

## Challenges Faced by Working Women in The Pandemic Period and Their Emotional Experiences to Work

Öznur GÜLEN ERTOSUN  <sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Istanbul Medipol University, School of Business and Management Sciences, Istanbul, Türkiye. [ogertosun@medipol.edu.tr](mailto:ogertosun@medipol.edu.tr)

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
<p><b>Keywords:</b> Working Women Affective Well-being Job-related Contentment COVID-19 Mixed Method</p> <p>Received 15 August 2022 Revised 20 February 2023 Accepted 5 March 2023</p> <p><b>Article Classification:</b> Research Article</p>	<p><b>Purpose</b> – The main purpose of the study is to examine the effects of non-work roles, work-related differences, COVID-19 experiences, and demographic differences on their emotional experiences towards work during this time.</p> <p><b>Design /methodology/ approach</b> – Mixed methods research (pluralist) is used to test the hypotheses of the study. Design of the study is explanatory sequential, and method used for the procedure is building. In the first stage, a semi-structured interview method has been used and the data obtained were evaluated with content analysis, statements for the socio-demographic information form are developed with these findings. In the second stage of the study, the questionnaire is applied to 339 working women including the socio-demographic information form and job-related contentment scale.</p> <p><b>Findings</b> – The qualitative findings of the study indicates that the changes in non-work responsibilities and the change in working type are challenging in the pandemic period compared to the previous period. According to quantitative research findings, socio-demographic differences generally indicate non-significant differences (except working styles and education levels) in job-related contentment levels of working women during the pandemic process, also they have moderate levels of job-related contentment during the pandemic.</p> <p><b>Discussion</b> – Findings indicates that non-work responsibilities are disadvantages for working women, however these challenges are not deterministic on their job-related contentment. Also, remote working limits communication and management activities but positively affect their job-related contentment. This study contributes to both women's studies &amp; COVID-19 studies, also practitioners to develop women-friendly strategies.</p>

### 1. Introduction

For women, a lack of women's participation in the economy, educational opportunities, and women's health and political empowerment are among the important problems in our country well as all over the world. According to the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Human Development Report (2019), for the first time, Turkey is in the highest human development category; however, according to the World Economic Forum 2020 data, we are in the 130th place out of 153 countries. In addition, the "Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals (The gender snapshot 2021) presented findings that gender inequalities are negatively impacting women as jobs and livelihoods were lost and unpaid support for education and care increased during the COVID-19 pandemic process. Reports also show a decrease in Turkish women's participation in production and education activities, reflective of new steps for development that should be taken in this field.

The industrial revolution is considered the beginning of women's participation in corporate life (Pinchbeck, 2013). In the early 1900s, women constituted just 20% of senior management positions, and the share of women in the international workforce has increased significantly since the 1970s, leading to an increase in women's economic activity rates (Mythili, 2013, p: 55). In particular, women's labor force participation depends on many variables, such as the supply-demand balance in the labor market, macro-scale policies, legal changes within the workplace, or the gender inequality perspective of the society- -even family structures. And all of these variables have reciprocal interaction in building women's position within the labor market (Durmaz, 2016). Studies indicate that the role of women in business life in our country increases at a slower rate compared to European countries (Karaca & Kocabaş, 2011). Also, more recent data points to similar results: in 2018, while

#### Suggested Citation

Ertosun, Ö. G. (2023). Challenges Faced by Working Women in The Pandemic Period and Their Emotional Experiences to Work, *Journal of Business Research-Turk*, 15 (1), 14-30.

for EU-27 the women employment rate was 66.5 %, in Turkey, it was below %50 (Eurostat data). Although they have been in corporate working life for more than 2 centuries, women still continue to be a disadvantaged group due to their social roles. Similar studies show that the participation of women in business life did not contribute much to the reduction of non-work roles or the change of gender roles (eg. Kurowska, 2020; Aycan & Eskin, 2005).

Because gender roles impose many non-work responsibilities, t simultaneously managing their home and child responsibilities has caused women to work under a higher level of pressure compared to other employees who are not in the same situation. As a consequence of the increasing role of women in business life, role conflict and possible reflections of role conflicts on work-related outputs and also work/ life balance has started to be an important factor to be considered in organizational studies (Delina & Raya, 2013: 274). Additionally, studies indicate that the increasing role of women in business life has raised the prevalence of dual careers and the concept investigated in the scope of career studies (eg. Sekaran & Hall, 1989). Many other studies also state that women's multiple roles in the business world affect them negatively in terms of stress and focus on their work, and as a result, they face depression and anxiety, especially when their psychological job demands are high (Rodgers, 1992; Ahmad, 2009).

The pandemic period, particularly with the increasing amount of remote work, the fluctuating closure of schools, and the infection process of family members, has caused a deterioration in the work-life balance of the working women. It is thought that measuring the effects of the pandemic process on women's work-life balance during this time period will make a significant contribution. Based on this causality, this study aimed to present empirical data on whether the emotional experiences related to work are affected by the aforementioned non-work responsibilities of working women in different conditions.

The results of this study aimed to present findings on how working women currently experience this process emotionally and contribute to the women-oriented developments that can be taken in workplace practices. And lastly, the study is designed to draw attention to the difficulties related to the roles of women in society. Based on these frameworks in the following section, literature related to working women and well-being is summarized and hypotheses developed. In the method section, research design, sample and measurement tools, and analysis methods are explained. Findings are evaluated and summarized in tables. And the study is concluded with discussion and implications for both practitioners and academicians.

## 2. Literature Review

The concept of the career was started by theorists with studies on what career is, how it developed, and on career choices rather than career development (eg. Bordin et al., 1963; Holland 1973). However, in the next stage, theorists started to consider other choices that affect the career life cycle. Super (1980), in his study, explains the Life-Career Rainbow approach and the connection between the stages from childhood to pension in the scope of a lifespan (age and responsibility period) and life space (roles). Nine common roles are defined: childhood, student, "leisure" (briefly refers to leisure-time activities), citizenship, worker, spouse, homemaker, parent, and pensioner. Life roles have been undertaken in a given period and constitute the lifestyle; their sequential combination structures the life space and constitutes the life cycle; and the total structure is the career pattern. Within this perspective, the theorists try to describe the connections between the other variables that are effective on career decisions. While the interaction between work career and family career causes the emergence of multiple roles, the effect of multiple careers on roles is discussed with concepts such as role conflict, role extension, and role strain (Super, 1980; White, 1999).

In addition, when we consider the issue from the perspective of gender, according to Oakley (1972; cited in Marshall, 1999: 98), while sex refers to the biological distinction between men and women, gender refers to masculinity and femininity. Gender expresses the socially determined roles and responsibilities of women and men and emerges as a concept related to society's expectation from us as men and women, how they perceive us, how they think, and how they expect us to behave, rather than biological differences (Akin & Demirel, 2003: 73). Household work and parenting chores seem to be major roles of women (Thompson and Walker, 1989), and also as Marks (1977) stated, increased participation in work-life causes role expansion in their own life. On the other hand, this situation has been defined as role strain according to another theoretical perspective (Goode, 1960). Yet, the two approaches seem to explain the women's conditions. And, in fact, role conflict has generally been studied on working women within previous studies. Especially when taken into

consideration married women have to manage too many roles and expectations, and consequently, both they and their family members experience much more stress when compared to the others (Menaghan & Parcel, 1990).

