

THE ROLE OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES IN PSYCHOSOCIAL OUTCOMES DURING REMOTE WORK¹

O PAPEL DAS VARIÁVEIS DEMOGRÁFICAS NOS RESULTADOS PSICOSSOCIAIS DURANTE O TRABALHO REMOTO

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Abstract

This study aims to examine the effects of remote working practices, which have continued to become widespread in the post-pandemic era, on individuals' mental well-being, marital satisfaction and parental burnout within the context of demographic variables. The research was conducted using data obtained via an online survey from 412 participants. The Marriage Satisfaction Scale, the Parental Burnout Scale and the Mental Well-being Scale were used during the data collection process. Analyses were carried out with a particular focus on demographic variables. The findings revealed that, in comparisons based on demographic variables, these variables exhibited significant differences in the structures under investigation. The results indicate that the effects of the remote working experience vary according to individuals' demographic characteristics. This highlights the importance of taking demographic differences into account when evaluating remote working processes.

Keywords: Working from Home. Remote Working. Psychosocial Outcomes. Demographic Variables.

Resumo

Este estudo tem como objetivo examinar os efeitos das práticas de trabalho remoto, que continuaram a se generalizar na era pós-pandêmica, sobre o bem-estar mental, a satisfação conjugal e o esgotamento parental dos indivíduos, no contexto de variáveis demográficas. A pesquisa foi realizada utilizando dados obtidos por meio de um questionário online respondido por 412 participantes. A Escala de Satisfação Conjugal, a Escala de Esgotamento Parental e a Escala de Bem-estar Mental foram utilizadas durante o processo de coleta de dados. As análises foram realizadas com foco específico nas variáveis demográficas. Os resultados revelaram que, em comparações baseadas nessas variáveis, observaram-se diferenças significativas nas estruturas investigadas. Os resultados indicam que os efeitos da experiência de trabalho remoto variam de acordo com as características demográficas dos indivíduos. Isso destaca a importância de levar em conta as diferenças demográficas ao avaliar os processos de trabalho remoto.

Palavras-chave: Trabalho em Casa. Trabalho Remoto. Resultados Psicossociais. Variáveis Demográficas.

¹ This work is based on the first author's master's thesis.



1 INTRODUCTION

The transformation in the labour market, driven by the rapid changes in today's world, has led to fundamental shifts in working patterns. In particular, as digitalisation and automation processes have gained momentum, organisational structures have evolved into knowledge- and technology-based frameworks, a development that has facilitated the widespread adoption of flexible working models. One of the most significant developments accelerating this transformation was the pandemic period between 2019 and 2021. Remote working practices, which became mandatory during the pandemic, have secured a permanent place in the workplace in the subsequent period, in line with technological advancements.

When examining the effects of remote working on employees, it is evident that these effects do not manifest to the same extent or in the same direction for all individuals. At this point, it is assessed that the demographic characteristics of individuals may play a decisive role in the variation of these effects. Indeed, demographic variables such as age, gender, educational status and similar factors can have differing effects on individuals' work-life balance, psychosocial well-being and perceptions of family life.

This study aims to examine the levels of mental well-being, marital satisfaction and parental burnout among individuals working from home within the context of demographic variables. In this regard, the objective is to reveal how the relationships between these variables are shaped on the basis of demographic differences. The limited number of studies in the literature that have examined these three variables together, and the fact that they have not been sufficiently analysed in terms of demographic determinants, constitute the original contribution of this study. In this context, it is expected that the findings obtained will contribute to the more effective management of remote working processes and a better understanding of the needs of different groups of workers.

2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Remote working, which holds a significant place among flexible working models, is defined as a form of work that allows the employee to determine the location where the

work is carried out (Akça and Tepe Küçüköğlü, 2020: 74). This model is based on the principle of carrying out work outside the main workplace (Öztürkoğlu, 2013: 121) and conducting work processes via evolving information and communication technologies (smartphones, computers, etc.) (Meşhur, 2010; Eurofound and ILO, 2017).

