomes vary according to the circumstances under which it is implemented, while Gajendran and Harrison's meta-analysis similarly indicates that intensity and underlying psychological mechanisms matter.

The study therefore defines flexible-work employee experience as the employee's cumulative perception of autonomy, inclusion, coordination, support, sustainable boundaries, and role effectiveness while working within a particular configuration of temporal and spatial flexibility. This definition moves analysis away from asking whether remote, hybrid, or office-based work is intrinsically superior and toward examining whether the design surrounding each arrangement enables employees to perform effectively while remaining connected to organizational resources.

2.2 To Develop an Employee Experience Design Framework

The second objective is to construct an organizational framework for evaluating flexible-work experience systematically. Existing literature indicates that choice is particularly important. Anderson and Kelliher emphasized the importance of employee choice in flexible-working engagement, and research on telework management has also demonstrated differences between employees who do and do not have meaningful choice over their arrangements. Flexibility imposed by the organization can therefore differ psychologically from flexibility actively selected by employees.

The proposed framework integrates employee choice with five additional dimensions: role–arrangement fit, inclusion parity, coordination clarity, boundary control, and managerial support. The inclusion of these dimensions recognizes that flexible-work quality is partly relational and organizational. Employees require clarity about communication and availability, equitable access to meetings and development opportunities, realistic workload expectations, and managerial practices that assess contribution rather than physical visibility.

2.3 To Compare Simulated Experiences Across Flexible Work Arrangements

The third objective is to examine how employee experience may differ across several common flexible-work arrangements while intentionally avoiding an assumption that one arrangement must dominate all others. The simulation compares flex-time on-site, hybrid, predominantly remote, and compressed/flexible-hour work under a common high-quality design environment.

The analysis considers overall employee-experience score, autonomy, inclusion parity, coordination quality, boundary sustainability, and social connection. The purpose is to demonstrate that different arrangements may offer different experiential strengths. For example, predominantly remote work may provide relatively high location autonomy while presenting greater social-connection challenges, whereas on-site flexible schedules may support interpersonal accessibility while offering less



location discretion. These comparisons are theoretical simulations and require empirical validation before organizational application.

3. Review of Literature

3.1 Flexibility, Autonomy, and Work–Life Experience

Research on flexible working has consistently emphasized employee control as one of the principal mechanisms through which flexibility can influence work experience. Kelly and colleagues' workplace research demonstrated that greater schedule control could reduce work–family conflict and improve work–family fit. Allen and colleagues' meta-analysis similarly showed that different forms of flexibility have different implications for work–family conflict, illustrating why the construct should be disaggregated rather than treated as a single benefit.

Gajendran and Harrison's meta-analysis of telecommuting identified perceived autonomy as an important explanatory mechanism connecting telecommuting with employee outcomes. Their findings also challenge the assumption that reduced physical presence automatically damages workplace relationships. Instead, outcomes depend on how telecommuting is structured and on its intensity. Allen, Golden, and Shockley later reviewed the evidence and similarly concluded that telecommuting can be effective but that its effectiveness depends upon multiple boundary conditions rather than a simple work-from-home effect.

Flexible schedules can consequently be understood as resources when they increase meaningful control. However, a distinction must be maintained between employee-oriented flexibility and organization-oriented variability. A schedule that changes unpredictably according to employer demand may technically be flexible while reducing the employee's ability to plan personal life. Research on working-time flexibility likewise indicates that the design and direction of flexibility matter for work–life balance.

3.2 Flexible Work as a Combination of Resources and Demands

Flexible work is better conceptualized as a bundle of potential resources and demands than as a uniform employment benefit. Ter Hoeven and Van Zoonen's study of 999 employees found positive pathways from flexible work design to well-being through autonomy, work–life balance, and effective communication, alongside a negative pathway involving interruptions. The study illustrates why employee experience can improve and deteriorate simultaneously along different dimensions.