According to Clark (2000), an employee's perception of minimal conflict among family, social responsibilities, and personal time (and also work) is an indicator of work-life balance. Nizam and Kam (2018) stated that work-life balance is affected by working hours, workload, work arrangements, and reward & incentive structures. If there is a structure that disrupts the work-life balance, multiple roles may result in serious role conflicts, especially in the life of the working women. Also, Reddy et al., (2010), reviewed the variables that affect the work-life balance of women: (1) the multiple roles, (2) role strain, (3) organization culture and work dynamics, (4) personal resources and social support, (5) career orientation and career stage, (6) coping and coping strategies. As well, if an employee is badly affected from the mentioned conditions, work-family conflict may also occur.

Researchers also indicate that, with the changes in the role of women in society and in business life, women's work-life balance has come to the forefront as a focus of academic studies (Sigroha, 2014; Devi & Kiran, 2014; Delina & Raya, 2013). Especially in patriarchal societies, women's role diversity (responsibilities for home and children) causes them to be in a disadvantageous position compared to their male workers (Bakıcı & Aydın, 2020) because these role conflicts more frequently occur. Changes in their work-life and added responsibilities, especially under extraordinary conditions such as the COVID-19 pandemic process, have caused difficulties in women's work-life balance and these situational factors may negatively affect their emotional states towards work.

The aforementioned difficulties also have been the subject of current academic studies including Delina and Raya (2013) who conducted a survey with 180 married and working women who stated that they have more problems in work-life balance compared to others and this situation affects their quality of life, and the sector, age, number of children, and the profession of the spouse are determinants in this causality. In another study of working women's work-life balance, Reddy et al. get. (2010) pointed out that work-life balance problems differ in terms of children's age, number, education level, the reason for working, spousal support, and nature of work. Sundaresan (2014) again examined the work-life balance of working women and suggested the role-analysis model and three-factor model as a solution. This and many similar studies have mentioned the negative effects of women's psychological health and job performance. In addition, a number of new studies continue to be carried out all over the world in order to reveal the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic process on work-life balance (Irawanto et al., 2021; Palumbo, 2020; Vuga Beršnak et al., 2021; Hjálmsdóttir & Bjarnadóttir, 2021). For instance, Uddin (2021) conducted a semi-structured interview with 22 participants. In his research on the difficulties and role diversity experienced by women during the pandemic process, has reported that COVID-19 imposes vital challenges for working women in terms of work-life balance.

Among similar studies Öztürk, Üstünelan and Metin (2020) examined the emotional state of working women in this process using the interview method. Beken (2020) pointed out the decline in the informal employment of women working and the difficulties in this process, and other studies were based on the particular industries and occupational situations (government employees- Yılmaz, 2020; Akbaş & Dursun, 2020; academicians- Çelebi, 2020) focused on the changes in women's business life during the COVID-19 pandemic process. Additionally, while the studies generally focus on individual outputs such as job satisfaction and performance, emotional experiences are rarely investigated in academic studies (for example, Güner & Bozkurt, 2017). In order to fill the gap, this study focused on empirically describing the prevalence of difficulties and emotional experiences of women who holistically work in different conditions than before. Women workers' emotional experience is represented with job-related contentment (the reasoning is explained in the following paragraphs).

Well-being is the most useful tool for describing the emotional experiences of employees. Even the term comes from psychology literature, after the first years of the industrial revolution using the neo-classical approach. In fact, thousands of studies focused on the well-being of employees; however, the studies focused on the issue with different terminology. As Wright (2006) explained in his study, the definition of well-being is not universal and the connection between well-being and high performance has not been proven in organizational behavior literature. The main reason is the complexity of the definition of well-being. In the earliest studies,

theorists focused on pleasure and pain. In contrast, focusing on happiness as an indicator of well-being is also problematic since it is a phenomenon that is quickly consumed when the intended target is achieved (see for detail: Diener, Lucas & Scoll (2009) treadmill model study). Although studies indicate the connection between the well-being of employees and performance, as discussed in Wright’s study (2006), the indicator of well-being is important. On the other hand, employee satisfaction includes many elements related to the job. As Mardanov (2020) stated in his study, factors, such as the employee's internal motivation, external motivation, policies, procedures, systems, culture and climate, affect employee satisfaction within the organization.

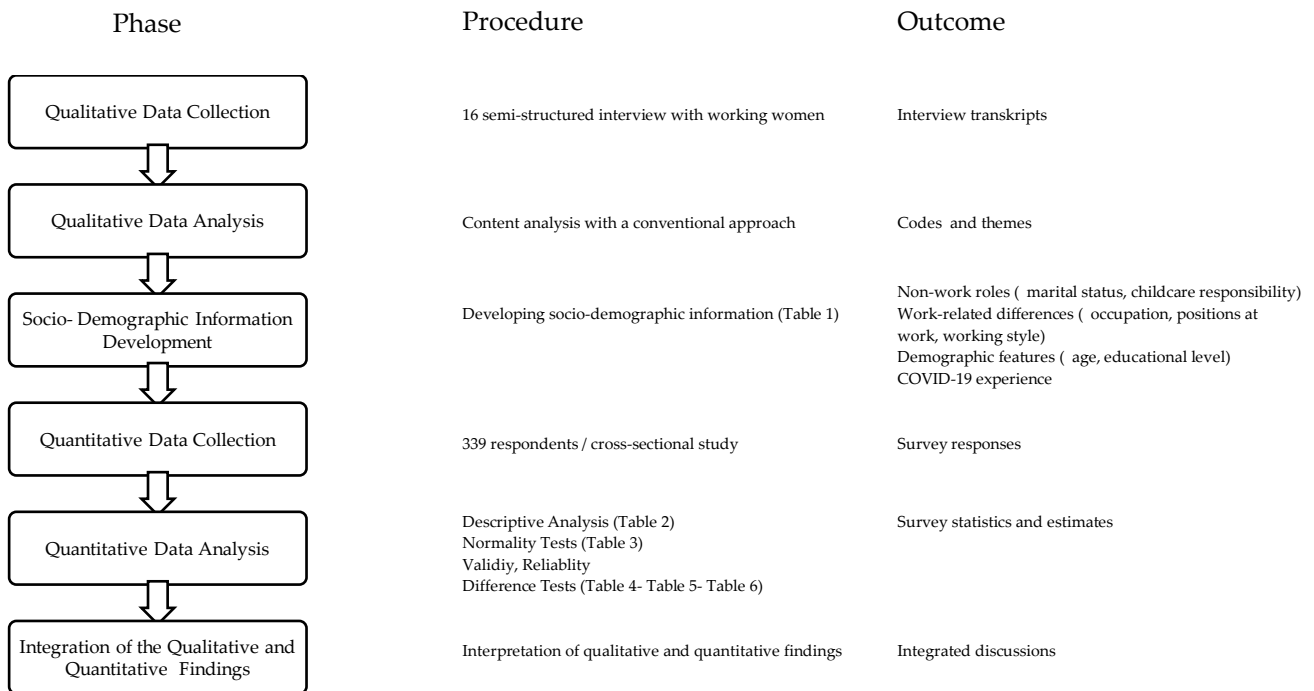
Warr (1990b) made a detailed evaluation to examine the connections between job characteristics and job well-being. Warr defined two dimensions with polar definition: depression and enthusiasm vs. anxiety and contentment. Furthermore, he stated that the dimensions of job contentment and enthusiasm for the job are determinative from different perspectives. Accordingly, there were more significant relationships between job demands and job contentment, while enthusiasm for work had a stronger predictive power for more decision latitudes. In addition, more significant negative relationships were found between negative work-related situations and job contentment (Warr, 1990b). Based on the aforementioned reasons, it was concluded that the contentment dimension of the employees is a more important determinant for the purpose of the study, and in this study, job-related contentment levels were discussed to evaluate the emotional well-being of women workers.

