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PREDICTING OFFICE WORKERS' PERFORMANCE THROUGH TECHNOSTRESS AND SELF-EFFICACY: A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING APPROACH

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Abstract

Technostress is commonly framed as detrimental, yet digital demands may also stimulate performance when appraised as manageable challenges. This study tests technostress and self-efficacy as predictors of office-worker performance among 280 workers aged 18-35 in South Jakarta who used digital technologies in daily tasks. A 28-item five-point Likert questionnaire was analyzed using partial least squares structural equation modeling. One performance indicator with an outer loading of 0.485 was removed; the final model retained 27 indicators and satisfied reliability, convergent-validity, and discriminant-validity criteria. The structural model explained 60.4% of performance variance. Technostress showed a positive and significant relationship with performance, while self-efficacy also contributed positively. This pattern indicates a potential techno-eustress process: within the observed range, manageable technology-related demands may mobilize effort when employees possess confidence and coping resources. The cross-sectional self-report design cannot establish causality, eliminate common method bias, or confirm an inverted U-shaped effect. Managers should combine realistic digital workloads, technology-enabled prioritization, right-to-disconnect practices, resilience training, coaching, and technical support. The study extends Indonesian evidence beyond education and public-sector samples to heterogeneous metropolitan office work.

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INTRODUCTION

Digital technologies are embedded in routine office work, shaping communication, coordination, decision-making, and output delivery. Cloud platforms, enterprise applications, mobile communication, and data dashboards can improve information access and shorten transaction time, but they also intensify work pace, interruptions, connectivity, and continuous learning demands. Reviews consistently associate poorly managed digital demands with exhaustion, impaired well-being, boundary erosion, and reduced productivity (Borle et al., 2021; Dragano & Lunau, 2020; Nastjuk et al., 2024; Nisafani et al., 2020; Rasool et al., 2022). These tensions are salient in metropolitan business environments such as South Jakarta, where heterogeneous office roles depend heavily on information and communication technology.

Technostress refers to strain arising from the use of, or pressure to use, digital technologies. Its established creators are techno-overload, techno-invasion, techno-complexity, techno-insecurity, and techno-uncertainty, which respectively capture pressure to work faster, intrusion into non-work time, difficulty mastering systems, fear of replacement, and instability caused by repeated updates. Empirical and review

evidence shows that these demands can affect mental health, work-family boundaries, productivity, and service outcomes (Harris et al., 2022; La Torre et al., 2020; Molino et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023). Algorithmic control and continuous system changes can further reduce perceived autonomy and intensify technology-related strain (Cram et al., 2022).

The effect of technostress is not uniformly negative. The challenge-hindrance stressor framework proposes that demands appraised as manageable opportunities for learning or achievement may mobilize effort, whereas demands appraised as obstructive deplete resources (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005; Mazzola & Disselhorst, 2019). In information-systems research, this distinction is reflected in techno-eustress and techno-distress (Tarafdar et al., 2019). Positive appraisal, sufficient resources, and an enabling context can convert digital pressure into concentration, learning, flow, or task activation (Califf et al., 2020; Nascimento et al., 2024; Taser et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2020), while unmanaged overload continues to create adverse consequences.

Self-efficacy is a central personal resource in this appraisal process. It reflects confidence in one's ability to organize and execute actions required to attain work goals. Employees with stronger self-efficacy tend to persist when tasks are difficult, seek solutions, and interpret setbacks as manageable. In technology-intensive work, job and technical self-efficacy can reduce exhaustion, support work-life balance, and shape the translation of technostress into performance or technology adoption (Chang et al., 2024; Ma et al., 2021; Saidy et al., 2022; Yener et al., 2021). Continuous techno-training and access to support can reinforce techno-efficacy and work effort (Golz et al., 2021; Rayburn et al., 2021).

Employee performance is a multidimensional outcome involving quality, quantity, timeliness, accuracy, task execution, and responsibility. Digital systems can support these outcomes by improving access and coordination, but performance may deteriorate when cognitive load, fatigue, or boundary violations exceed workers' resources. Evidence therefore varies by occupation and context: technology-related strain may undermine service outcomes (Christ-Brendemuhl & Schaarschmidt, 2020), yet manageable demands supported by training and self-efficacy can coexist with favorable performance (Saleem et al., 2021; Saleem & Malik, 2023). Performance measurement should consequently combine outcome and behavioral indicators rather than rely on a single productivity measure (Vuong & Nguyen, 2022).