Kelliher and Anderson found evidence of work intensification among flexible workers, raising the possibility that employees may reciprocate flexibility through greater effort or experience blurred limits around working time. This creates a design challenge. An organization can offer flexibility in where employees work while maintaining norms that reward permanent accessibility, late-night responsiveness, or invisible overtime. Under such conditions, the formal arrangement appears flexible but the lived experience may become increasingly demanding.

Communication technology further alters this balance. It can make distributed work possible, broaden access to colleagues, and reduce dependence on physical co-location. At the same time, continuous digital communication can increase interruptions and create expectations of immediate

response. Ter Hoeven and Van Zoonen's resource–demand approach is especially useful because it avoids treating technology-supported flexibility as inherently beneficial or harmful.

3.3 Support, Equality, and Flexible-Work Implementation

Managerial and organizational support strongly influence whether flexibility becomes practically usable. Bentley and colleagues found organizational support to be important within their socio-technical analysis of teleworker well-being. Managers influence work allocation, performance evaluation, meeting participation, communication expectations, developmental opportunities, and the informal legitimacy associated with using flexibility.

Flexible work can also create inequality when different occupational groups have unequal access to flexibility or when using flexibility produces different career consequences. Kossek and Lautsch's review positions work–life flexibility partly as an inequality issue because flexibility access and outcomes may vary according to occupational status. This is particularly relevant to employee-experience design because an organization may report generous flexibility overall while certain operational, customer-facing, or lower-level roles have substantially fewer options.

De Menezes and Kelliher's systematic review also demonstrates that evidence linking flexible working directly with organizational performance has historically been more complex than simple business-case claims suggest. Experience design should therefore avoid promising universal productivity gains from flexibility and instead concentrate on creating arrangements appropriate to task, employee, team, and organizational requirements.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Research Design and Synthetic Analytical Sample

A simulation-based quantitative explanatory design was adopted because no real employee-experience survey, human-resource information-system record, office-attendance dataset, collaboration-platform log, or work-scheduling dataset was provided. The study therefore makes no claim to have observed actual employee attitudes or organizational outcomes. Simulation is used solely to operationalize the conceptual framework and demonstrate how flexible-work experience could be analyzed empirically.

The synthetic analytical sample contains 400 employee profiles, divided equally among four flexible-work arrangements: 100 flex-time on-site employees, 100 hybrid employees, 100 predominantly remote employees, and 100 employees using compressed or flexible-hour arrangements. The sample size is a methodological design choice rather than a representation of a real population.

All simulated employees are assumed to operate within an organization possessing a relatively mature flexible-work infrastructure. This design allows comparison of work arrangements without artificially making one group perform poorly because of obviously deficient implementation. The resulting differences should therefore be interpreted as illustrative variations in experiential profiles rather than causal effects of location or scheduling.

The simulation does not use p-values, confidence intervals, causal estimates, or inferential claims. Such statistics would create unsupported empirical precision. Future research could reproduce the framework using real employee survey responses and use multilevel modeling to account for employees being nested within teams, functions, and managers.

4.2 Employee Experience Design Framework

The proposed Employee Experience Design Index (EXDI) contains six dimensions:

$$[EXDI = 0.20EC + 0.15RF + 0.20IP + 0.15CC + 0.15BC + 0.15MS]$$

where (EC) represents employee choice, (RF) role–arrangement fit, (IP) inclusion parity, (CC) coordination clarity, (BC) boundary control, and (MS) managerial support.

The weights are theoretical parameters and have not been empirically estimated. Employee choice and inclusion parity receive relatively high weights because flexibility can lose much of its experiential value when employees lack meaningful control or when alternative work arrangements reduce access to organizational participation.