### 3. Method

#### 3.1 Research Model and Hypotheses of the Study

This is a mixed method study using both qualitative and quantitative research methods that were used in order to increase the statistical power and reliability of the data. Explanatory sequential design (first qualitative data is collected and analyzed and the findings guided the quantitative data collection) and building method is used for procedure (qualitative database is base for the data collection approach of the quantitative data) (Fetters et al., 2013). Accordingly, the research model of the study can be summarized as the following.

Figure 1. Research Model



Adapted from: Hidalgo et al., 2020.

In the light of the evaluations in literature section, and as a first in stage of the study, the criteria that are deterministic on difficulties of working women in the COVID-19 pandemic process are determined with the semi-structured interview. Accordingly, qualitative research findings are used to develop Socio-demographic

Information Form (SDIF), and the hypotheses to be tested in the quantitative method were obtained in the scope of this information. In addition to the SDIF questions, job-related anxiety/contentment dimensions of Warr's (1990) work-related well-being scale were included to evaluate the job-related contentment of working women as a dependent variable. In the following hypotheses of the empirical study are listed.

H1: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women according to their marital status during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

H2: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women according to their childcare responsibilities during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

H3: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women who have COVID-19 (experienced either by themselves or by other household members).

H4: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women according to the occupational differences during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

H5: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women according to their positions at work during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

H6: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of the working women according to her working type and that of other individuals at home during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

H7: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women according to their educational level during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

H8: There is a statistically significant difference in terms of job-related contentment scores of working women according to their age category during the COVID-19 pandemic process.

### 3.2 Research Design and Sample

#### Qualitative Research:

In the first stage, working women who were obtained through the Snowball method and volunteered to participate in the study were reached via WhatsApp, Zoom, or face-to-face. When choosing the participants, different demographic profiles were taken into consideration, and a total of 16 women with different demographics and job conditions were reached for interviews. Qualitative research was conducted with a semi-structured interview method and a general question was asked to each of the participants.

#### Quantitative Research:

In the second stage, the research sample for the quantitative research design was determined by the quota sampling method.

The province of Istanbul is one of the sample constraints, as it has the highest number of working women and is determinant in terms of reaching different sectors with varying working styles. The majority of the working population is in the defined age range (21-65). Moreover, tenure (at least 1 year of work experience) was expressed as another limiting criterion in order to see their exposure to work-life problems in the COVID-19 conditions. As well, to represent different profiles, no restrictions were made on matters such as profession, sector, business size.

Data were obtained by those who met the relevant criteria with the Snowball method. In order to reach the participants, the Human Resources department of various institutions from different sectors was reached both individually and via email, and to deliver the survey questions, a link and hard copy of the survey document was sent to. The data collection process was completed in December 2021, and the ethics committee report for the related study in Istanbul Medipol University Social Sciences Scientific Research Ethics Committee-decision no: 101- decision date is 07.10.2021. Besides the questionnaires, the purpose of the study, the criteria of being a participant for the study, and the Informed Consent Form are included in the survey form.

Since the main population encompasses a large number of individuals (estimated above 1,000,000), the sample size is suggested as 384 at the 95% confidence interval (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). However, they stated that the

sample between 30 and 500 is representative of many studies (Roscoe, 1975 cited in Sekaran, 2003). Within the scope of this study, a total of 339 participants' data has been analyzed in the study.

### 3.3 Measurement

(1) The semi-structured interview question of the study consists of a single main question: "As a woman, what has been the biggest challenge in your life during the COVID-19 pandemic process?" (Also, some demographic information about their marital status, age and occupation / position at work are asked)- the related questions were prepared by the researcher.

(2) Socio-demographic information form (SDIF) questions were prepared by the researcher based on qualitative research findings.

(3) Job-related Contentment Scale

Work-related emotional experiences will be evaluated with the 6-item job-related anxiety/contentment dimension of the 12-item job-related emotional well-being scale developed by Warr (1990a- Affective well-being scale).

Warr (1999a) developed the two-dimensional scale using a sample of 1686 employees and previous well-being scale items. As a result of the analysis, the correlation between job-related anxiety/contentment and job-related depression/enthusiasm dimensions was high ( $r=0.66$ ) (Warr, 1990b). The scale consists of two-pronged questions expressed as job-related anxiety/ contentment (Cronbach's alpha= 0.76) and job-related depression/enthusiasm (Cronbach's alpha= 0.80). The negative statements were defined as reverse coded: in other words, the scale measured (1) contentment and (2) enthusiasm levels of participants (Warr, 1990a). Also, after this stage, the relevant dimensions will be expressed as job-related contentment and job-related enthusiasm. Within the scope of the study, job-related contentment (shortly: JC - 6 adjectives) was included for the reasons discussed in the literature, and the scale is rated with never / always statements in a 5-point Likert-type scale. The permission to use the relevant scale was obtained from the researcher via e-mail, and a Turkish adaptation of the scale was made by the researcher.

### 3.4 Data Analysis

The answers gathered from semi-structured interviews were evaluated with a content analysis procedure. Findings are the basis of socio-demographic form and also job-related distinctive features. So, in this stage, criteria to define challenges faced by working women was determined. Quantitative data was tested with the SPSS Statistics 25 package program, and Descriptive statistics were used to reveal the employee profile while mean scores were calculated to reveal the level of job-related contentment of working women in the COVID-19 pandemic process. The hypotheses presented in literature (H1-H8) were evaluated with the help of the independent samples T test, One -Way ANOVA and Jonckheere Trend Test.

## 4 Findings

Within the scope of the study, qualitative study findings regarding the changes in working style and general work-related conditions of working women will be presented and the related hypotheses (stated in the literature section) will be summarized in this section.

### 4.1 Qualitative Data Analysis and Findings

Interviews with the participants were made in digital environment upon the request of most participants (9 participants - WhatsApp conversation, 3 participants - Zoom meeting, 4 participants - Face-to-face meeting), and the notes taken during the interview in each of them constitute the data records in order to ensure the similarity of the data. The statements in which the participants expressed striking views or those summarized again by the interviewer at the end of the interview and confirmed by the participant. The interviews lasted an average of 30 minutes (496 minutes total for all of the meetings).

