

## CHAPTER-VI

### Analysis

The present chapter firstly deals with the statistical analysis of data collected by way of questionnaire method for fulfilling the below mentioned objectives of the study. Starting with section; **6.1** to **6.3** which consists of the descriptives for the study, section **6.4** and **6.5** deals with the inferential statistics for fulfilling objective 1 and sub objective 1(a) using correlation and multiple regression, section **6.6** and **6.7** involves independent samples t-test and one way ANOVA. Further section **6.8** incorporates the analysis for objective 2 with help of moderation analysis. Finally, the chapter ends with the segment **6.9** explaining the analysis process for the third (qualitative) objective.

#### 6.1 Quantitative Objectives (1, 1a and 2)

To begin with, the mean scores of all the constructs included in the study are computed to perform required analysis for fulfilling the objectives. This shall help in identifying the major factors which have highest positive response rate from non-managerial women employees.

**Table 6.1:** *Computed mean score for work-life balance and remote working variables*

Constructs	Mean	Standard deviation	Number of observations used
Trust & Flexibility	3.988	0.673	446
E-Wellbeing	3.649	0.690	
Work Effectiveness	3.764	0.749	
Work-Life Balance	3.728	0.639	

Table 6.1 above shows computed mean score of Remote Work Trust and Flexibility to be highest (M=3.988, SD=0.673), ensued by Remote Work Effectiveness (M=3.764, SD=0.749) and Work-life Balance (M=3.728, SD=0.639). Findings reveal that respondents reported on the highest side for trust and flexibility disclosing that they had an environment of trust among them and the supervisors leading to flexible work arrangements, similar to the Indian context study by Pillai and Prasad, (2022) where women ranked flexibility as one of the most crucial factors. Results for high work effectiveness scores during remote working followed by work-life balance also explains a similar picture for respondents

being able to work effectively and manage their work-non work boundaries while functioning. However, it is observed that the mean score for e-wellbeing is comparatively on the lower side from the other three constructs ( $M=3.649$ ,  $SD= 0.690$ ). Possible reasons for this response could be accounted to the rise in digital exposures and heightened training requirements (Acemoğlu et al., 2021) that leads women to slightly neglect their personal wellbeing at times along-with the absence of face-to-face office culture affecting their social wellbeing.

## 6.2 Reliability Statistics

**Table 6.2:** Showing the reliability of items included in the study

Variables and Dimensions studied	Cronbach's alpha value
<b>Work-Life Balance</b>	0.832
<b>Remote Working</b>	0.862
Trust and Flexibility	
E- Wellbeing	
Effectiveness/Productivity	
<b>E -Working Facilities</b>	0.765

Table 6.2 presented above displays the results of reliability testing conducted on each item utilised in the questionnaire to collect the final responses for the study. The Cronbach's alpha, was found above the threshold value for the maximum number of items of remote working and e-working facilities, with  $\alpha$  values ranging from .07 to .08. Further, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient in this study for work-life balance was 0.832 (DV), also indicating high scale reliability (George & Mallery, 2003). Thus, it can be inferred that the items adapted for fulfilling the quantitative objectives in the study, for checking the relationship between remote working-work life balance and moderation effects on this relationship are consistent and could be relied upon for getting appropriate results.

## 6.3 Validity

Validity pertains to whether or not we are accurately measuring the intended idea (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The items that were utilised in the research had a face validity since the

items that were supposed to test the ideas really did so on the surface. This shows that the items appeared to be measuring what they were intended to measure. It is a fundamental indication of the content's validity. The measure demonstrated strong construct validity by effectively confirming that the results produced from using the measure align with the underlying researches upon which the test is based (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014).

### Objective 1

This objective aims to examine the association of remote working practices with non-managerial women employees work-life balance and then proceeds further to investigate the effect of different remote working dimensions on the work-life balance of non-managerial women employees. Preceding analyses were conducted to ensure the assumptions of normality, linearity and Homoscedasticity are not violated.

Hence, Pearson correlation test is regarded as appropriate for firstly determining the degree of association between these variables.

## 6.4 Results of Correlation Analysis

**Table 6.3:** Showing correlation between remote working and work-life balance score

		Work-life Balance
<b>Remote Working</b>	Pearson Correlation	.789
	Sign (two tailed)	.000
	N	446

The item-total correlation between remote working score and work-life balance score was measured using the mean scores of both variables. Pearson product-moment correlation results (table 6.3) showed that remote working had a very high positive association with the work-life balance of women employees of various departments in the IT industry. Inferring that increase in remote working tends to increase in work-life balance of women respondents. The strong and significant positive correlation with a  $r$  value of .789 at 0.000 ( $p = <0.001$ ) level of significance, suggest that remote working has a meaningful

association with work-life balance of women at non- managerial levels from different departments of the IT organisations.