Table 1: Operationalization of the Employee Experience Design Framework

Dimension	Weight	Operational Meaning	Illustrative Organizational Evidence
Employee Choice	0.20	Degree of meaningful influence employees have over when and where eligible work is performed	Arrangement choice, schedule input, reasonable adjustment mechanisms
Role–Arrangement Fit	0.15	Alignment between flexibility and actual task, customer, collaboration, and concentration requirements	Task-based work-location guidelines rather than status-based rules
Inclusion Parity	0.20	Comparable access to information, visibility, development, recognition, and participation	Remote-accessible meetings, transparent opportunities, equivalent performance criteria
Coordination Clarity	0.15	Shared understanding of availability, communication channels, response expectations, and team overlap	Team charters, core collaboration windows, escalation protocols
Boundary Control	0.15	Employee capacity to regulate transition between working and nonworking time	Right-to-disconnect norms, workload controls, asynchronous practices
Managerial Support	0.15	Managerial behaviors that legitimize and effectively coordinate flexible working	Outcome-based supervision, trust, regular support, fair allocation of opportunities

Source: Author-developed simulation framework informed by research on employee choice, flexible-work outcomes, work–family control, teleworker support, and flexibility inequality.

The framework deliberately avoids including physical presence as an indicator of experience quality. An employee may work primarily on-site and still experience excellent flexibility if scheduling



control, work boundaries, managerial support, and development opportunities are strong. Conversely, an employee may work remotely five days per week and experience poor flexibility if working hours are unpredictable or permanent digital availability is implicitly required.

The EXDI should therefore be interpreted as a proposed measurement architecture rather than a validated scale. Before organizational deployment, its dimensions would require expert review, questionnaire-item development, content validation, pilot testing, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, reliability assessment, and criterion validation against established measures of job satisfaction, engagement, work–family conflict, well-being, and turnover intention.

4.3 Simulation Procedure and Evaluation Metrics

Synthetic employee-experience scores were generated on a 0–100 scale. For each work arrangement, distributions were constructed around moderately high experience values representing a supportive flexible-work environment. The resulting mean scores were approximately 77.6 for flex-time on-site work, 81.9 for hybrid work, 78.4 for predominantly remote work, and 80.8 for compressed/flexible-hour arrangements.

Five supporting experience indicators were also modeled: autonomy, inclusion parity, coordination quality, boundary sustainability, and social connection. These dimensions were designed to show trade-offs rather than produce a predetermined ranking. Predominantly remote work, for example, receives relatively strong autonomy but a lower simulated social-connection score. Flex-time on-site work receives stronger social connection but somewhat less spatial autonomy.

The principal analytical criterion is therefore experience configuration rather than arrangement superiority. A work arrangement can perform differently across dimensions without being categorized as universally good or bad. This mirrors the established literature showing that flexible work can simultaneously provide resources and create demands.

The analysis further assumes that employees differ in preferences, household circumstances, commuting conditions, work tasks, personality, career stage, and desired boundaries. Individual variation is therefore intentionally retained within each simulated group. The box-and-whisker graph presents this variation directly instead of displaying only group averages.

5. Analysis

5.1 Comparative Employee Experience Across Flexible Arrangements

Predominantly remote work records a mean score of 78.4, while flex-time on-site work records a mean of 77.6, with the differences remaining intentionally moderate because the model does not assume that work location independently determines employee experience without considering implementation conditions. The median results show a similar pattern, with hybrid employees recording a median score of 81.1, compressed or flexible-hour employees 81.9, remote employees 78.1, and flex-time on-site employees 78.0. The relatively narrow separation across these distributions supports the theoretical proposition that multiple work arrangements can generate positive employee experiences when they are thoughtfully designed, appropriately implemented, and supported by effective organizational practices.