Coding Procedure: In order to analyze the data, content Analysis with a conventional approach is used to categorize the information gathered from the interviews. Because there are not enough studies in the literature to ensure that the determining factors are designed in accordance with the purpose of the study. With this analysis method, experiences can be defined, but the findings are limited to concept and model creation. For this purpose, the analysis procedure in the study of Hsieh and Shannon (2005) was followed. First of all,

transcripts are read from beginning to end and highlighted the words that are described as difficulty and distinguishing factor as keyword or phrase with their original statements. Then the codes are limited as much as possible and for all transcripts. Some are repeated and some new codes is added with new codes. Then codes are defined again for all some are combined some others became subcategory and themes are built accordingly. Based on the information summarized in the following, the codes are composed, the categories that are decisive in the working life of women were obtained (Table 1).

Almost all married women (also those with children) indicate that non-work responsibilities, such as wife and mother roles, affect the work experiences. According to respondents, being married or single as a working woman, and being with a relative/children who need care stated as big challenges in the pandemic process. Also, changes in the working type (remote or others) of them and their spouses affected their non-work responsibilities. Others who don't have to care for others, generally focus on work-related difficulties, such as occupation and position at work, and decrease in socialization and commitment to the work. These inferences motivated the quantitative research model to determine the important antecedents that have an impact on the way they experience the COVID-19 pandemic process as a working woman.

**Table 1. Qualitative Summary**

Participant	Age	Marital Status	Codes	Themes
Participant-1	45	Married	<i>As a mother with children, I had to go to work when the schools are closed.</i>	Childcare responsibility
Participant-2	38	Divorced	<i>I had to leave my 8-year-old at home alone and go to work.</i>	Childcare responsibility
Participant-3	29	Married	<i>My mother was taking care of my children, so I had to take a caregiver to stay home so I wouldn't take risks.</i>	Supported in childcare
Participant-4	46	Married	<i>I have 5 children of school age, and I work from home, but it is very inefficient.</i>	Working type / Childcare responsibility
Participant-5	49	Single	<i>I live with my family, I'm afraid of infecting them on my commute.</i>	Household COVID-19 risk groups
Participant-6	34	Married	<i>We were infected with COVID-19 as whole family; it was very difficult to manage the process as a working mother.</i>	COVID-19 experience
Participant-7	28	Single	<i>My workload has increased a lot, working from home was nice at first, but as time passed, it became difficult to be alone.</i>	Occupation type / Position at work
Participant-8	27	Married	<i>I work from home, but my husband's job is very risky, I am afraid of infected with COVID-19 for myself and my children.</i>	Marital Status / COVID-19 risk groups
Participant-9	50	Divorced	<i>I work in a pharmacy, afraid to put my family at risk.</i>	Occupation type
Participant-10	54	Single	<i>I am a manager, it is difficult to coordinate the work remotely, we work inefficiently.</i>	Position at work / Working type
Participant-11	26	Single	<i>As the process gets longer, my commitment to my job decreases, I do not like to work remotely.</i>	Working type
Participant-12	53	Married	<i>Motivation of all employees started to decrease; part-time work kept me away from work.</i>	Working type
Participant-13	39	Married	<i>Me and my husband have to work at home with my husband, in this process the work-life balance was disrupted.</i>	Marital Status / Working type household
Participant-14	42	Married	<i>I am a manager, it is difficult to coordinate the work remotely, we work inefficiently.</i>	Position at work / Working type
Participant-15	35	Single	<i>Work started to get very boring, communication and socialization decreased a lot.</i>	Working type / Occupation type
Participant-16	36	Single	<i>Working with a mask is very tiring, it is difficult to communicate with people.</i>	Working type / Occupation type

The information gathered from semi-structured interviews used to design the socio-demographic information form (SDIF) contains the following information: Gender (only women), (2) Age, (3) Marital Status, (4) Number

and age of children / if any, (5) Educational status of children, (6) The person responsible for the care of children before the pandemic, (7) Educational Status, (8) Profession, (9) Sector, (10) Total number of employees in the workplace (11) Work-life Tenure, (12) Organizational Tenure, (13) Position at Work, 14. Working Type (own), (15) Working Type (household), (16) Chronic disease, (17) Household (number / age / relation), (18) COVID 19 experience.

**4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis and Findings:**

The sample consists of relatively young participants between the ages of 21 and 60 (mean age = 33.33). Table 2 shows the distribution according to age ranges. Also, the tenure mean is calculated as 6.63 years, which changes from 1 to 33 years. As stated in the table, nearly half of the sample is single, widowed, or divorced (55.2%) and most of them (66.7%) have no children. Because childcare responsibilities increased at early stages, it is also categorized for the sample with 38.7% of children constituting preschool and primary school ages and only 18.6 % as caregiver / relative support for child responsibility.

**Table 2.** Descriptive Findings

Category	Dimension	Frequency	N
Age	Below 30	41.6	141
	30-39	34.5	117
	40 and above	23.9	81
Marital Status	Single	42.5	144
	Married	44.8	52
	Divorced/Widowed	12.7	43
Education Level	Primary / Secondary School	0.6	2
	High School /Associate Degree	11.5	39
	Bachelor's degree	62.8	213
	Master / Doctorate	25.1	85
Position at Work	Non-managerial Level	83.18	282
	Managerial Level	16.81	57
Total Employee Number	<50	18.9	64
	50-250	23.3	79
	250-1000	22.4	76
	>1000	35.4	120
Working Type in Pandemic Process	Remote working	52.2	177
	Hybrid working	10.9	37
	On-site working	31.9	108
	Short-term work	2.7	9
	Long-term work	1.8	6
	Lay-off	0.6	2
Household Working Type in Pandemic Process	Remote working	23.6	80
	Hybrid working	12.1	41
	On-site working	41.0	139
	Short-term work	0.9	3
	Long-term work	0.3	1
	Non-worker	22.1	75
Number of Children	0	66.7	226
	1	14.7	50
	2	13.3	45
	3 +	5.3	18
Supported in Childcare (Caregiver / Relative)	Yes	18.6	63
	No	81.4	276
Children Education Status (first child+ second child + third child + fourth child)	Pre-school	13.3 + 4.7 + 0.3	62
	Primary school	10.6 + 8.0 + 1.8	69
	Secondary School	3.8 + 2.1 + 1.2 + 0.3	25
	High School	3.2 + 1.5 + 0.9 + 0.3	20
	University	1.8 + 1.5 + 0.6	13
	Worker	0.9 + 0.3 + 0.6	6
Chronic Illnesses	Yes	11.8	40
	No	88.2	299



COVID-19 Experience	No one infected yet	42.4	143
	Infected	39.7	134
	Household infected / died	17.6	59
Household	Single	9.7	33
	Adult(s)	38.5	131
	Risk groups (chronic illnesses, children, +60 ages)	51.8	175
Occupation	HF (flexible / high-contact)	25.7	87
	HI (inflexible / high-contact)	23.3	81
	LF (flexible / low-contact)	23.9	79
	LI (inflexible / low-contact)	27.1	92

The working type was found to be a deterministic factor for work-life experience, and we asked an open-ended question about both their and household working type, summarized in table 1. Accordingly, nearly half (52.2 %) worked remotely during the pandemic process. Additionally, 77.9% of them live with at least one working household. Furthermore, the sample consists of highly educated participants: 87.9% have a minimum bachelor's degree. Most of the sample (83.18%) was composed of experts and employees (including workers, teachers, lawyers...etc.) all of whom appeared to have a dominance in distribution between managerial and non-managerial participants. Their company profile is described with the total employee number: 42.2% are working in small and medium-sized firms and the rest are working in large firms, resulting in sample's firm characteristics that seem to represent various firm sizes.