**Table 6.4:** Correlation between remote work dimensions and work-life balance

Constructs		Work Life Balance
Remote Working Trust & Flexibility (RWTF)	Pearson Correlation	0.663
	Sign (two tailed)	0.000
Remote Working Effectiveness (RWE)	Pearson Correlation	0.698
	Sign (two tailed))	0.000
E-Wellbeing (EWB)	Pearson Correlation	0.641
	Sign (two tailed)	0.000
	N	446

The results above (table 6.4) show a strong, positive correlation between the variables included in the study,  $r = .663$ , showed high levels of association between trust and flexibility with higher levels of work-life balance,  $r = .698$  also showed higher extent of association between effectiveness and higher levels of work-life balance, e- wellbeing was also associated highly with work-life balance at  $r = .641$ . These values were significant at  $p < .005$  level of significance with,  $n = 446$  total number of women employees. All these associations were highly positive as per past criterion established. Observed findings may play a pivotal role in shaping the trajectory of undergoing study, by supporting the idea of acknowledging remote working arrangements due to increased trust and flexibility, wellbeing and effectiveness leading to significant rise in work-life balance outcomes of non-managerial women employees.

### RWTF-WLB

A strong positive correlation ( $r = .663$ ) suggest that trust & flexibility significantly contribute to the work-life balance for non-managerial women employees in the IT sector. Trust of the supervisor while functioning remotely plays a major role in allowing employees to have control over their schedules, promoting flexibility by opportunity to function as per their convenience and enabling better management of personal-professional responsibilities. Therefore, the results show that as women employees

encountered high levels of trust and flexibility among them during remote work this were also significantly associated to high level of work-life balance.

### **RWE-WLB**

Effectiveness or productivity showed highest correlation coefficient values ( $r = .698$ ) in the table (6.4) above, suggesting that effectiveness while working remotely played a vital role in determining work-life balance. This may indicate that while working remotely women employees experienced that, more effectively they are able to perform their work the better work-life balance they assumed. Increase efficiency, fewer workplace distractions and comfortable work environment contributed to both personal satisfaction and professional success.

### **EWB-WLB**

A positive correlation between e-wellbeing and work-life balance ( $r = .641$ ) indicates that the wellbeing of women respondents working remotely is closely tied to their work-life balance. E-wellbeing which includes personal and social wellbeing of the employees anticipates that, if women at work encounter increased levels of wellbeing, they are likely to have lower levels of stress and better emotional and physical health, improving overall work-life satisfaction during remote work.

However, multiple correlation can only show the extent to which one continuous (DV) variable is related to a set of continuous (IV's) variables with no distinction necessary between IV and the DV. Whereas, regression predicts a score on one variable from knowledge of the score on another variable. Therefore, multiple regression is conducted to fulfil the sub-objective, aiming to see the effect of multiple remote working dimensions (IV's) on work-life balance (DV) of women respondents.

**Objective 1. (a)** To determine the role of major remote working dimensions; trust and flexibility, e-wellbeing, effectiveness in predicting work-life balance of non-managerial women employees.

## 6.5 Results of Regression Analysis

Multiple linear regression shall be performed to determine the relationship between remote work trust and flexibility (RWTF), e-wellbeing (EWB) and remote work effectiveness (RWE), with work-life balance (WLB). The hypotheses for the same are-

$H_0$  = There is no significant impact of remote work trust and flexibility on work-life balance among non-managerial women employees

$H_1$  = There is a significant impact of remote work trust and flexibility on work-life balance among non-managerial women employees

$H_0$  = There is no significant impact of e-wellbeing on work-life balance among non-managerial women employees

$H_2$  = There is a significant impact of e-wellbeing on work-life balance among non-managerial women employees

$H_0$  = There is no significant impact of remote work effectiveness on work-life balance among non-managerial women employees

$H_3$  = There is a significant impact of remote work effectiveness on work-life balance among non-managerial women employees

**Table 6.5:** Showing the R square value for regression analysis

	<b>Work-life Balance</b>
R-square	0.650
R-square adjusted	0.648
Durbin-Watson test	2

Adjusted R square in regression aids in estimating the model performance more accurately when there are multiple predictors. According to Cohen (1988) and Falk and Miller (1992), a R square value of at least 0.10, or 10%, is regarded appropriate. Based on the current analysis, the adjusted R square value of 0.648 in table 6.5, indicated that 65% of the variation in work-life balance can be attributed to various remote working (RW) dimensions. Further, the value of  $d$  equals to 2, showing zero auto correlation among the independent variables and samples under the Durbin-Watson test statistic which should be between 0 to 4 ("Durbin–Watson Test," 2008). Fulfilling the assumption of independent errors, making the current model statistically sound and reliable. Thus, the strong model fit indicates that, the predictors (remote working dimensions) are relevant in explaining work-life balance among non-managerial women employees.