It is observed that flexibility is currently concentrated particularly in the dimensions of time and place, and that remote working practices have become widespread in this context. Remote working can be implemented in various forms depending on technological capabilities and the needs of the parties involved; it can take place as working from home, mobile working, or in shared workspaces. It is noted that these practices often overlap and that their boundaries are becoming increasingly blurred (Gareis *et al.*, 2003).

The relationship between flexibility and working life is defined as a process encompassing the reorganisation of the place of work, working hours, forms of employment, and the compensation received in accordance with market conditions (TBMM, 2013: 39; ÇSGB, 2014). In this context, flexible working practices are regarded as an important tool for adapting to economic fluctuations and optimising production processes.

The effects of flexible working models on working life are examined in terms of both their positive and negative aspects. It is stated that these models offer positive contributions such as providing employees with flexibility in time management, supporting work-life balance, and increasing productivity. In particular, the ability of employees to plan their own work schedules, reduce commuting time, and allocate time for personal development are among the key advantages (Yavuz, 1995; Okkalı-Şanalımış, 2006; Evren, 2007).

However, flexible working arrangements also have certain drawbacks, such as communication gaps and coordination issues (Giannikis and Mihail, 2011: 422). Therefore, the effects of flexible working models must be assessed holistically from the perspectives of both employees and employers.

In conclusion, remote working stands out as one of the most widespread and visible forms of flexible working today; it is being increasingly adopted due to technological advancements. However, for this model to be sustainable and effective, it

depends on the careful planning of implementation processes and the balanced consideration of the needs of all parties.

The home-based working model occupies a significant place within flexible working arrangements and enables employees to carry out their work outside the physical workplace, predominantly in a home environment. This model has become widespread alongside the development of information and communication technologies (Kavi and Koçak, 2010: 77) and has gained momentum particularly during the pandemic (Dicle and Yıldırım, 2023: 167–168). However, there is no complete consensus in the literature regarding the effects of remote working. Studies have shown that findings vary depending on the scope of the research, the sample, and the variables examined (Palumbo, 2020; Seal *et al.*, 2010; Hodder, 2020; Hashmi *et al.*, 2021; Yang *et al.*, 2022; Gorenc and Valentincic, 2023).

When examining the positive aspects of working from home, the more effective use of time stands out first and foremost. The elimination of commuting times, the increase in time available for personal needs, and the ability to fulfil care responsibilities more flexibly provide significant advantages for employees. Furthermore, working in an environment to which employees are accustomed can accelerate the process of adapting to the job and enhance individual productivity. In addition, increased employee autonomy contributes to individuals feeling more free and developing their creative thinking skills (Stanković, 2020).

However, remote working also has certain drawbacks. In particular, the reduction in face-to-face communication can limit the sharing of knowledge and experience among employees, leading to negative effects on productivity. Furthermore, the reduction in social interaction can lead to an increased sense of loneliness among employees and a weakening of their sense of organisational belonging. This situation can result in a deterioration of the team spirit and a decrease in job satisfaction (Gorenc and Valentincic, 2023: 92).

Therefore, rather than evaluating the effects of remote working in a one-dimensional manner, it must be examined in a multidimensional way, taking into account both individual and organisational factors. The conditions employees find themselves in, their perceptions and experiences are decisive in how these effects vary. In this context, to enhance the effectiveness of the remote working model, it is important to evaluate it in

line with the variables associated with the model and to implement the necessary improvements.

In this regard, examining variables such as marital satisfaction, parental fulfilment and mental well-being specifically among remote workers will provide a significant contribution to understanding the effects of working life on individual life. Furthermore, identifying the role of demographic variables in these relationships will offer important findings for the more effective and sustainable implementation of flexible working models.

The effects of remote working arrangements on individuals are not limited to work performance alone but also encompass levels of psychological and social well-being. The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines the concept of well-being as the positive perceptions and attitudes individuals develop regarding their life experiences; it notes that these perceptions are shaped by social, economic and environmental conditions. Similarly, well-being is approached as a multidimensional concept reflecting how individuals assess their mental, physical and social states (Kiefer, 2008: 244–245).