A sample of the 27 sectors (including education, finance, food, informatics... etc.) was defined by the vocational qualification institution (MYK in Turkish), each sector with a minimum of 5 employees was included in the sample, and accordingly, there was no restriction on occupational groups.

In table 2, occupations were categorized according to Albanesi and Kim's (2021) study. In the study, occupations were classified according to their exposure to the pandemic in terms of contact density and suitability for remote work (flexibility), and it was seen in the relevant study that, especially for women, high-contact and inflexible occupations are most affected. In the same study, based on O\*NET data, the occupation classes they presented in the table were listed as (1) flexible / high-contact, (2) flexible / low-contact, (3) inflexible / high-contact, (4) inflexible / low-contact (Albanesi & Kim, 2021, p.10). Accordingly, various occupations in our sample are classified and the relevant hypothesis is tested based on these groups.

COVID-19 experiences were also reviewed in various questions with 42.4 % experiencing no COVID-19 experience. The rest were infected and/or their household infected or COVID-19 related deaths. At the same time, individual and household COVID-19 risks are questioned for chronic illnesses in children and old-aged family members. While a small portion of the participants (11.8%) had a chronic disease, more than half (51.8%) lived with at least 1 risky family member.

#### Factor Analysis:

Factor analysis is conducted with varimax rotation for the job-related contentment (JC) scale and found a single dimensioned variable. KMO = 0.834 (p=0.00), Total Variance Explained = 63.658. All items are represented in the factor and factor loadings of the items change in the range of 0.758-0.844. The Cronbach alpha value of the factor is estimated as 0.885. So, the variable is valid and reliable for hypothesis testing.

#### Normal Distribution of The Sample:

In order to decide the parametric and non-parametric difference tests, the normal distribution of the sample is tested and summarized as follows. When the values calculated for the normal distribution are examined, it is seen that the mean and median and mode values are quite close. Skewness and Kurtosis values are within the range of +1.50 referenced by many sources (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The values obtained as a result of dividing the skewness and kurtosis values by the standard error were found -3.12878 for skewness and -1.04166 for kurtosis. According to this calculation method, skewness/ std. error is not an indicator for normal distribution. As the sample gets larger, the decrease in the standard error leads to the deterioration of these values (Uysal and Kılıç, 2021). Also, well-being is a 5-point Likert scale values changes between 1 to 5, there are no extreme values in the sample. When the hypothesis tests are examined (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk expressed in the table), the results do not support the normal distribution, but it has been stated

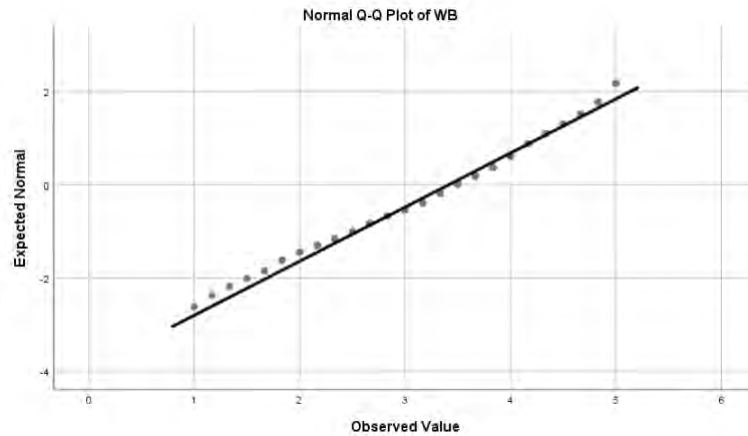
in the related studies that the tests reject normality for large samples and are not reliable for normality decision (Pallant, 2016).

**Table 3.** Normal Distribution Scores

Test	Score
Mean	3.4145
Median	3.50
Mode	4.00
Std. error	0.04684
Skewness	-0.413
Skewness / std. error	-3.12878
Kurtosis	-0.275
Kurtosis/ std. error	-1.04166
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	0.082 (p= 0.00)
Shapiro-Wilk	0.978 (p= 0.00)

The Q-Q plot method, one of the recommended methods in large samples (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013), was used and it was seen that the sample distribution supported the normal distribution, as can be seen in the image below (Figure 2). In addition, the dataset also satisfies the assumption of the central limit theorem (each category contains >30 samples). It was concluded that the contradictory results were largely due to the sample size, and the sample is assumed to have a normal distribution.

**Figure 2.** Q-Q Plot of the Job-related Contentment (JC) Scale



**Hypotheses Tests:**

The hypothesis of the study has been developed through both literature review and the qualitative research findings. Socio-demographic responses are interpreted in order to test the hypotheses and are summarized as follows. While the 3rd question in the SDIF is marital status, questions 4, 5, and 6 are asked to determine childcare responsibility, and questions 16, 17, and 18 will be included in the hypotheses to determine COVID-19 experience in terms of the individual and their caregivers. The 8th question is for determining their profession (occupational category), and the 13th question is individual job position. Additionally, the 14th and 15th questions were handled as working types, and these variables will be tested in the hypotheses as if they are the primary determinants of working women in pandemic conditions.

According to different tests, marital status, statistically, does not appear as a distinguishing feature for job-related contentment, in other words, marriage is not a determining factor and H1 is not supported. Childcare responsibility has been tested with both T-test and Jonckheere Trend Test in 2 versions. Accordingly, having or not having children is categorized with version 1. Version 2, which includes a more detailed classification regarding child responsibility, has been evaluated in 4 categories: (1) not having a child, (2) having at minimum, 1 child, (3) having a minimum of 1 child in preschool, (4) having a minimum of 1 child in preschool or primary school and not supported in childcare. Version 2 in childcare responsibility variables in the study showed ordinal data characteristics and the Jonckheere-Terpstra Test was performed to compare the groups of these variables. And estimated effect size is seen in Kendall's tau score, the correlation is negative but as

represented in Table 6, there is no significant difference. In both cases, the job-related contentment levels of the participants did not change statistically significantly. Accordingly, the H2 hypothesis is not supported. Those who do not have COVID-19 experience defined as (1) not having a chronic disease, (2) have not yet been infected, and (3) who do not live with risky individuals were defined as a category; the others were classified as another category and analyzed with the T test. The findings do not show a statistically significant difference. In the One- Way ANOVA test, on the other hand, more detailed categories were created in terms of carrying more than one of the relevant criteria and no significant difference could be detected, so the H3 hypothesis is not supported. According to the ANOVA test results, no significant difference was found between the occupational classes created based on the study of Albanesi and Kim (2021), and the H4 hypothesis is not supported. It was also seen in independent samples T test that, the positions of the participants, those acting as managers in the workplace were considered as a criterion but were not determinative about their job-related contentment levels during the pandemic, so the H5 hypothesis is not supported. The H6 hypothesis questioned the difference between working styles, and according to the T-test findings, it was seen that remote workers have higher job-related contentment levels than other types of work. For detailed examination, the ANOVA test was conducted. As can be seen in the Scheffe test results, remote work (mean= 3.5113) has a more positively significant difference compared to over-time work (mean= 2.3056). Additionally, the effect of the working style of the household was examined, and the T-test findings show that there is no effect of the working style of the household. A more complex classification was made in the ANOVA test, and according to this, the working style of the person and the working household were considered together. 4 categories were created: remote working + household remote working, not-remote working + household remote working, not-remote working + household not-remote working. Statistically, no significant difference was found. The findings show that the H6 hypothesis is not rejected.