Indonesian evidence remains fragmented and concentrated in education or public-institution settings. Magistra et al. (2021) and Novianty and Sedjo (2023) examined teachers, while Mustika et al. (2021) showed that individual technostress creators did not produce uniform effects on satisfaction and role performance. Pauzi et al. (2022) confirmed a positive contribution of self-efficacy to employee performance, and Diana et al. (2025) reported positive effects of technostress and self-efficacy in a higher-education service institution. These contexts are informative but differ from heterogeneous private and public office roles in a metropolitan business environment, where digital platforms, task cycles, and performance expectations vary across organizations.

A methodological gap also remains. Multiple linear regression can estimate relationships among observed composite scores but does not explicitly assess measurement error or the quality of multi-item latent constructs. Covariance-based SEM is appropriate when the primary objective is strict theory confirmation and global model-fit assessment, whereas partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-

SEM) is particularly suitable when the objective emphasizes prediction, explained variance, and simultaneous assessment of measurement and structural models (Hair et al., 2019; Hair & Alamer, 2022). PLS-SEM also supports predictive diagnostics and effect-size interpretation for complex constructs without requiring multivariate normality assumptions as stringent as those commonly associated with covariance-based estimation (Shmueli et al., 2019).

This study therefore examines technostress and self-efficacy simultaneously among office workers and uses PLS-SEM to evaluate both construct quality and predictive relationships. It aims to describe the levels of technostress, self-efficacy, and performance among office workers in South Jakarta and to test whether technostress (H1) and self-efficacy (H2) are positively associated with performance. The study contributes by positioning the potential bright side of technostress within the challenge-hindrance paradigm, extending Indonesian evidence beyond education and public-sector samples, and identifying organizational practices that can preserve performance without normalizing excessive digital strain.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study used a quantitative, descriptive-verificative, cross-sectional survey design. The descriptive component summarized technostress, self-efficacy, and employee performance, while the verificative component tested relationships among the three latent constructs. The target population comprised office employees working in technology-based environments in South Jakarta. No official sampling frame simultaneously identified workplace location, routine technology use, age, and minimum tenure; consequently, the exact number of eligible workers could not be enumerated and the operational population was treated as indeterminate for recruitment purposes.

A non-probability purposive sampling procedure was used. Eligible respondents were office employees aged 18-35 years, employed by an organization located in South Jakarta, with at least six months of work experience, and routine use of computers, smartphones, software applications, or digital platforms. The age restriction defined the intended young-workforce study population and was not designed to represent all office-worker age groups. The questionnaire contained 28 observed indicators. The original ten-responses-per-indicator rule yielded a target of 280, consistent with survey sample recommendations (Memon et al., 2020). A supplementary G*Power 3.1 calculation for fixed-model multiple regression (R2 deviation from zero), with two predictors, a medium effect size (f2 = 0.15), alpha = 0.05, and power = 0.95, indicated a minimum of 107 cases (Faul et al., 2009). The final 280 usable responses exceeded both benchmarks.

Data were collected through a structured questionnaire using a five-point Likert response scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Technostress comprised 10 indicators across techno-overload, techno-invasion, techno-complexity, techno-insecurity, and techno-uncertainty. Self-efficacy comprised 10 indicators covering level, strength, and generality through rational appraisal, confidence, optimism, objectivity, and responsibility. Performance initially comprised eight indicators covering work quality, work quantity, task execution, and responsibility. During outer-model evaluation, Y.8 (corrective action in work emergencies) produced an outer loading of 0.485 and was removed; the re-estimated final model retained 27 indicators. Table 1 summarizes the

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initial measurement structure.

Table 1. Variables, dimensions, indicators, and measurement scale

Variable	Dimension	Indicator coverage	Scale
Technostress	Techno-overload	Increased work speed and workload	1 = never 5 = always
	Techno-invasion	After-hours connectivity and intrusion into personal time	1 = never 5 = always
	Techno-complexity	Learning difficulty and time required to master systems	1 = never 5 = always
	Techno-insecurity	Perceived replacement and job-security concerns	1 = never 5 = always
	Techno-uncertainty	Frequent updates and continuous technology change	1 = never 5 = always
Self-efficacy	Level	Rational task appraisal and willingness to handle difficult tasks	1 = never 5 = always
	Strength	Confidence, optimism, and persistence in completing work	1 = never 5 = always
	Generality	Objective decision-making and responsibility across tasks	1 = never 5 = always
Performance	Work quality	Accuracy and precision of work results	1 = never 5 = always
	Work quantity	Target achievement and volume of completed work	1 = never 5 = always
	Task execution	Work prioritization and execution of supervisors' assignments	1 = never 5 = always
	Responsibility	Accountability and response to urgent situations	1 = never 5 = always