Table 2: Simulated Employee Experience Across Flexible Work Arrangements

Flexible Work Arrangement	Synthetic	Mean EXDI	Median EXDI	Autonomy	Inclusion Parity	Coordination Quality	Boundary Sustainability	Social Connection
Flex-Time On-Site	100	77.6	78.0	74	84	82	77	86
Hybrid	100	81.9	81.1	86	82	81	80	82
Predominantly Remote	100	78.4	78.1	91	77	76	75	70
Compressed/Flexible Hours	100	80.8	81.9	84	81	79	83	80

Note: All data are simulated for methodological demonstration. No real employees were surveyed. The table demonstrates why overall scores alone are insufficient. Predominantly remote employees receive the highest simulated autonomy value at 91 but the lowest social-connection score at 70. Flex-time on-site employees have comparatively high social connection and inclusion but lower autonomy. Hybrid employees achieve a relatively balanced profile across the five supporting dimensions, while compressed/flexible-hour workers perform strongly on boundary sustainability.

These patterns should not be interpreted as universal characteristics of the arrangements. They illustrate the type of multidimensional analysis organizations should undertake. Different organizational cultures, role requirements, technologies, managers, and employee populations could produce substantially different profiles.

5.2 Choice, Inclusion, and Coordination as Experience Differentiators

The simulation suggests that flexibility creates the strongest experience when it is accompanied by meaningful choice. Anderson and Kelliher emphasized choice as an important component of flexible-work engagement, while research examining telework in government indicates that employees prevented from accessing preferred arrangements can report substantially different attitudes from employees who choose not to telework. This means organizations should distinguish between an employee who prefers office work and an employee who is denied a feasible alternative.

Inclusion parity becomes particularly important when teams contain employees using different arrangements. Hybrid and remote work can create information asymmetries if important discussion occurs informally among co-located colleagues. An equitable employee-experience design should therefore ensure that formal decisions, developmental opportunities, performance criteria, and essential information do not depend excessively on physical proximity.

Coordination quality cannot be solved merely by scheduling additional meetings. Employees need clarity concerning communication channel, expected response time, core collaboration periods,

decision ownership, and which activities genuinely benefit from synchronous interaction. Excessive synchronous coordination can reduce the autonomy that flexible arrangements are intended to provide. The modeled results consequently treat coordination as a design variable rather than a justification for universal co-location. Organizations can preserve collaboration through deliberate overlap periods, transparent documentation, reliable handoffs, and thoughtful synchronous work while allowing individual employees substantial control over other periods.

5.3 Sustainable Boundaries and Variation Within Arrangements

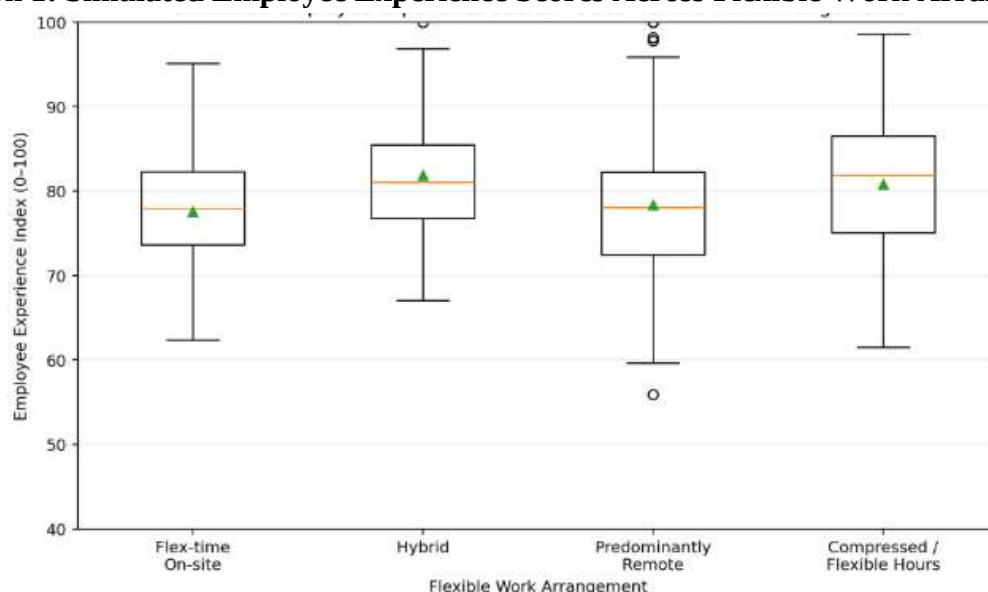
The simulation also reveals meaningful dispersion within every arrangement. Even under a common supportive design, employee-experience scores do not cluster around a single value. Predominantly remote work has the widest simulated standard deviation among the four groups, reflecting the theoretical possibility that remote arrangements can be experienced very differently depending on personal preference, home working conditions, role requirements, communication practices, and social needs.