Since the age categories indicates ordinal data characteristics, Jonckheere-Terpstra Test was performed to compare the groups of these variables. Both Jonckheere-Terpstra Test and Kendall's tau scores are negative but insignificant. Accordingly, it was determined that age is not an indicator, and the H7 hypothesis is not supported (details are in Table 6).

As a result of the evaluation of education level using ANOVA test, for education, it was seen that bachelor's degree (mean= 3.5227) has a more positive significant difference compared to high school / associate degree (mean= 3.0812), and the H8 hypothesis is not rejected. In Table 7 below, the supported status of the relevant hypotheses and reference tables are summarized.

**Table 4.** Independent Samples T Test

Category	N	Mean (std.)	t	df	p
Marital Status	Married- 144	3.43291 (0.89054)	0.337	0.337	0.736
	Single / Divorced / Widowed- 195	3.4009 (0.84315)			
Childcare Responsibility	Yes-113	3.3687 (0.90261)	-0.690	337	0.491
	No-226	3.4373 (0.84276)			
COVID Experience	Yes- 275	3.3933 (0.85266)	-0.906	337	0.366
	No- 63	3.5026 (0.91164)			
Position	Non-managerial- 282	3.3771 (0.87362)	-1.781	337	0.076
	Managerial- 57	3.5994 (0.78608)			
Working Type	Remote-177	3.5113 (0.86394)	2.173	337	<b>0.030</b>
	Other-162	3.3086 (0.85090)			
Household Working Type	Remote-80	3.3875 (0.80206)	-0.319	337	0.750
	Other-259	3.4228 (0.88158)			

**Table 5.** One- Way ANOVA Test

Category	Between / Within	Mean (square)	F	p
Occupation	1.264	0.421	0.564	0.639
	250.144	0.747		
COVID Experience / version 2	2.467	0.493	0.658	0.656
	243.878	0.750		

Working Type / version 2*	10.664	2.133	2.950	<b>0.013</b>
Household Working Type / compare Education*	240.774	0.723		
	5.132	1.711	2.327	0.075
	246.276	0.735		
	9.531	3.177	4.400	0.005
	241.877	0.722		
<b>Sheffe Test Results</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>p</b>
Working Type	Remote working			
	Hybrid working	0.21400	0.15370	0.857
	On- site working	0.12241	0.10382	0.925
	Short- term working	0.40019	0.29054	0.863
	Lay-off	0.42797	0.60462	0.992
	Overtime working	1.20574*	.35295	<b>0.042</b>
Education	High School & Associate Degree			
	Pirmary / Secondary School	-1.08547	.61606	.377
	Bachelor’s Degree	-.44150*	.14800	<b>.032</b>
	Master / Doctorate	-.19723	.16434	.696

**Table 6.** Jonckheere Trend Test

Variable	Level	Observed J-T Statistic	Std. J-T Statistic	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Childcare Responsibility	4	13786.500	-0.856	0.392
Kendall's tau_b = -0.037, p= 0.392				
Age	3	18105.000	-0.610	0.542
Kendall's tau_b = -0.026, p= 0.542				

**Table 7.** Hypotheses Test Results

Hypotheses Variables (IV-DV)	Supported (S)/ Not supported (N)	Source
H1: Marital Status- JC	N	Table 4
H2: Childcare Responsibility- JC	N	Table 4- Table 6
H3: COVID-19 Experience- JC	N	Table 4-Table 5
H4: Occupation- JC	N	Table 5
H5: Position at Work- JC	N	Table 4
H6: Working Type- JC	S	Table 4- Table 5
H7: Education Level- JC	S	Table 5
H8: Age- JC	N	Table 6

JC: Job-related Contentment

## 5. Conclusion, Discussion, and Implications

Although the place of women in business life has been a matter of debate in academia for many years, the position of women in work life and managerial levels is still a criterion for the development of countries (such as the United Nations Development Program and Sustainable Development Goals etc.). With the advent of women's participation in corporate working life, which resulted in role expansion, women's working life has resulted in problems that include role conflict and strain on the agenda. These arguments, which have been the subject of many studies, have also been the subject of research that compares the pre-pandemic and pandemic process or examines the effect of new elements that disrupt the work-life balance during the pandemic process. Especially the impact of their gender roles and re-reporting of difficulties in new working conditions increased the importance of some gaps in the related literature. Accordingly, one of the academic contributions of this study is to contribute to the relevant literature by revealing the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic process on working women in an empirical and comprehensive way. Another expected contribution is to draw attention to the job-related emotional experiences of working women. Within this scope, the study is designed to evaluate the difficulties experienced by working women during the pandemic

process and their effects on their job-related contentment with using two different samples and methods. Few studies have focused on the difficulties experienced by women during the pandemic process and their effects on their emotional processes using quantitative methods. This study also differs from similar studies in terms of the method it uses, this study model also contributes to the literature in terms of making use of a mixed method.

The difficulties faced by working women obtained as a result of the semi-structured interview, and also findings led to the formation of variables that will be defined as antecedents. Accordingly, non-work responsibilities (marital status, childcare responsibility), COVID-19 experiences, demographic characteristics (age, education level), and work-related differences (occupation, position, and work type) are defined based on the findings of the study as the antecedents and this frame obtained from the study suggested as a model for the related literature. Also, the qualitative study design revealed the negative effect of the increase in non-work responsibilities, especially for participants with multiple roles (such as spouse, and motherhood). As well, the aforementioned findings are mainly parallel to the studies focusing on women's work-life balance and gender roles (eg. Rodgers, 1992; Delina & Raya, 2013). One of the most critical common findings is that working women with multiple roles express difficulties with work-life balance. Similar studies conducted during the pandemic period with different samples (national and international studies) and methods (especially by interview method) focused on the difficulties experienced by working women (e.g., Palumbo 2020, Uddin 2021, Öztürk et al. 2020) and stated that women are much more affected by this process due to their roles.