Because all measures were self-reported by the same respondents at one point in time, common method bias (CMB) could not be eliminated. Procedurally, the questionnaire stated that responses would remain confidential and be used only for academic purposes, instructed respondents to answer from their own experience, and presented the three constructs in separate blocks. The study did not use temporal separation, a marker variable, or a dedicated full-collinearity CMB test. Reported indicator VIF values ranged from 1.241 to 2.261, below the threshold of 5, indicating no serious indicator collinearity; this result is not interpreted as proof that CMB was absent (Jordan & Troth, 2020). Descriptive statistics were calculated for each item and construct. The measurement model was evaluated using outer loadings, Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability, average variance extracted (AVE), and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT). The structural model was evaluated using path coefficients, bootstrapped t statistics, p values, R2, adjusted R2, and f2 effect sizes. SPSS 26 supported preliminary checks, and SmartPLS 4.1.1.8 was used for PLS-SEM estimation and bootstrapping.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondent profile

The sample consisted of 280 office workers. Women represented 59.6% of respondents. The largest age group was 27-29 years (30.0%), followed by 24-26 years (26.4%). Regarding tenure, 39.6% had worked for more than two years and 37.9% had worked for one to two years. Thus, most participants had sufficient exposure to organizational routines and workplace technology to evaluate the study constructs.

Table 2. Respondent characteristics (n = 280)

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	113	40.4

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Characteristic	Category	n	%
	Female	167	59.6
Age	18-20 years	13	4.7
	21-23 years	46	16.4
	24-26 years	74	26.4
	27-29 years	84	30.0
	30-32 years	35	12.5
	33-35 years	28	10.0
Tenure	6-12 months	63	22.5
	1-2 years	106	37.9
	> 2 years	111	39.6

Source: Primary data processed by the author (2026).

Descriptive findings

All three constructs fell in the 'often' category. The highest technostress item was increased work speed caused by technology (score = 1,145), whereas perceived job-security threat from technology was lowest (1,006). For self-efficacy, responsibility for completing work on time received the highest score (1,149); the weakest item concerned objective consideration of facts and conditions before decisions (1,102). Performance was strongest for accuracy of work results (1,154) and weakest for work prioritization (1,095). The pattern suggests that respondents were productive and confident, but they simultaneously experienced persistent pressure to accelerate their work.

Table 3. Descriptive summary of the study constructs

Construct	Items	Total	Average/item	Category	Highest indicator	Lowest indicator
Technostress	10	10,682	1,068.2	Often	Increased work speed	Job-security threat
Self-efficacy	10	11,291	1,129.1	Often	Timely responsibility	Fact-based decisions
Performance	8	9,019	1,127.4	Often	Accuracy	Work prioritization

Source: Primary data processed by the author (2026).

Measurement model

The initial 28-indicator model identified Y.8 (corrective action in work emergencies) as having an outer loading of 0.485; it was removed and the model was re-estimated with 27 indicators. Retained outer loadings ranged from 0.514 to 0.809 for technostress, 0.656 to 0.764 for self-efficacy, and 0.726 to 0.807 for performance. X1.1 (0.689), X1.9 (0.514), and X2.8 (0.656) were retained because composite reliability and AVE remained acceptable and the items preserved construct coverage. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.894 to 0.903, composite reliability from 0.913 to 0.920, and AVE from 0.517 to 0.599. HTMT values were 0.742 for technostress-self-efficacy, 0.812 for technostress-performance, and 0.760 for self-efficacy-performance, all below 0.90. Indicator VIF values ranged from 1.241 to 2.261, below 5.

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Table 4. Reliability and validity of the measurement model

Construct	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	AVE	Highest HTMT
Technostress	0.894	0.914	0.517	0.812
Self-efficacy	0.903	0.920	0.535	0.760
Performance	0.894	0.913	0.599	0.812

Source: Primary data processed by the author (2026).