The concept of well-being is generally associated with an individual's positive evaluation of their life and feeling good about themselves (Carlisle and Hanlon, 2008: 263–264). However, the level of well-being is not limited to psychological states alone but is also linked to indicators of physical health. It is stated that low levels of well-being are linked not only to psychological issues such as depression, stress and burnout, but also to cardiovascular and neurological symptoms (Topp *et al.*, 2015).

In the context of working life, well-being is regarded as a factor that directly influences employee performance and organisational outcomes. Low levels of well-being are associated with negative outcomes such as intention to leave, absenteeism, low productivity and customer dissatisfaction (Davis, 2021). Conversely, high levels of well-being support individuals in becoming more committed to their work, working more efficiently, and developing positive social relationships (Demirtaş and Baydemir, 2019: 655–666).

The remote working model can have both positive and negative effects on well-being. Research indicates that an increase in individuals' well-being levels was observed during the initial phase of the transition to remote working; however, as the process prolonged, factors such as heavy workloads, increased work pressure and work-family

conflicts were found to contribute to a decline in this positive effect (Yang *et al.*, 2023: 504, 524). This situation demonstrates that the relationship between remote working and well-being is neither linear nor unidirectional.

In particular, the continued adoption of working from home requires individuals to fulfil both their marital and parenting roles simultaneously; this situation can lead to blurred work-family boundaries and an increase in role conflicts. In this context, the experiences individuals undergo play a decisive role in the variation of their well-being levels.

The continued prevalence of remote working in the post-pandemic period necessitates an examination of the long-term effects of this working model. In this regard, analysing the well-being levels of remote workers and the factors influencing these levels is important both for enhancing employee well-being and for ensuring the sustainability of organisational productivity.

In this context, examining remote working processes in conjunction with marital satisfaction and parental burnout will contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the multidimensional nature of well-being. Consequently, identifying the relationships between these variables will provide a significant contribution to the literature.

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was designed as a quantitative research project to investigate whether the psychosocial conditions of individuals working from home differ in terms of demographic variables. Data were collected via an online survey. The population of the study consists of individuals working from home, whilst the sample comprises 412 volunteers.

Demographic variables were identified as the primary focus of the analysis. Accordingly, participants' demographic characteristics—such as age, gender, nominal income level, number of children, children's ages, and the number of days worked from home per week—were taken into account during the data collection process. Comparative analyses were conducted across sub-groups formed based on these variables.

The data obtained were evaluated using statistical analysis software, and an examination was carried out to determine whether there were significant differences

between groups based on demographic variables. Within this scope, the aim was to compare the experiences and perceptions of individuals with different demographic characteristics regarding the remote working process. Thus, an attempt was made to reveal how the effects of remote working practices vary in the context of demographic characteristics.

In this context, the main research question, aligned with the study's objective, was formulated as follows:

“To what extent do demographic differences in the context of remote working influence individuals' psychosocial well-being indicators?”

To support this, the following sub-questions have been identified:

- Does gender create a significant difference in individuals' levels of psychosocial well-being?
- Do age and income level lead to variations in psychosocial well-being?
- Do the number of children and their ages influence levels of psychosocial well-being?
- Does the weekly duration of working from home create variations in psychosocial outcomes?

The research hypothesis has been formulated as follows:

H1: “There are significant correlations between the levels of marital satisfaction and mental well-being of individuals working from home and their levels of parental burnout, and these variables show significant differences according to demographic characteristics such as gender, age, educational level, length of marriage, number of children, children's ages, weekly working hours and monthly income.

In this study, three different scales were used to assess the psychosocial status of individuals working from home. To measure mental well-being, the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale Short Form, developed by Tennant *et al.* (2007) and adapted into Turkish by Demirtaş *et al.* (2019), was used. To determine marital satisfaction, the Marital Life Scale developed by Tezer (1996) was used, whilst the Parental Burnout Assessment (PBA) scale, developed by Roskam (2018) and validated in Turkish by Arıkan *et al.* (2020), was selected to measure levels of parental burnout.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is a measure used to determine the reliability of scales and the internal consistency among items. This analysis reveals the degree of

consistency in participants' responses to scale items and how accurately the scale measures the construct it is intended to assess. In the literature, a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.70 or higher is considered sufficient for a scale to be deemed reliable (Pallant, 2020).