In order to take these findings one step further, the quantitative research design tested the difference in emotional experiences (job-related contentment) of working women. As a result of the quantitative analysis, the job-related contentment level of participants was estimated as moderate level (3.41 from 5). Although the roles of working women as spouses and mothers have forced them to take on multiple roles compared to other women and men during the pandemic, findings indicate that the differences between non-work responsibilities, unlike the ones envisaged in the hypotheses, are not a significant determinant for job-related contentment. In addition to the ones explained above age is also analyzed within the scope of quantitative data and age is not a significant determinant for job-related contentment according to analysis. However, the findings do not support the idea that non-work responsibilities are not difficult for working women during the pandemic process, it may be interpreted as they could be distinguished between non-work and work-related emotional experiences. From a different perspective, Mark's (1977) study of the multiple roles of women is one of the studies that best explains this cycle. Accordingly, he argues that there is a connection between the value women give to their roles and the time they allocate, stating that the roles that women play incur fewer feelings of guilt. Perhaps the effect of role conflict expressed in qualitative findings on women workers can be explained in this context. Although their job contentment was not affected, it may have caused them to feel guilty about their other roles (such as child responsibility). Interpretation of the findings will become more meaningful when future studies focus on different outputs (guilty, burnout, psychological capital, etc.) to evaluate their emotional experiences.

However, if our assumptions reflect the real conditions, the fact that women's non-work responsibilities in working life do not have a negative impact on their work-related emotional states should not mean that these responsibilities should be ignored. Non-work responsibilities, such as motherhood, should include certain support without disrupting the functioning of the organization, and should include women-oriented practices within the scope of the conditions of each organization. While this enables them to minimize role conflicts based on their non-work roles, it can also support work engagement and positive feelings towards the organization. On the other hand, keeping in mind that there is an equal effort and responsibility in working life, taking similar responsibilities by the spouses of working women, recognition of the expected privileges for the role of mother in workplace policies for fathers, and the perception of this equal effort in the society will both strengthen the place of women in business life, and it is thought that it will increase the bond between the organization and the employee. Evaluation of these suggestions, which include long-term results, in future studies will be meaningful for both academic literature and decision makers.

Another important finding of the qualitative study is that besides non-work responsibilities, changes in work-life (related to online working) are also expressed as another reason for the difficulties in this period. Since the "biggest challenge" was asked in the study, the difficulties related to work are mostly included in the

statements of the participants who do not have marriage and motherhood roles. Accordingly, it has been revealed that online working has compelling effects in areas such as managerial and secondary results of working, such as communication and commitment. Studies focused on work-related changes during the pandemic process have also reached parallel results regarding the related difficulties (Adisa et al., 2021; Flores, 2019, etc.) and have highlighted the negative consequences of remote working up both in terms of secondary work outcomes and work-life balance.

In order to explicate the findings about the work-related consequences mentioned in the qualitative study, the difference related to occupation, position, and working style is investigated in the quantitative study, and only working style indicates a significant difference. In a general compartment, the qualitative and quantitative findings may indicate inconsistency in the findings related to remote working, and in contrast to interviews, it can be inferred that they are satisfied with working remotely under pandemic conditions. However, remote working indicates a positive difference, compared to those who work overtime and when investigated the respondents who work overtime are generally healthcare workers. As a general view (also theoretically mentioned in previous studies), this finding has largely been due to a reduction in the risk of COVID-19 and other time-wasting factors for work (such as the way to work or dressing), resulting in work-related contentment in favor of those who experience working from home. This may be because it provides an advantage in terms of fulfilling their non-work responsibilities, even if the work-life balance is disturbed. Additionally, the fact that there is no difference in remote working compared to other forms of work indicates that consistent findings have been obtained regarding the disadvantages expressed in the qualitative study. In the assumption of the validity of this assessment, although occupational classification within the scope of the study did not yield results, it was concluded that professional differences should be taken into account in order to evaluate the results of remote working for work. Especially qualitative findings highlight the importance of Albanesi and Kim's (2021) study to classify eligibility for remote work. Although it is theoretically seen that contact density and flexibility is an important discrimination criterion, the findings of this quantitative study did not support this. In addition to the necessity of continuing studies with different samples, it is necessary to review the criteria related to either occupational diagnoses and/or occupations that are suitable or not suitable for remote work, in future studies. Also, in order to determine which occupations are more effective and efficient, there is a need for more comprehensive and benchmarking studies. Another significant difference in quantitative findings concerns those who are in high school / associate degree and bachelor's degree. It is also probably related to occupational and working type differences, since the majority of university graduates in the sample also overlap with those who work remotely.

Remote working is a form of work in which most workplaces are caught unprepared for the COVID-19 pandemic process, but by seeing its advantages, they try to adapt their way of doing business in the long term. As Shockley & Allen (2007) explained in their studies, remote working both has advantages and disadvantages, and success is due to work type and the design of work. In the post-pandemic period, the negative effects of remote working in areas, such as commitment to work, organizational culture, communication, and synergy, should be tested with longitudinal models and new model proposals should be developed that can prevent negative effects. Regulations that will prevent these disadvantages in human resources activities, and new methods to measure and develop employees' motivation, performance, communication, and commitment are other research questions that need to be studied in cooperation with academia and practitioners.

In any case, more empirical studies are needed to determine whether socio-demographic variables play a decisive role in job-related contentment. Also, the discussion about the findings indicates that some situational variables that are not taken in this study could be effective rather than the inconsistency of the two different samples and methods. In other words, statistically significant findings, as well as insignificant findings, implies that studies based on work-life balance in women with different models should be continued. Although the findings obtained from the study are seen to be predictable to some extent since they are also widely discussed in non-academic areas, the discussion of these findings with the academic procedure and in a way that provides evidence has been found to be meaningful in terms of going beyond being a claim, since "working women" is the indispensable human capitals of both the business world and countries, so these studies important for value creation.