**Table 6.5a:** Showing the summary ANOVA

	df	Mean square	F statistic	p value
Regression	3	39.494	273.826	0.000
Residual	442	0.144	0.000	0.000
Total	445	0.000	0.000	0.000

The p-value obtained from the ANOVA table 6.5a is 0.000, which is smaller than the predetermined significance level of 0.05 with F statistic  $(3, 442) = 273.826$ . It indicates that the result is statistically significant and all three remote working dimensions significantly predict the criterion variable i.e., work-life balance of non-managerial women employees. Thus, it is found that the belief that trust and flexibility would help in granting autonomy and enhancing remote working experiences positively influences attitudes toward work-life balance amidst remote working. In addition, trust towards employees working remotely, the support from their immediate superiors/managers through the encouragement of flexible work opportunities and the availability of remote work infrastructure shall enrich the work-life balance of working women at various non-managerial positions. The promotion of employee wellbeing across different departments and job roles positively influences the attitude towards the adaptation to remote work settings. Ultimately the ability to perform efficiently, meet goals, and achieve deadlines increases the quality of work leading to the productive functioning of women employees,

indisputably affecting their work-life balance outcomes in the form of reduced stress, increased flexibility for caregiving, increased autonomy and control and reduce commutes.

**Table 6.5b:** Showing the coefficients results of regression analysis

	Unstandardize d coefficients	Standardiz ed coefficients	Standard Error	t value	p value	VIF
RWTF	0.236	0.248	0.036	6.510	0.000	1.838
EWB	0.311	0.336	0.031	10.026	0.000	1.416
RWE	0.330	0.387	0.032	10.461	0.000	1.729

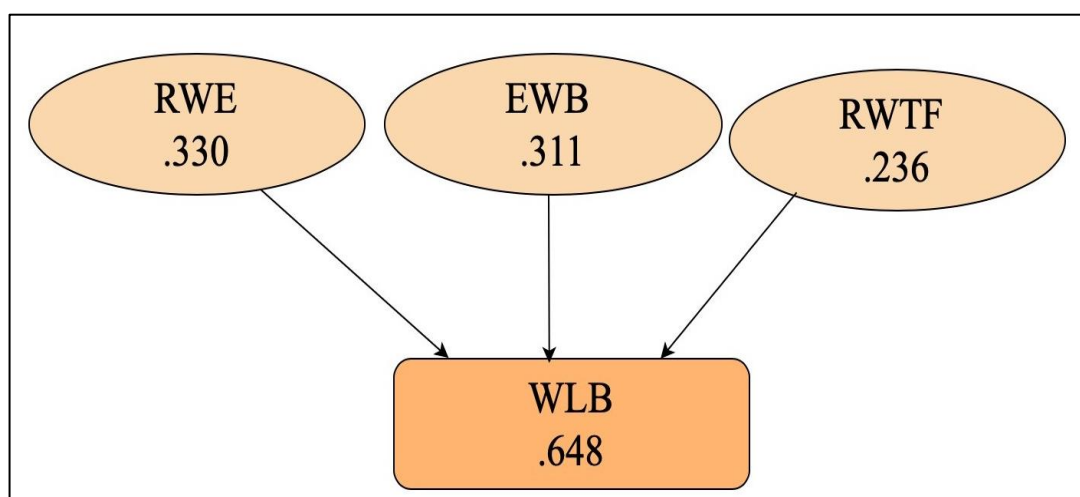
\* Dependent variable- WLB

Additionally, the coefficients table (6.5b) were further assessed to ascertain the influence of each of the three remote working factors on the criterion variable (work-life balance) independently.  $H_1$  evaluates whether trust and flexibility influence work-life balance of non-managerial women employees. The results revealed that trust and flexibility in remote working has a significant and positive impact on work-life balance ( $B = 0.236$ ,  $t = 6.51$   $p = 0.00$ ). Hence  $H_1$  was supported. In addition,  $H_2$  determines whether e-wellbeing has an effect on work-life balance of non-managerial women employees. The results show that e-wellbeing does have a significant and positive impact on work-life balance ( $B = 0.311$ ,  $t = 10.026$   $p = 0.00$ ). Consequently,  $H_2$  was supported. Finally,  $H_3$  examines whether or not work effectiveness/ productivity act as a significant predictor of work-life balance during remote working. The results thereby show that work effectiveness has a significant positive influence on the work-life balance of non-managerial women employees across different departments and is the highest among all three predictors, with beta coefficient of  $B = 0.330$  ( $t = 10.461$   $p = 0.00$ ). Therefore,  $H_3$  was supported and the overall results are presented in the figure 6.1 below. Hence, it has been observed that, women working at non-managerial positions valued their ability to work effectively at the utmost level in remote settings, followed by their wellbeing and trust and flexibility. Additionally, statisticians consider pairwise correlation coefficients between predictors (cutoff 0.80) and VIF values for diagnosing multicollinearity (Vatcheva et al., 2016). The current study



shows absence of multicollinearity issues due to VIF values  $<3$ , which if present predicts high level of correlation among the variables not acceptable for further statistical testing.