The internal consistency of the scales used in the study was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. The findings indicate that all scales demonstrate a high level of reliability. In this context, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated as 0.936 (10 items) for the Marital Satisfaction Scale and 0.928 (7 items) for the Mental Well-being Scale. The Parental Burnout Scale, consisting of 23 items, yielded a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.980 for the total scale.

Upon examining the subscales of the Parental Burnout Scale, the Emotional Exhaustion subscale yielded 0.956 (9 items), 0.926 (6 items) for the Conflict with Previous Parental Identity sub-dimension, 0.896 (5 items) for the Feelings of Boredom sub-dimension, and 0.881 (3 items) for the Emotional Distancing sub-dimension. These values indicate that all scale and sub- s possess a high level of internal consistency and can be used as reliable measurement tools within the scope of the research.

Based on these results, it was determined that the reliability levels of the scales used were adequate. The data were analysed using SPSS 26. Categorical variables were assessed in terms of frequency and percentage, whilst numerical variables were examined for normal distribution by evaluating skewness and kurtosis values. According to the literature, skewness values within the range of ± 1.5 are considered sufficient for a normal distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2019). The analyses revealed that the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the Mental Well-being Scale and the Parental Burnout Scale, along with their sub-dimensions, met the assumption of normal distribution.

For the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the skewness value was calculated as -0.323 and the kurtosis value as -0.690. The skewness value for the Mental Well-being Scale was -0.712 and the kurtosis value -0.379. For the Parental Exhaustion Scale as a whole, the skewness was found to be 0.810 and the kurtosis -0.213.

When examining the sub-dimensions, the skewness in the Emotional Exhaustion dimension is 0.622 and the kurtosis is -0.584; in the Conflict with Parental Identity dimension, the skewness is 1.045 and the kurtosis is 0.328; in the Feelings of Boredom dimension, skewness was 1.070 and kurtosis 0.621; and in the Emotional Distancing dimension, skewness was 0.961 and kurtosis -0.032.

When evaluated overall, it is observed that the skewness and kurtosis values obtained fall within the ± 2 range, indicating that the data have a distribution suitable for parametric tests.

The study was conducted on 412 people working from home across Turkey. Scale scores were compared based on demographic variables (gender, age, educational status, length of marriage, number of children, children's ages, number of days worked from home per week, and monthly income). The Independent Samples T-Test was used to determine differences based on the gender variable, whilst the One-Way ANOVA test was used for comparisons based on other demographic variables. Post Hoc analyses were utilised to determine the level at which differences between groups emerged.

4 RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Findings regarding demographic characteristics

Upon examining the demographic characteristics of the individuals participating in the study, it was observed that 220 participants were female (53.4%) and 192 were male (46.6%). In terms of age distribution (), it was determined that the vast majority of participants fell within the 35–44 age group (39.1%), followed by the 26–34 age group (25.5%), those aged 45 and over (18.9%), and the 18–25 age group (16.5%).

When examining educational attainment, it is observed that the majority of participants hold a bachelor's degree (63.8%), whilst 24.5% have postgraduate qualifications and 11.7% are high school or associate degree graduates.

In terms of marital status and length of marriage, 38.3% of participants were unmarried, whilst among those who were married, the highest proportion were those married for 6–10 years (20.9%).

Regarding the number of children, 46.1% of participants had no children, 32.3% had one child, 16.7% had two children, and 4.9% had three children. Regarding the distribution of the age of the first child, the highest proportion was in the 6–10 age group (18.2%), followed by the 0–5 age group (14.3%), the 11–18 age group (12.4%) and those aged 19 and over (8.9%). With regard to the second child variable, it was found that the vast majority of participants did not have a second child (77.9%).