## References

- Adisa, T. A., Ogbonnaya, C., & Adekoya, O. D. (2021). Remote working and employee engagement: a qualitative study of British workers during the pandemic. *Information Technology & People*, Vol.(no): ahead-of-print.
- Ahmad, N. (2009). ASSOCHAM Business Barometer, ASSOCHAM Research Bureau.
- Akbaş, Ö. Z., & Dursun, C. (2020). Koronavirüs (COVID-19) pandemisi sürecinde özel alanına kamusal alanı sığdıran çalışan anneler. *Avrasya Sosyal ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 7(5), 78-94.
- Akın, A., & Demirel, S. (2003). The concept of gender and its effects on health. *Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Dergisi Halk Sağlığı Özel Eki*, 25(4), 73-82.
- Albanesi, S., & Kim, J. (2021). Effects of the COVID-19 recession on the US labor market: Occupation, family, and gender. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 35(3), 3-24.
- Aycan, Z., & Eskin, M. (2005). Relative contributions of childcare, spousal support, and organizational support in reducing work-family conflict for men and women: The case of Turkey. *Sex Roles*, 53(7), 453-471.
- Bakıcı, C., & Aydın, E. (2020). Türkiye’de kadın çalışanların iş yaşam dengesini şekillendirmede ataerkilliğin rolü. *Economics Business and Organization Research*, 2(2), 82-98.
- Beken, N. (2020). Covid-19 Pandemi Sürecinde Kadın İstihdamı: Türkiye Örneği. *Iğdır Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, (EK SAYI (2020)), 47-74.
- Bordin, E. S., Nachmann, B., & Segal, S. J. (1963). An articulated framework for vocational development. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 10(2), 107.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2011). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı* (17. ed.). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Çelebi, E. (2020). Pandemi sürecinin akademisyenler üzerindeki toplumsal cinsiyet temelli etkileri, *Feminist Pencere*.
- Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations*, 53(6), 747-770.
- Delina, G., & Raya, R. P. (2013). A study on work-life balance in working women. *International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management*, 2(5), 274-282.
- Devi, K., & Kiran, U. V. (2014). Work life balance of women workers in construction industry. *European Academic Research*, 2(4), 4932-4946.
- Diener, E., Lucas, R. E., & Scollon, C. N. (2009). Beyond the hedonic treadmill: Revising the adaptation theory of well-being. In *The Science of Well-Being* (103-118). Springer, Dordrecht.
- Durmaz, Ş. (2016). İşgücü piyasasında kadınlar ve karşılaştıkları engeller. *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 2(3), 37-60.
- Eurostat datas: [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/lfsi\\_emp\\_a/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/lfsi_emp_a/default/table?lang=en)
- Fetters, M. D., Curry, L. A., & Creswell, J. W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs—principles and practices. *Health Services Research*, 48(6pt2), 2134-2156.
- Flores, M. F. (2019). Understanding the challenges of remote working and its impact to workers. *International Journal of Business Marketing and Management (IJBMM)*, 4(11), 40-44.
- Goode, W. J. (1960). A theory of role strain. *American Sociological Review*, 483-496.
- Güner, F., & Bozkurt, Ö. Ç. (2017). Banka çalışanlarının işyerinde mutluluk ve mutsuzluk nedenleri üzerine keşif amaçlı bir araştırma. *Örgütsel Davranış Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 2(2), 85-105.
- Hidalgo, M. D., Balluerka, N., Gorostiaga, A., Espada, J. P., Santed, M. Á., Padilla, J. L., & Gómez-Benito, J. (2020). The psychological consequences of covid-19 and lockdown in the Spanish population: An exploratory sequential design. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(22), 8578.

- Hjálmsdóttir, A., & Bjarnadóttir, V. S. (2021). "I have turned into a foreman here at home": Families and work-life balance in times of COVID-19 in a gender equality paradise. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 28(1), 268-283.
- Holland, J. L. (1973). *Making, vocational choices: A theory of careers*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9), 1277-1288.
- Hughes, D. L., & Galinsky, E. (1994). Gender, job and family conditions, and psychological symptoms. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 18(2), 251-270.
- Irawanto, D. W., Novianti, K. R., & Roz, K. (2021). Work from home: Measuring satisfaction between work-life balance and work stress during the Covid-19 pandemic in Indonesia. *Economies*, 9(3), 96.
- Karaca, N. G., & Kocabaş, F. (2011). The position of women in social and economic life: A comparison between the EU and Turkey. *Eurasian Economic Review*, 1(1), 66-94.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3), 607-610.
- Kurowska, A. (2020). Gendered effects of home-based work on parents' capability to balance work with non-work: Two countries with different models of division of labour compared. *Social Indicators Research*, 151(2), 405-425.
- Mardanov, I. (2020, November). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, organizational context, employee contentment, job satisfaction, performance and intention to stay. In Evidence-based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship. Emerald Publishing Limited.
- Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 921-936.
- Marshall, G. (1999). *Sosyoloji Sözlüğü*, çev. Osman Akınhay-Derya Kömürcü, Ankara: Bilim ve Sanat Yayınları.
- Menaghan, E. G., & Parcel, T. L. (1990). Parental employment and family life: Research in the 1980s. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 1079-1098.
- Mythili, M. (2013). The role of organisational culture in women's career advancement: a review. *The International Journal's Research Journal of Commerce&Behavioural Science*, 2(7), 55-62.
- Nizam, I., & Kam, C. (2018). The determinants of work-life balance in the event industry of Malaysia. *International Journal of Management, Accounting and Economics*, 5(3), 141-168.
- Öztürk, Y., Üstünelan, D., & Metin, B. (2020). Pandemi sürecinde kadınların ev içindeki deneyimleri ve evde kalmanın duyguları. *Feminist Tahayyül*, 1(2), 185-225.
- Pallant, J., & Manual, S. S. (2016). *A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS*, 6th. USA: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Palumbo, R. (2020). Let me go to the office! An investigation into the side effects of working from home on work-life balance. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*.
- Pinchbeck, I. (2013). *Women workers in the industrial revolution*. Routledge.
- Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: The gender snapshot 2021. (<https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2021/09/progress-on-the-sustainable-development-goals-the-gender-snapshot-2021>)
- Reddy, N. K., Vranda, M. N., Ahmed, A., Nirmala, B. P., & Siddaramu, B. (2010). Work-life balance among married women employees. *Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine*, 32(2), 112-118.
- Rodgers, F. S. (1992). When the business case is common sense: Coming to terms with America's family challenge. *ACA Journal*, 1, 84-93.



- Sekaran, U. (2003). Determining sample size. *Sekaran. Uma (4th Eds.), Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*, 263-298.
- Sekaran, U., & Hall, D. T. (1989). Asynchronism in dual-career and family linkages. *Handbook of Career Theory*, 159, 180.
- Shockley, K. M., & Allen, T. D. (2007). When flexibility helps: Another look at the availability of flexible work arrangements and work–family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71(3), 479-493.
- Sigroha, A. (2014). Impact of work life balance on working women: A comparative analysis. *The Business & Management Review*, 5(3), 22.
- Sundaresan, S. (2014). Work-life balance–implications for working women. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 7(7), 93-102.
- Super, D. E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16(3), 282-298.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics*, 6th edn Boston. MA: Pearson.
- Thompson, L., & Walker, A. J. (1989). Gender in families: Women and men in marriage, work, and parenthood. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 845-871.
- Uddin, M. (2021). Addressing work-life balance challenges of working women during COVID-19 in Bangladesh. *International Social Science Journal*, 71(239-240), 7-20.
- United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Human Development Report- 2019. (<http://hdr.undp.org/>)
- Uysal, İ., & Kılıç, A. (2021). Normal dağılım ikilemi. *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences International*, 12(1), 220-248.
- Vuga Beršnak, J., Humer, Ž., & Lobe, B. (2021). Characteristics of pandemic work–life balance in Slovenian military families during the lockdown: Who has paid the highest price? *Current Sociology*, 1-20.
- Warr, P. (1990a). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(3), 193-210.
- Warr, P. B. (1990b). Decision latitude, job demands, and employee well-being. *Work & Stress*, 4(4), 285-294.
- White, J. M. (1999). Work-family stage and satisfaction with work-family balance. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 30(2), 163-175.
- World Economic Forum 2020 (<https://www.weforum.org/reports?year=2020#filter>).
- Wright, T. A. (2006). To be or not to be [happy]: The role of employee well-being. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20(3), 118-120.
- Yılmaz, B. (2020). COVID-19 Pandemi sürecinin çalışanlar üzerine etkisi: kamu sektöründe çalışanlar üzerine uygulamalı bir araştırma. *Third Sector Social Economic Review*, 55(3), 1724-1740.