This variability is consistent with the broader literature cautioning against treating flexible work as a universally homogeneous experience. Ter Hoeven and Van Zoonen identify simultaneous resources and demands within flexible work, while Allen, Golden, and Shockley emphasize contextual moderators of telecommuting effectiveness.

Boundary sustainability also requires explicit organizational attention. Kelliher and Anderson's evidence concerning work intensification suggests that employees can experience greater effort demands alongside flexible practices. Flexibility should therefore not be evaluated positively when employees obtain location freedom only by extending working hours or remaining permanently reachable.

The most mature employee-experience system would consequently monitor not only satisfaction with flexibility but also workload, recovery, communication burden, meeting volume, after-hours contact, and whether employees feel able to use flexibility without reputational or career penalties.

Graph 1: Simulated Employee Experience Scores Across Flexible Work Arrangements





Supporting data: Flex-time on-site mean = 77.6; hybrid = 81.9; predominantly remote = 78.4; compressed/flexible hours = 80.8. Each simulated arrangement contains 100 observations.

Interpretation: The box-and-whisker distributions overlap substantially. This indicates that arrangement type alone does not determine the modeled employee experience. Each arrangement contains employees reporting comparatively stronger and weaker experiences despite operating within the same broad flexibility category.

Key finding: The most important design question is not simply “Where should employees work?” but “What organizational conditions allow employees using different arrangements to experience autonomy, inclusion, coordination, sustainable boundaries, and support?”

6. Discussion

6.1 From Flexible Work Policy to Employee Experience Architecture

The first implication of the study is that flexible-work policy and flexible-work experience are not equivalent. A policy can describe permitted arrangements without determining how employees actually experience them. Two employees formally classified as hybrid workers may differ substantially in how much control they have over office days, how their managers evaluate performance, whether important meetings are remote-accessible, how often they are contacted outside working hours, and whether career opportunities are equally available.

Research has repeatedly demonstrated that implementation conditions matter. Bentley and colleagues emphasize organizational support in teleworker well-being, while Choi reports longitudinal evidence associating telework and supportive telework environments with lower voluntary turnover. These findings reinforce the need to evaluate the infrastructure surrounding flexibility rather than counting the number of employees allowed to use it.

Employee experience architecture therefore requires organizations to specify the quality conditions under which flexibility operates. These conditions include clear eligibility principles, meaningful employee input, role-based reasoning, equitable performance management, communication norms, technology access, managerial capability, boundary protection, and mechanisms for employees to modify arrangements when circumstances change.

This architecture also needs sufficient flexibility to accommodate legitimate variation. Uniformity is not necessarily fairness. Customer-facing and operational roles may require more physical presence than individual analytical roles, but fairness requires transparent reasons, equivalent respect, and alternative forms of flexibility where location flexibility is technically constrained.

6.2 Designing for Parity Rather Than Identical Work Patterns

The second implication concerns organizational equality. A flexible organization should not attempt to make every employee work in the same manner. It should instead protect experience parity across different ways of working. Kossek and Lautsch's work demonstrates why occupational inequality must remain part of flexibility analysis, particularly when higher-status employees have greater access to valued flexibility.

Experience parity means that remote employees should not systematically receive less information because they are absent from informal conversations. Office-based employees should not be

assumed to possess weaker work–life needs merely because their jobs require physical presence. Employees using compressed schedules should not be excluded from development opportunities occurring on nonworking days, and hybrid employees should not be required to commute solely to participate in meetings that remain predominantly virtual.