When examining the frequency of working from home, it was observed that the highest proportion of participants worked from home 3–4 days a week (46.1%), followed by those working 5–6 days (24.0%) and 1–2 days (29.9%). In terms of monthly income level, 25.7% of participants earned between 23,001 and 29,000 TL, followed by those earning between 29,001 and 35,000 TL (23.8%), 35,001 TL and above (21.8%), 17,001–23,000 TL (17.7%) and 17,000 TL and below (10.9%).

These findings demonstrate that the sample exhibits demographic diversity. It is evident that the sample possesses a heterogeneous structure in terms of gender, age, educational level, marital status, number and composition of children, work pattern, and income level.

4.2 Examination of the interactions between demographic variables and psychosocial factors

The data obtained for the purpose of examining the demographic variations of all participants working from home within the scope of the scales included in the research instruments are presented below.

4.2.1 Comparison of the 'Marital Satisfaction Scale', 'Mental Well-being Scale', parental burnout scale and subscale scores with the gender variable

As a result of the comparisons made according to the gender variable, no statistically significant difference was found between women (Mean=3.51) and men (Mean=3.71) in terms of Marriage Satisfaction Scale scores ($p>0.05$). In contrast, it was found that men (Mean=26.41) had significantly higher scores on the Mental Well-being Scale than women (Mean=24.28) ($p<0.01$). Regarding the total scores on the Parental Burnout Scale, it was determined that women (Mean=64.54) had a higher level of burnout compared to men (Mean=53.59), and that this difference was statistically significant ($p<0.01$). When the sub-dimensions were examined, it was observed that women had higher mean scores than men across all dimensions—Emotional Exhaustion, Conflict with Previous Parental Identity, Feelings of Boredom, and Emotional Detachment—and

that all differences were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Overall, the findings indicate that the gender variable creates a significant difference, particularly in terms of mental well-being and levels of parental burnout.

4.2.2 Comparison of the “Marital Satisfaction Scale”, “Mental Well-being Scale”, parental burnout scale and sub-scale scores with the age variable

In analyses conducted according to the age variable, no significant difference was found between groups regarding the Marital Satisfaction Scale ($F=2.325$; $p=0.081$). In contrast, a significant age-related difference was detected in Mental Well-being Scale scores ($F=7.648$; $p < 0.01$). In this context, it was determined that participants aged 45 and over (Mean=27.62; SD=4.69) had a higher level of well-being compared to the 18–25 age group (Mean=23.65), the 26–34 age group (Mean=25.27) and the 35–44 age group (Mean=24.82). Significant age-related differences were also found in the total scores of the Parental Burnout Scale ($F=27.978$; $p < 0.01$). The highest level of burnout was observed in the 18–25 age group (Mean=93.50; SD=18.01), and this group exhibited significantly higher levels of burnout compared to the 26–34 age group (Mean=65.24), the 35–44 age group (Mean=62.47) and the 45 and over age group (Mean=43.66). When the sub-dimensions were examined, Emotional Exhaustion ($F=24.635$; $p < 0.01$), Conflict with the Previous Parental Self ($F=20.843$; $p < 0.01$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=20.063$; $p < 0.01$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=31.914$; $p < 0.01$), the 18–25 age group was found to have the highest scores. For example, the Emotional Detachment score was 11.93 for the 18–25 age group, whereas it was 5.00 for the 45 and over group. Overall, the findings indicate that parental burnout decreases with increasing age, whilst mental well-being levels increase.

4.2.3 Comparison of the ‘Marital Satisfaction Scale’, ‘Mental Well-being Scale’, parental burnout scale and subscale scores with the education level variable

Analyses conducted according to the education level variable revealed no significant difference between groups in terms of Marriage Satisfaction Scale scores

($F=0.628$; $p=0.537$). Similarly, for the Parental Burnout Scale and its sub-dimensions (Emotional Exhaustion: $F=2.643$; $p=0.073$; Conflict with Previous Parental Identity: $F=2.012$; $p=0.136$; Feelings of Boredom: $F=1.640$; $p=0.196$; Emotional Distancing: $F=3.040$; $p=0.055$) were also found to show no statistically significant differences. In contrast, statistically significant differences were found in Mental Well-being Scale scores according to educational level ($F=5.430$; $p=0.006$). According to the post hoc analysis results, it was observed that individuals with postgraduate education (Mean=26.81; SD=5.45) had a higher level of mental well-being compared to undergraduate graduates (Mean=24.62; SD=6.19). Furthermore, it was determined that the secondary school/associate degree group (Mean=25.56) also had a higher mean compared to the bachelor's degree group. Overall, the findings indicate that educational level has a significant differentiating effect only on mental well-being; however, it has no statistically significant effect on marital satisfaction and parental burnout.