Structural model and hypothesis testing

In the final 27-indicator model, technostress and self-efficacy jointly explained 60.4% of the variance in performance (R2 = 0.604; adjusted R2 = 0.601), indicating moderate explanatory power. Technostress had a positive and significant relationship with performance (beta = 0.491, t = 6.641, p < 0.001), supporting H1, with a large effect size (f2 = 0.336). Self-efficacy also had a positive and significant relationship with performance (beta = 0.357, t = 4.502, p < 0.001), supporting H2, with a medium effect size (f2 = 0.177). Figure 1 reports every retained outer loading together with the structural paths.

Table 5. Structural model results

Path	Beta	SE	t	p	f-squared	Effect	Decision
Technostress -> Performance	0.491	0.074	6.641	< 0.001	0.336	Large	H1 supported
Self-efficacy -> Performance	0.357	0.079	4.502	< 0.001	0.177	Medium	H2 supported

Source: Primary data processed by the author (2026).

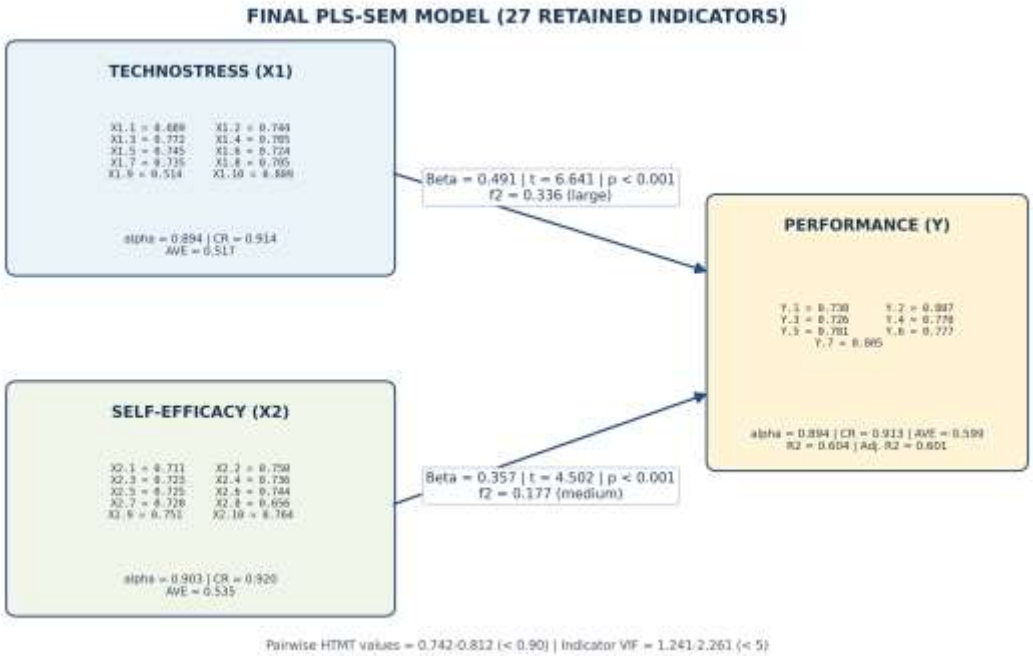


Figure 1. Final PLS-SEM model with outer loadings and structural paths

Note: X1.1-X1.10 = technostress indicators; X2.1-X2.10 = self-efficacy indicators; Y.1-Y.7 = retained performance indicators. Y.8 was removed after its initial outer loading was 0.485. Values were transcribed from the study's SmartPLS

4.1.1.8 output.

Technostress and performance

Technostress showed a positive relationship with performance within the observed range. Respondents who reported stronger technology-related demands also reported better task outcomes, particularly where digital systems accelerated work. This pattern is consistent with evidence that appraisal and coping resources determine whether a techno-stressor becomes harmful or activating (Califf et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020). It does not mean that unlimited stress is beneficial; rather, some respondents may have interpreted manageable digital demands as challenges that mobilized attention, learning, and effort.

The result is consistent with techno-eustress: a constructive response that arises when technology-related demands are appraised as attainable and accompanied by sufficient competence, control, or support (Nascimento et al., 2024; Tarafdar et al., 2019). The sample's tenure profile makes adaptation plausible, and prior work shows that technostress inhibitors, coping strategies, and system context influence performance outcomes (Li & Wang, 2021; Rohwer et al., 2022; Salo et al., 2022). The finding also extends Indonesian evidence by showing a positive association in a heterogeneous office-worker sample rather than a single teaching or public-institution setting.