**Figure 6.1:** model showing impact of remote work dimensions on work-life balance



Graphical outcomes (figure 6.1) above showed that RWE (Remote Work Effectiveness) has the highest impact on work-life balance. i.e., one point increase in the independent variable effectiveness/productivity during remote working leads to 0.330 points increase in the work-life balance of non-managerial women employees. Representing the idea that, when women employees at the non-managerial levels feel productive and are able to meet their work targets efficiently while working remotely, their work-life balance significantly increases. Further, EWB (E-wellbeing) being another major factor suggests that positive wellbeing affects during remote work leads to predicting their work-life balance outcomes significantly. Therefore, organisations need to focus on mental health, digital wellbeing and prevention of burnout, because women employees showing positive wellbeing indicated greater balance between personal and professional engagements during remote working practices. Moreover, RWTF (Remote Work Trust and Flexibility) also play an important role in predicting better work-life balance, but has a slightly lower impact in comparison to effectiveness and wellbeing during remote work. Implying that, while trust and flexibility is beneficial for functioning remotely, the other two contribute more significantly to the work-life balance aspects of non-managerial women in the organisation.

To sum up, the results highlight that work effectiveness, e-wellbeing, trust and flexibility are strong predictors of work-life balance for women employees at non-managerial positions who work remotely.

### **Demographic characteristics and Work-life balance**

This section aims to find out whether the understanding of work-life balance differs among employees of different categories and characteristics, analyses were performed with few of the demographic factors. These are as follows;

**1. Marital, Employment status and Location** - To analyse the work-life balance of employees based on their marital, employment status and the geographical area from which they belonged. “Independent samples t-tests” were done

Assumptions for carrying out this test were fulfilled in regard to;

Assumption 1: Independent groups (i.e., independence of observation); Not violated

Assumption 2: Measurement; DV continuous and IV categorical (two groups); Not violated

Assumption 3: Normality of dataset; Not violated

Hypothesis were framed in order to ascertain the differences among the marital and employment status of the employees along with the geographical area from which they belonged. These hypotheses are;

### **6.6 Independent samples t-test**

$H_0$  = There is no significant difference in the Work-life balance of; married and unmarried women, permanent and contractual employees, at non-managerial levels from Delhi/NCR and Bengaluru.

$H_4$  = The work-life balance of married women employees significantly differs from that of unmarried women employees at non-managerial levels.

**Table 6.6:** Group statistics for married and unmarried employees

Mean_WLB	Marital Status (MS)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Married	235	45.4255	6.95819	0.45390
	Unmarried	211	43.4028	8.08313	0.55647

The group statistics (table 6.6) revealed that the mean scores for work-life balance of non-managerial women is higher in case of married employees ( $M = 45.4255$ ,  $SD = 6.95819$ ) in comparison to unmarried employees ( $M = 43.4028$ ,  $SD = 8.08313$ ). The results revealed that married women employees working in non-managerial roles responded more positively towards their work-life balance outcomes during remote work than that of the unmarried women employees at non-managerial positions.

**Table 6.6a:** Independent samples t-test for marital status and WLB

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sign.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Mean WLB	Equal variances assumed	5.375	0.021	2.839	444	0.005	2.0226	0.6226	3.4227
	Equal variances not assumed			2.817	416.816	0.005	2.0226	0.6111	3.4342

The t-test results presented in table 6.6a (with equal variances not assumed) shows t statistic of 2.817, and the corresponding two tailed p value is less than 0.05. Therefore, we can reject the hypothesis at 5% significance level, which means that the work-life balance for married and unmarried women employees are not same. Additionally, the magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 2.0226, 95% CI: 0.6111 to 3.4342) is significant.

Further the significant difference shown for equality of means ( $p=.005$ ), revealed that there existed a significant difference between the work-life balance of married and of unmarried employees, accepting the alternate hypothesis.

However, in order to test the assumption that the work-life balance of married women employees is greater than the unmarried employees, another set of null hypotheses with the p value of one-tailed t-test are framed;

$H_{4a}$  = The Work-life Balance of married women employees is significantly greater than that of unmarried women employees at non-managerial levels

The hypothesis is tested by analysing the p value of a on tailed test. The one tailed significant p value can be obtained by dividing the two tailed value obtained with 2;  $0.005 \div 2 = 0.0025$ . Thereby we reject the null hypothesis by concluding that work-life balance of married women employees<sup>1</sup> is greater than that of unmarried employees<sup>2</sup>.

$H_5$  = The work-life balance of permanent women employees significantly differs from that of contractual women employees at non-managerial levels.

**Table 6.7:** Group statistics for permanent and contractual employees

Mean_WLB	Employment Status (ES)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
WLB	Permanent	382	44.7199	7.59110	0.38839
	Contractual	64	42.9688	7.32677	0.91585

Table 6.7 labeled group statistics gives descriptive statistics for both the groups. Here, the mean scores for work-life balance is higher for permanent employees ( $M = 44.7199$ ,  $SD = 7.5911$ ) in comparison to contractual employees ( $M = 42.9688$ ,  $SD = 7.32677$ ). Therefore, it can be observed that non-managerial employees who were on permanent

<sup>1</sup> Existing studies have been predicting the gender role inequalities to be corrected by the increasing paternal involvement in childcare and family life (Del Boca et al., 2021) and by progressively taking upon more familial and household chores (Juna et al., 2022).

<sup>2</sup> Claims have been made by past researchers on single/unmarried employees disliking the remote work arrangements in comparison to that of married employees (Williamson et al., 2021), due to reasons like fear of social isolation, declined exposure to growth (Broom, 2023) and lack of family support due to staying far from home for career prospects.

positions ranked their work-life balance on a high scale when working remotely as compared to that of the contractual women employees at non-managerial positions.