4.2.4 Comparison of the 'Marital Satisfaction Scale', 'Mental Well-being Scale', 'Parental Burnout Scale' and the Scale's sub-dimension scores with the duration of marriage variable

Analyses based on the duration of marriage variable revealed significant differences between groups in terms of Marriage Satisfaction Scale scores ($F=6.375$; $p<0.01$). According to post hoc results, it was determined that unmarried individuals (Mean=4.11) had higher marital satisfaction than those married for 6–10 years (Mean=3.35) and 11–15 years (Mean=3.42). Significant differences related to length of marriage were also found in Mental Well-being Scale scores ($F=11.250$; $p<0.01$). Unmarried individuals (Mean=27.00) and those married for 16 years or more (Mean=25.79) have higher levels of mental well-being compared to those married for 6–10 years (Mean=22.43) and 11–15 years (Mean=22.80). Significant differences were also observed in the total scores of the Parental Burnout Scale ($F=7.299$; $p<0.01$). The highest levels of burnout were observed among those married for 1–5 years (Mean = 72.08) and 6–10 years (Mean = 67.45), whilst lower levels of burnout were found among those who were not married (Mean = 44.93) and those married for 16 years or more (Mean = 48.89). When examining the sub-dimensions, Emotional Exhaustion ($F=8.651$; $p<0.01$), Conflict

with Previous Parental Identity ($F=5.731$; $p<0.01$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=4.559$; $p<0.01$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=7.815$; $p<0.01$), significant differences related to the duration of marriage were found across all these dimensions. In particular, it was determined that individuals married for 1–5 years and 6–10 years exhibited higher levels of burnout. Overall, the findings indicate that length of marriage is a determining variable for both mental well-being and parental burnout.

4.2.5 Comparison of the 'Marital Satisfaction Scale', 'Mental Well-being Scale', 'Parental Burnout Scale' and the Scales' sub-dimension scores with the number of children variable

Analyses conducted according to the number of children variable revealed statistically significant differences across all scales ($p<0.01$). With regard to the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the highest mean score was found among individuals without children (Mean=4.22; SD=0.68), and it was observed that marital satisfaction decreased as the number of children increased (1 child: Mean=3.55; 2 children: Mean=3.23; 3 children: Mean=3.07; $F=25.491$; $p<0.01$). A similar trend was observed in the results of the Mental Well-being Scale, with childless individuals (Mean=27.64; SD=4.84) having the highest level of well-being, and scores decreasing as the number of children increased (1 child: Mean=24.76; 2 children: Mean=21.41; 3 children: Mean=19.50; $F=25.386$; $p<0.01$). An inverse relationship was observed in the Parental Burnout Scale and all its sub-dimensions. It was found that exhaustion levels increased as the number of children increased; in particular, the groups with 2 children (Mean=69.94) and 3 children (Mean=72.15) were found to experience higher levels of exhaustion compared to those with 1 child (Mean=53.60) and those without children (Mean=35.00) ($F=7.191$; $p<0.01$). When the sub-dimensions were examined, it was found that as the number of children increased, levels of burnout rose across all sub-dimensions: Emotional Exhaustion ($F=7.336$), Conflict with Previous Parental Identity ($F=6.332$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=5.591$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=7.483$), it was observed that levels of burnout increased as the number of children increased. Overall, the findings indicate that an increase in the number of children is a strong demographic predictor that increases parental burnout whilst reducing marital satisfaction and mental well-being.