This positive coefficient must be interpreted against the Yerkes-Dodson principle, which proposes that performance may rise with activation only to an optimal point and decline when demands become excessive (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). The present PLS-SEM model estimated a linear path and did not include a squared technostress term; it therefore cannot establish an inverted U-shaped relationship or identify an optimal stress level. Evidence on challenge stressors likewise warns that apparently motivating demands can still carry health costs (Mazzola & Disselhorst, 2019). Findings on exhaustion, work-family intrusion, and remote-work strain reinforce the need to monitor fatigue, errors, recovery, and after-hours connectivity (Camacho & Barrios, 2022; Harris et al., 2022; Singh et al., 2022).

Self-efficacy and performance

Self-efficacy showed a positive relationship with performance. Employees who believed they could organize and complete difficult tasks were more likely to persist, accept responsibility, and maintain accurate execution. This result aligns with Indonesian employee and teacher studies (Magistra et al., 2021; Novianty & Sedjo, 2023; Pauzi et al., 2022) and with international evidence showing that technical self-efficacy helps employees manage technology-related demands (Chang et al., 2024; Saidy et al., 2022).

Self-efficacy is also a developable resource rather than a fixed trait. Continuous techno-training, accessible assistance, mentoring, and mastery feedback can strengthen employees' willingness to experiment with tools and recover from errors (Rayburn et al., 2021). Digital competence and job self-efficacy can protect work-life balance and reduce exhaustion when digital demands arise (Golz et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2021). This mechanism explains why self-efficacy can support both direct performance and more adaptive appraisal of technostress.

Theoretical and managerial implications

Theoretically, the findings connect the challenge-hindrance stressor framework with the techno-eustress perspective. Technostress and self-efficacy can coexist with favorable performance when demands remain manageable and resources are available,

but the positive cross-sectional path should not be treated as evidence that pressure is inherently productive. The result complements the job demands-resources view, in which technology can simultaneously create demands and supply resources depending on work design, support, and employee capability (Pansini et al., 2023).

Managerially, the weakest performance indicator - work prioritization - requires more than generic productivity encouragement. HR managers should establish technology-enabled prioritization through shared task dashboards, explicit urgency and ownership rules, work-in-progress limits, notification protocols, and protected focus periods. Time-management evidence supports structured planning and prioritization rather than constant acceleration (Aeon et al., 2021; Yener et al., 2021). Organizations should also implement practical right-to-disconnect rules, including defined response windows, escalation exceptions, and leader modeling of non-contact outside working hours (Hopkins, 2024). These demand-side controls should be combined with digital resilience training, coaching, peer learning, help-desk access, and data-literacy development; early intervention evidence indicates that structured digital resilience training can strengthen adaptive coping (Behrendt et al., 2023).

CONCLUSION

Main conclusion.

Technostress and self-efficacy were both positively related to office-worker performance. The technostress finding is best interpreted as a potential techno-eustress process within the demands observed in this sample, while self-efficacy functions as a personal resource that supports persistence and task execution. The result answers both hypotheses but does not imply that excessive digital strain improves performance.

Research limitations.

The cross-sectional, self-report design does not establish causality and remains vulnerable to common method bias because no marker-variable, temporal-separation, or dedicated full-collinearity CMB test was reported. Purposive sampling of workers aged 18-35 in one metropolitan area limits generalization to older employees, other regions, and specific industries. The model also treated technostress as a linear predictor and did not directly separate techno-eustress from techno-distress or test an inverted U-shaped relationship.

Recommendations.

Future studies should use longitudinal or multi-source performance data, compare age groups and industries, and test quadratic, moderated, or mediated relationships involving digital competence, self-efficacy, organizational support, recovery, and work-life boundaries. Organizations should translate the findings into clear digital prioritization systems, right-to-disconnect practices, realistic workload design, and recurring digital resilience training rather than increasing digital pressure indiscriminately.

Statement on the Use of Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence was used solely to assist with English-language improvement, grammar checking, formatting, and editing for clarity and readability. The authors reviewed the complete manuscript and remain fully responsible for its accuracy, originality, integrity, interpretation, and academic content.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Author contributions

Siti Fatimah: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, data curation, formal analysis, visualization, and writing-original draft. Anggi Pasca Arnu: supervision, validation, methodology, and writing-review and editing. Ina Ratnasari: supervision, validation, interpretation, and writing-review and editing. All authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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