**Table 6.7a:** *Independent samples t-test for employment status and WLB*

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sign.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
<b>Mean WLB</b>	Equal variances assumed	0.015	0.983	1.716	444	0.087	1.75114	-0.25408	3.75638
	Equal variances not assumed			1.760	87.232	0.082	1.75114	-0.22605	3.728341

The independent t-test results (with equal variance assumed) showed that there is no significant statistical difference in the mean WLB scores for Permanent and Contractual employees with t (444) value = 1.716,  $p = 0.087$ , (mean difference = 1.75114, 95% CI: -0.25408 to 3.75638).

The table 6.7a above gives the results of the two tests; levene's test for equality of variances and the t- test for equality of means. Here, the significant value for levene's test is greater than  $p < .05$ . Therefore, the statistic associated with equal variance assumed will be used for t-test for analysing the equality of means. Further the significant value for equality of means is found to be above the p value  $< .05$  (.08), which means there is a barely detectable statistically significant difference between the work-life balance score of permanent and contractual employees at 95% level of confidence. Hence, the researcher do not reject the null hypothesis. Thus, it has been observed that work-life balance of permanent women employees at non-managerial positions although rated higher, do not significantly differ from that of the contractual women employees (non-managers).

$H_6$  = "The work-life balance of Delhi/NCR women employees significantly differ from that of Bengaluru women employees at non-managerial levels"

**Table 6.8:** Group statistics for employees from Delhi/NCR and Bengaluru

<b>Mean_WLB</b>	<b>Place</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>
	Delhi/NCR	230	45.1391	7.57136	0.49924
	Bengaluru	216	43.7546	7.52175	0.51179

The group statistics table (6.8) revealed that the mean scores for work-life balance is higher for employees from Delhi/NCR ( $M = 45.1391$ ,  $SD = 7.57136$ ) in comparison to employees from Bengaluru ( $M = 43.7546$ ,  $SD = 7.52175$ ). Therefore, it can be observed that women employees (non-managerial) from Delhi/NCR showed increased work-life balance while performing remotely as compared to that of the non-managerial women employees from Bengaluru.

**Table 6.8a:** Independent samples t-test for place and WLB

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sign.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
	Equal variances assumed	0.188	0.664	1.936	444	0.053	1.3845	-0.0209	2.7899
<b>Mean_WLB</b>	Equal variances not assumed			1.936	442.593	0.053	1.3845	-0.0206	2.7896

Table 6.8a first shows the results for Levene's test for equality of variances and then the t-test for equality of means. The significant value for Levene's test in case of geographical location is more than the threshold limit of  $<.05$  ( $p = 0.664$ ). Therefore, the statistic associated with equal variances assumed will be used for exploring the t-test for equality of means. However, the corresponding two-tailed p value is (.053) almost equal to 0.05 if not less than the estimated level ( $p = <.05$ ), which means that it approached the acceptance level of statistical significant difference for the work-life balance score of women

employees from Delhi/NCR and Bengaluru. This trend shows that the results might go either way and alternate hypothesis could be accepted under circumstances if the given significance level is 10% ( $p \text{ value} \leq 0.10$ ). Moreover, the t test results (with equal variances assumed) shows t statistic of 1.936. Hence, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected at 5% significance level because the absolute t value is less than the critical value of 1.965 at 444 degrees of freedom (df), showing no statistically significant level of differences in the means (mean difference = 1.75114, 95% CI: -0.25408 to 3.75638). Suggesting that means for the work-life balance score of women employees from Delhi/NCR and Bengaluru are not considered significantly different. This shows that work-life balance outcomes while working remotely are becoming location-agnostic and policies are uniformly designed without needing to localise them across states.

The results obtained from independent t-tests, aimed to ascertain the differences in work- life balance attitudes between married and unmarried female employees in the IT industry. Comparable outcomes are also produced for assessing the views of permanent and contractual personnel, including their geographical locations of Delhi/NCR and Bengaluru. The Table above displays the test results, which demonstrate that there is a difference between married and unmarried women employees in terms of their work-life balance. Besides, there is no significant difference in terms of work-life balance between the two categories of permanent/contractual and employees from both the cities.

The section below aims to find out whether the work-life balance of non-managerial women employees in remote working differed across the departments and work base. Further, the objectives include more than three independent groups and fulfils all the required assumptions for conducting this test, making One-way ANOVA a valid and statistically sound choice for testing the hypotheses. Hence, not requiring other tests like t-test or kruskal-wallis test.

The assumptions checked include;

Assumption 1: Dependent variable should be measured at the interval or ratio level – Not Violated

Assumption 2: Independent variable should consist three or more categorical independent groups – Not violated

Assumption 3: Independence of observation– Not violated

Assumption 4: No sign of outliers– Not violated

Assumption 5: Normal distribution – Not violated

## 6.7 One way ANOVA

Anova test is performed to see if there are differences in work-life balance of employees from different departments, for which respondents from seven groups (Group 1; Finance & Accounts , Group 2; Admin, Group 3; Engineering, Group 4; Human Resource, Group 5; IT service & Delivery, Group 6; Operations and Group 7; Marketing & Sales were analysed.