Parity also requires outcome-oriented performance management. Physical visibility provides a convenient but potentially misleading managerial signal. Managers in flexible environments need clearer standards concerning goals, quality, responsiveness, collaboration, and contribution so that proximity does not become an informal substitute for performance evidence.

Managerial capability is consequently central to employee-experience design. Flexible teams require managers who can establish expectations, build trust, identify isolation, coordinate interdependent work, support employees using different arrangements, and intervene when flexibility produces workload or communication problems. Flexibility without managerial redesign can transfer substantial coordination responsibility to individual employees.

6.3 Sustainable Flexibility Requires Boundaries, Connection, and Adaptation

The third implication is that sustainable flexibility requires simultaneous protection of autonomy and social connection. Flexible work becomes unsustainable when autonomy turns into isolation or when connectivity turns into permanent availability. Ter Hoeven and Van Zoonen's findings are particularly relevant because they show how flexible work can generate well-being benefits through resources while also producing interruption-related demands.

Boundary control should therefore become a formal design criterion. Organizations can establish reasonable response windows, limit unnecessary after-hours communication, encourage asynchronous work where appropriate, periodically review meeting loads, and distinguish genuine urgency from habitual immediacy. These practices preserve the temporal autonomy that makes flexible work valuable. Social connection requires an equally deliberate approach. Remote and hybrid employees may need structured opportunities for relational interaction, mentoring, informal learning, and team identity. However, connection should not be equated with maximizing office attendance. Effective organizations can use physical co-location selectively for activities where it creates distinctive value, including complex problem solving, relationship development, learning, and certain forms of collaborative creation.

Finally, arrangements should remain adaptable. Employee preferences and job demands can change across project cycles, life stages, health circumstances, team configurations, and organizational development. A flexible-work design that was highly suitable six months earlier may become less effective later. Periodic arrangement reviews therefore allow flexibility to remain responsive rather than becoming a rigid employment category.

7. Conclusion

Employee experience across flexible work arrangements cannot be reduced to a simple contest between office work, hybrid work, and remote work. Decades of flexible-work research demonstrate that autonomy, schedule control, employee choice, managerial support, organizational context, communication practices, and workload demands influence whether flexibility improves or weakens



employee outcomes. The central organizational problem is therefore one of design rather than location selection alone.

This study developed an Employee Experience Design Framework consisting of employee choice, role–arrangement fit, inclusion parity, coordination clarity, boundary control, and managerial support. These dimensions provide a basis for evaluating flexibility as an integrated employee experience. The framework intentionally distinguishes equality of employee experience from identical working patterns, recognizing that legitimate role differences can require different arrangements while still permitting comparable standards of fairness, inclusion, and organizational support.

The simulation reinforces this argument. Hybrid employees obtained a mean simulated employee-experience score of 81.9, compressed/flexible-hour employees 80.8, predominantly remote employees 78.4, and flex-time on-site employees 77.6. The overlapping distributions are more important than the relatively small differences between group means. They demonstrate that each arrangement can produce a range of experiences and that no flexible-work model should be treated as universally superior. All numerical findings are synthetic and must not be interpreted as population estimates or empirical evidence from actual employees.

Future research should validate the EXDI using longitudinal employee data and should examine individual, team, managerial, occupational, and organizational-level variation simultaneously. Researchers could link employee-experience surveys with scheduling records, communication patterns, meeting loads, development opportunities, turnover, absenteeism, performance, and well-being indicators while applying appropriate privacy and ethical safeguards. Particular attention should be given to flexibility inequality, proximity-related career effects, work intensification, digital interruption, and differences between employee-chosen and employer-imposed flexibility. The overall conclusion is that high-quality flexible work is not created by giving every employee the same workplace; it is created by designing different work arrangements around common principles of choice, fairness, connection, clarity, sustainability, and support.

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