4.2.6 Comparison of the 'Marital Satisfaction Scale', 'Mental Well-being Scale', parental burnout scale and sub-scale scores with the child age variable

Analyses based on the age of the first child revealed statistically significant differences across all scales ($p < 0.01$). Regarding the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the highest mean score was observed among individuals without children (Mean=4.17; SD=0.73), followed by those with children aged 19 and over (Mean=3.78). The lowest marital satisfaction was found in the 0–5 age group (Mean = 3.12) ($F = 16.025$; $p < 0.01$). In the results of the Mental Well-being Scale, it was determined that individuals without children (Mean=27.57) and those with children aged 19 and over (Mean=27.67) had the highest levels of well-being, whereas the 0–5 age group (Mean=19.58) had the lowest score ($F=24.836$; $p < 0.01$). Across the Parent Burnout Scale as a whole, the highest burnout levels () were observed in the 0–5 age group (Mean=75.64), whilst it was found that burnout decreased as the child's age increased, with the lowest value recorded in the 19 years and older group (Mean=38.64) ($F=16.202$; $p < 0.01$). A similar trend was observed in the sub-dimensions: Emotional Exhaustion ($F=19.608$), Conflict with Previous Parental Identity ($F=9.287$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=11.194$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=15.534$), with the 0–5 age group exhibiting particularly higher levels of burnout. Overall, the findings indicate that having a child at a young age increases parental burnout whilst reducing mental well-being and marital satisfaction.

Analyses conducted according to the variable of the second child's age revealed statistically significant differences across all scales and sub-dimensions ($p < 0.01$). Regarding the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the highest mean was observed among individuals without children (Mean=3.81; SD=0.80) and among those with a second child aged 11 or older (Mean=3.62), whilst the lowest value was found in the 0–5 age group (Mean=2.88) ($F=20.084$; $p < 0.01$). In the results of the Mental Well-being Scale, individuals without children (Mean=26.55; SD=5.36) and the 11 years and older group (Mean=25.20) had higher levels of well-being, whilst the 0–5 years (Mean=18.37) and 6–10 years (Mean=19.96) groups had lower scores ($F=29.301$; $p < 0.01$). In terms of total scores on the Parental Burnout Scale, the highest levels of burnout were observed in the 0–5 age group (Mean=80.92), followed by the 6–10 age group (Mean=73.79). The lowest levels of burnout were identified in the 11 years and older group (Mean=49.04) and in

individuals without children (Mean=53.06) ($F=13.159$; $p<0.01$). When examining the sub-dimensions, Emotional Exhaustion ($F=11.668$), Conflict with Previous Parental Identity ($F=12.884$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=9.825$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=13.981$), having a child at a younger age was found to be associated with higher levels of burnout. Overall, the findings suggest that having a second child at a young age increases parental burnout, whilst simultaneously reducing mental well-being and marital satisfaction.

4.2.7 Comparison of the “Marital Satisfaction Scale”, “Mental Well-being Scale”, “Parental Burnout Scale” and the Scales’ subscale scores with the weekly working hours variable

Analyses conducted according to the working hours variable revealed statistically significant differences across all scales and sub-dimensions ($p<0.01$). Regarding the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the highest mean score was observed among individuals working from home 1–2 days a week (Mean = 3.91; SD = 0.74), whilst it was determined that marital satisfaction decreased as working hours increased (3–4 days: Mean = 3.68; 5–6 days: Mean = 3.18; $F=17.886$; $p<0.01$). A similar trend was observed in the results of the Mental Well-being Scale (), with individuals working 1–2 days (Mean=27.39; SD=3.88) had the highest level of well-being, whilst those working 5–6 days had the lowest level (Mean=20.27; SD=6.87) ($F=42.719$; $p<0.01$). Regarding the total scores on the Parental Burnout Scale, it was determined that burnout levels increased as working hours increased. The highest burnout was observed among those working 5–6 days (Mean=73.96), whilst the lowest value was found among those working 1–2 days (Mean=45.25) ($F=21.395$; $p<0.01$). When the sub-dimensions were examined, it was found that as working hours increased, levels of exhaustion ($F=18.808$), conflict with one’s previous parental self ($F=21.379$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=17.966$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=18.569$), it was observed that levels of burnout increased as working hours increased. Overall, the findings indicate that an increase in the duration of working from home increases parental burnout whilst reducing mental well-being and marital satisfaction.