Secondly, respondents from five groups were analysed by applying ANOVA test to see differences in work-life balance across different work bases, the groups were; Group1; Home, Group 2; Cafeterias, Group 3; Staycations, Group 4; Home & Staycations, Group 5; Home & Cafeterias. The hypothesis framed for testing these differences are as follows;

$H_0$  = Work-life balance in a remote work setting of non-managerial women employees do not differ significantly across different departments and work bases

$H_7$  = Work-life balance in a remote work setting of non-managerial women employees differ significantly across different departments

ANOVA results used to see the significance difference in work-life balance of women employees across various departments.

**Table 6.9: Descriptives**

Department	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Finance & Accounts	53	42.0000	6.50148	0.89305
Admin	58	44.9655	7.90506	1.03799
Engineering	60	44.9000	7.00290	0.90407
Human Resource	57	43.7368	7.94743	1.05266
IT service & delivery	96	44.8646	8.56753	0.87442



Operations	54	46.0741	8.17001	1.11180
Marketing & sales	68	44.3676	5.82046	0.70583
<b>Total</b>	446	44.4686	7.57065	0.35848

The descriptives table 6.9 above indicated that the mean work-life balance of non-managerial women employees during remote working are highest for the operations department employees (M= 46.07, SD = 8.17001), followed by admin (Mean= 44.9, SD = 7.90506), engineering (Mean= 44.9, SD =7.0029) IT services (Mean= 44.8, SD = 8.56753) and HR department (Mean= 43.7, SD = 7.94743). The lowest mean score witnessed was from the Finance & Accounts department (Mean = 42.0, SD = 6.50148) in comparison to other departments. Although these differences detected are not significant at 0.05 level as per the ANOVA test statistic shown below.

**Table 6.9a:** Showing one way ANOVA results

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F statistic	Sig.
Between Groups	533.925	6	88.987	1.564	0.110
Within Groups	24971.136	439	56.882		
Total	25505.061	445			

The one way ANOVA results (Table 6.9a) suggest that work-life balance score does not differ significantly across departments. The p value of 0.11 (i.e.,  $p > .005$  and  $F_{6, 439} = 1.564$ ) indicates that there exists no significant difference between groups and the alternative hypothesis cannot be accepted. Hence, it can be said that the work-life balance (dependent variable) did not significantly differ within the grouping (independent) variables. Holding no statistically significant difference in the perception of women employees towards their work-life balance outcomes during remote working.

$H_8$  = “Work-life balance in a remote work setting of non-managerial women employees differ significantly across work bases”

**Table 6.10: Descriptives**

Work-base	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Home	407	44.5848	7.59680	0.37656
Cafeterias	22	42.5909	7.25494	1.54676
Staycations	12	46.4167	7.02539	2.02805
Home & Staycations	4	39.7500	5.73730	2.86865
Home & Cafeterias	1	34.0000	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>446</b>	<b>44.4686</b>	<b>7.57065</b>	<b>0.35848</b>

It is evident from the descriptives table (6.10) above that the employees operating from staycations had highest mean score ( $M = 46.41$ ,  $SD = 7.02539$ ) for work-life balance while working remotely<sup>3</sup>. Followed by those women employees working from home (Mean = 44.58,  $SD = 7.5968$ ) and then cafes (Mean = 42.59,  $SD = 7.25494$ ). Additionally, women employees who tend to work both from home and staycations have a lower mean value (Mean = 39.75,  $SD = 5.7373$ ) in comparison to the groups above and the lowest among all is witnessed to be for employee working from home and cafeterias ( $M = 34$ ,  $SD = 0$ ). Although these differences detected are not significant at 0.05 level as per the ANOVA table 6.11.

**Table 6.10a: Showing one way ANOVA results**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	327.250	4	81.813	1.433	0.222
Within Groups	25177.810	441	57.093		
Total	25505.061	445			

<sup>3</sup> Staycations recently became an opportunity to experience something different and recreational from employees everyday life under the impact of COVID19 pandemic (Moon & Chan, 2022).

The ANOVA results (table 6.11a) suggest that work-life balance score does not differ significantly across different work bases. The p value of 0.222 (i.e.,  $p > .005$  and  $F_{6, 439} = 1.433$ ) indicates that there is no significant difference between groups and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Hence, it can be concluded that mean work-life balance of women employees while working remote do not differ significantly across various work bases. However, there are individual differences in the mean scores among these groups although carrying no statistical significance difference in their remote work life balance perception.

## 6.8 Objective 2

The aim is to assess insights regarding the availability of e-working facilities, such as internet connection or broadband access, work devices and software/tools used for staying connected with colleagues when working remotely. Adopted analysis examines the ratings obtained for each statement to determine the statement with the highest number of ratings and assess the level of agreement with the availability of such services. Later, on investigating the moderating impact of such e-working aids on predicting the relationship between remote work and work-life balance.