4.2.8 Comparison of the 'Marital Satisfaction Scale', 'Mental Well-being Scale', 'Parental Burnout Scale' and the scale's sub-dimension scores with the monthly income distribution variable

Analyses based on the monthly income variable revealed statistically significant differences across all scales and sub-dimensions ($p < 0.01$). Regarding the Marital Satisfaction Scale, the highest mean was observed in the income group of 35,001 TL and above (Mean=3.92; SD=0.74) and in the group of 17,000 TL and below (Mean=3.94; SD=0.83), whilst the lowest value was found in the 17,001–23,000 TL group (Mean=3.12; SD=0.96) ($F=7.948$; $p < 0.01$). The results of the Mental Well-being Scale showed that well-being levels increased as income rose; the highest mean was observed in the 35,001 TL and above group (Mean=28.52; SD=3.53), whilst the lowest mean was found in the group earning 17,000 TL and below (Mean=23.24; SD=6.53) ($F=20.926$; $p < 0.01$). In the total scores of the Parental Burnout Scale, the highest burnout was observed in the 17,001–23,000 TL group (Mean=88.00), whilst the lowest burnout was found in the 35,001 TL and above group (Mean=39.72) ($F=28.293$; $p < 0.01$). This indicates that burnout decreases as income increases. A similar trend was observed in the sub-dimensions. It was determined that lower-income groups experienced higher levels of exhaustion in the dimensions of Emotional Exhaustion ($F=27.472$), Conflict with Previous Parental Identity ($F=22.908$), Feelings of Boredom ($F=22.324$) and Emotional Detachment ($F=23.308$). Overall, the findings indicate that an increase in monthly income enhances mental well-being and marital satisfaction, whilst significantly reducing parental burnout.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study examined whether the levels of marital satisfaction, mental well-being and parental burnout among individuals working from home differed in the context of demographic variables. The findings reveal that the psychosocial outcomes of the work-from-home experience are not uniform but vary depending on individual living conditions.

The results regarding gender indicate that men have higher levels of mental well-being, whilst women are in a more disadvantaged position in terms of parental burnout. This aligns with the literature suggesting that gender roles impose a heavier psychological burden on women, particularly through care work and domestic responsibilities. As for marital satisfaction, the absence of a clear gender-based difference suggests that relational satisfaction may be better explained by the dynamics of shared living.

Findings regarding the age variable indicate that psychological well-being increases and parental burnout decreases with advancing age. The observation of higher levels of burnout, particularly in the younger age group, suggests that both career and parenting roles exert simultaneous pressure during the early stages of the life cycle. Conversely, in older age groups, psychological resilience is assessed to have strengthened alongside increased experience and role adaptation.

Educational level has only produced a significant difference in mental well-being, suggesting that an increase in educational level may strengthen individuals' psychological resources and coping skills. The absence of a significant difference in terms of marital satisfaction and parental burnout, however, indicates that educational level may not be a direct determinant of these two variables.

When findings regarding marriage duration, number of children and children's ages are evaluated together, the impact of the family life cycle on the experience of working from home becomes clearly evident. In particular, it is observed that the early parenting period and having children at a young age both increase burnout and reduce psychological well-being and marital satisfaction. Conversely, it is understood that as children grow older and the family system becomes more established, the psychological burden decreases.

The variables of weekly working hours and monthly income, meanwhile, represent two critical factors in terms of work-life balance. The increase in psychological burden and decrease in well-being as working hours increase suggests that the uncontrolled expansion of remote working may have adverse effects on the individual. Similarly, the fact that higher income levels enhance psychological well-being and reduce burnout highlights the importance of economic security for psychosocial balance.

Overall, the findings indicate that the psychosocial effects of the remote working experience vary significantly depending on demographic variables. In this context,

variables such as age, parental status, number of children, work intensity and income level are seen to be particularly decisive. Consequently, remote working models must be addressed holistically, taking into account not only organisational efficiency but also individual living conditions.

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