Studies in past have shown the importance of examining technological feasibility for remote working practices. Consequently, the current study seeks to examine the degree to which viability of e-work facilities contribute to the simple bivariate relationship between remote working (IV) and work-life balance (DV). Thus, seeing if availability of required tech facilities positively or negatively increases the impact of remote working on work-life balance by using moderated causal effect.

**Table 6.11:** Descriptive Statistics on availability of E-working facilities

Facilities	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation
Hardware devices	446	1	5	4.22	0.862
Internet connection	446	1	5	4.11	0.967
Collaboration & conferencing tools	446	1	5	4.06	0.896
Valid N (listwise)	446				

Descriptive statistics table 6.11 observed that employees reached agreeable conclusions regarding the availability of e-working facilities in their environment while working remotely. In addition, the most favourable responses were in favour of the availability of hardware devices to perform remote work ( $M = 4.22$ ,  $SD = 0.862$ ). This was followed by the presence of internet connection for remote working ( $M = 4.11$ ,  $SD = 0.967$ ). On the other end, mean score for availability on collaboration & conferencing tools is found to be lowest ( $M = 4.06$ ,  $SD = 0.896$ ) among other facilities at their remote locations, as shown in the **table 6.11** above.

Further, the moderating effect of these available facilities on the relationship between remote working and work-life balance is examined by using PROCESS macro for SMART PLS4 (trial version). Moderator either strengthens or weakens the relationship between two variables (Abu-Bader & Jones, 2021). It could be anything that influences or changes the effect of independent variable on the dependent variable. Studies until now have mostly used Hayes process macro by applying regression in SPSS or Sobel test for investigating the moderating effects on variables (Hayes, 2022; Abu-Bader & Jones, 2021; Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). Hence, the current analysis is an attempt towards filling this existing gap in the area of present research so far.

### **6.8.1 Moderation analysis using Hayes Process Macro**

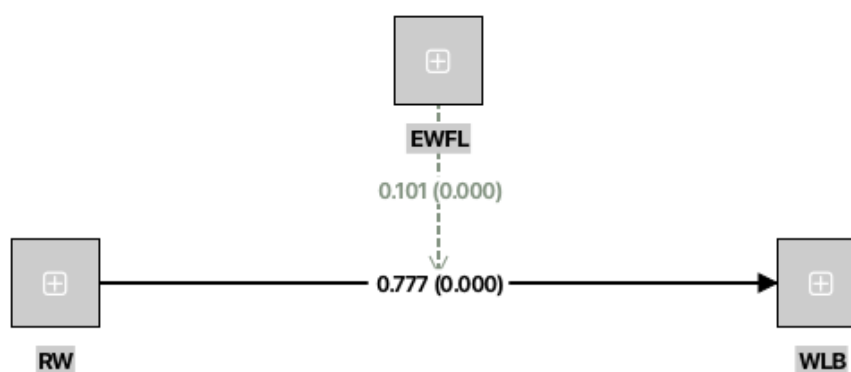
Below are the hypotheses framed to test this relationship;

$H_0$  = There is no significant moderating effect of e-working facilities on the relationship between remote working and work-life balance of non-managerial women employees

$H_1$  = E- working facilities moderates the relationship between remote working and work-life balance of non-managerial women employees

**Table 6.12:** Showing Path analysis

	Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics ( O/STDEV )	P values
RW -> WLB	0.777	0.777	0.030	25.845	0.000
EWFL x RW -> WLB	0.101	0.100	0.025	4.044	0.000

**Figure 6.2:** Showing the moderating effect of EWFL on RW and WLB

PROCESS macro analysis is performed to see either of positive or negative effect and the results of this analysis showed that presence of e-working facilities positively moderates the relationship between remote working and work-life balance at path coefficient value of 0.101 (figure 6.2) at 95% level of significance (p value = 0.000).

Knowing from the test of interaction that these effects are significant, the levels of moderator need to be further analysed in order to see the changing effects on different levels of moderator (Igartua & Hayes, 2021). This is examined by analysing the table (6.12a) below consisting of conditional direct effect;

**Table 6.12a:** *Showing Conditional direct effect*

	Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics ( O/STDEV )	P values
RW -> WLB conditional on EWFL at +1 SD	0.878	0.877	0.034	25.767	0.000
RW -> WLB conditional on EWFL at Mean	0.777	0.777	0.030	25.845	0.000
RW -> WLB conditional on EWFL at -1 SD	0.676	0.676	0.043	15.537	0.000

The table (6.12a) of conditional direct effect shows that; if the EWFL is increased at +1SD, the impact gains strength at 0.878 ( $p = 0.00$ ) in comparison to when EWFL was at average (0.777,  $p = 0.00$ ). Whereas, if the EWFL is decreased at -1SD, this condition results in losing the strength of the impact to 0.676 ( $p = 0.00$ ). Witnessing a significant amount of change in the effect of EWFL on the relationship between RW and WLB. These shows that, as the availability of e-working facilities are increased the positive effect of it on the relationship between remote work and work-life balance also tends to increase and vice versa.

**Table 6.12b** *Showing R square and R square adjusted values*

		Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics ( O/STDEV )	P values
WLB	R square	0.637	0.638	0.030	21.494	0.000
	R square adjusted	0.634	0.636	0.030	21.266	0.000

**Table 6.12c : Showing F square statistic**

	Original sample (O)	Sample mean (M)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics ( O/STDEV )	P values	Collinearity (VIF)
RW -> WLB	1.202	1.211	0.178	6.744	0.000	1.382
EWFL x RW -> WLB	0.038	0.039	0.020	1.929	0.027	1.149

Under this hypothesis the analysis centered around Work-Life Balance (WLB) as the outcome variable. The model's R square value for WLB is 0.637, suggesting that a significant 63.7% of the variance in the relationship between remote work and work-life balance can be accounted for, by the model (**table 6.12c**) This effect is also found to be significant ( $p = 0.00$ ), implying that the direct effect of remote working (RW) on work-life balance (WLB) is moderated by availability of e-working facilities (EWFL). Since the regression weight is different from zero, it implies that remote working's (IV) effect on work-life balance (DV) varies with e-working facilities (MV). Further, the F square statistic (**table 6.12c**) showed model fit summary (1.202 and 0.038), with significant p values (0.00 and 0.027) also indicating no collinearity ( $VIF = 1.149$ ) issues in the data.

### 6.9 Objective 3 introducing qualitative analysis

Qualitative research is a form of investigation that delves into and offers more profound understanding of real-world issues. Qualitative research collects data about participants' subjective feelings, perceptions and behaviour. It provides explanations for the methods and reasons rather than focusing on quantities (Moser & Korstjens, 2017) and helps in gathering a naturalistic, contextual and holistic understanding of changes implemented across organizations (Misra et al., 2023). An advantage of qualitative research is its capacity to clarify the complexities and patterns of human behaviour that may pose challenges when attempting to quantify them (Cleland, 2017).

### **6.9.1 Evaluation criteria**

Just like the widely accepted standards for assessing the reliability and validity of quantitative data. Credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability are the ideas that are utilised in qualitative research (Bell et al., 2019; Moser & Korstjens, 2017).

The current research satisfied these requirements to ensure the appropriateness of the work, as mentioned by Tenny et al. (2022) in their article. Firstly, ensuring the credibility of results by sending them to peer review to verify the consistency of the data with the findings. The transferability of the research was assessed through thick/rich descriptions, which included a thorough explanation of how the study was performed. Finally, an audit trail is used as an indicator for evaluating dependability and confirmability by providing a documented set of steps for how the participants were selected and the interviews have been collected (Chapter4, fig: 4.3).

### **6.9.2 Data collection and analysis process**

An endeavour was undertaken to assess the influence of the respondents' most pertinent experiences and concerns on the adaption of different virtual management tools and strategies. A comprehensive list of AI tools and processes was provided and the participants' feedback on them was recorded and organised. An examination was conducted on the sequence of replies and if a distinct pattern was identified, it was selected for further investigation.

The study applied a structured approach to conduct interviews due to the busy schedule of the managers not taking too much of their working hours. The information that was gathered through interviews was then transcribed and these transcriptions were coded with the assistance of the Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software MAXQDA trial version.

The current section hereby aims to explore the stages involved in analysing qualitative datasets in order to gain required results.



**Stage 1** decontextualisation and keyword generation

The transcripts of the interview statements were made in order to analyse them and emphasize the key words that have been used very frequently by the managers or those phrases that were vitally relevant to the purpose of the study. This was done in order to summarize the information. It was done in order to have a thorough look at the statements and recordings in order to ensure that no significant information was overlooked by the respondents, as this information could contribute to identifying the proper theme for theory building.

**Stage 2** categorisation

Prior to beginning to form categories, extended meaning units must be simplified. This means that the amount of words decreased without affecting the unit's content (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). During the process of categorization, categories are determined, which are then recognized as open codes. These categories are developed through the examination of the keywords. By doing an analysis of the total number of keywords and aggregating the results into a few major sub-categories, they are created as a component of the sub-categories that fall under the sub-headings as open codes. Furthermore, the themes that fall under these open codes are explored once again and a broad categorisation that is referred to as axial codes is developed. This approach ultimately results in the development of the final theme.

**Stage 3** compilation

Once the categories were defined, the process of analysing and documenting was initiated. An important distinction among different qualitative analysis methodologies lies in the researcher's approach to the analysis process and their ability to adjust to the findings (Patton, 2002). Hence, the current research aims to explain the outcomes of the analysis using the process described below (**figure 6.3**), which includes performing thematic analysis, starting with undergoing the available transcripts, underlining important keywords that consistently keeps on appearing through-out the process of reading and analysing the transcripts. Followed by generation of codes (both open and axial) to categorise the keywords under different sub-headings, subsequently leading to evolution of a theory by way of themes created during the whole process. Finally, concluding the

process with constructing a meaning for the results achieved from this procedure throughout.

**Figure 6.3:** Process for qualitative analysis

