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**The Impact of Working from Home on Turnover
Intention**

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Dissertation presented as partial requirement for obtaining
the Master's degree in Information Management

NOVA Information Management School
Instituto Superior de Estatística e Gestão de Informação
Universidade Nova de Lisboa

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THE IMPACT OF WORKING FROM HOME ON TURNOVER INTENTION

by

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Dissertation presented as a partial requirement for obtaining the Master's degree in Information Management/Master's degree in Statistics and Information Management, with a specialisation in Business Intelligence and Knowledge Management.

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To my parents, Carlos and Carmo.

To Inês.

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ABSTRACT

The digital transformation uses on-premises technology, introducing fundamental changes to how businesses operate and deliver value to their customers to create a competitive advantage seeping through several areas of daily life and business work. In this context, new work models have emerged in recent decades, highlighting the possibility of shifting from present work to working from home. The COVID-19 pandemic fostered this change, profoundly affecting society and the worldwide economy. Recent studies summarised the perks of working from home (WFH) as work-life balance, work performance and control, and its disadvantages as home office constraints, work uncertainties and inadequate tools. Work arrangement may also impact other variables, such as organizational culture since an employee's link with a specific corporate is not only defined by a contract but also by his beliefs and perceptions concerning the organization. The less connection between a company and its employees may lead to their disengagement from the company and a decrease in job satisfaction, a strong predictor of turnover intention. The main objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between working from home and turnover intention. Thus, this study contributes to the literature relevant not only to academia but also to companies as scientific support to leverage their competitive advantage by recognizing the element that foments the retention and attraction of talent. For that, we propose a theoretical model. To test the model, we conduct an empirical study by collecting data by survey shared on several platforms. After data collection, we analyze all valid responses to a questionnaire built based on a previously validated scale. We apply the PLS-SEM quantitative method to assess our model and compare our results with previous studies. The study indicates the determinants of turnover intention. The empirical study indicates the model explains that turnover intention is explained in 48%. The results indicate that job satisfaction is dependent from job performance, work life balance, and organizational culture.

KEYWORDS

Working from Home; Turnover Intention; Job Satisfaction; Job Performance, Organizational Culture; Structural Model

INDEX

1. Introduction.....	1
1.1. Research Question	2
1.2. Study Objectives	2
1.3. Methodological Approach	2
1.4. Structure of the document	3
1.5. Contributions	3
2. Literature review	4
2.1 Working From Home	4
2.1.1 Theoretical Background of Working from Home	4
2.1.1 Working from Home in Europe	5
2.1.2 Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Working from Home	6
2.2 The Concept of Turnover Intention and Its Causes	7
3. Research Model Proposal and Hypothesis.....	9
3.1 Working from Home and Job Performance	9
3.1.1 Working from Home and Work-Life Balance.....	11
3.1.2 Work-Life Balance and Performance	12
3.1.3 Working from Home and Organizational Culture	12
3.1.4 Organizational Culture and Job Performance.....	13
3.1.5 Job Satisfaction	14
3.1.6 Turnover Intention	16
4. Research methodology and Results.....	17
4.1 Method.....	17
4.1.1 Data Collection.....	18
4.2 Measurement Model Results	18
4.3 Assessment of Structural Model.....	20
5. DISCUSSION	22
6. Conclusions.....	24
7. Limitations and recommendations for future works	26
References	27
Appendix A.....	42
Appendix B	44
Appendix C	45

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 – Turnover intention research model proposal	16
Figure 2 - Research model results	20

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics of participants' characteristics.....	18
Table 2 - Quality criteria and factor loadings.....	19
Table 4 - Questionnaire structure	42
Table 5 – Cross-Loadings.....	44

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

WFH	Working From Home
JP	Job Performance
WLB	Work-Life Balance
OC	Organizational Culture
JS	Job Satisfaction
TI	Turnover Intention
LVs	Latent Variables
SEM	Structural Equation Models
PLS	Partial Least Squares
CBSEM	Covariance-Based Structural Equation Models
VBSEM	Variance-Based Structural Equation Models
VIF	Variance Inflation Fact
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations

1. INTRODUCTION

The digital transformation uses on-premises technology, introducing fundamental changes to how businesses operate and deliver value to their customers to create a competitive advantage (Gökalp & Martinez, 2021). It seeps through several areas of daily life and business work, and it can also provide support for developing efficient processes and allow new ways of use. In this context, new work models have emerged in recent decades, highlighting the possibility of shifting from presence work to mobile work (Kathleen et al., 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic fostered this change, having profound consequences for society and the worldwide economy. Several countries and cities discussed and announced workplace restrictions, like quarantine, “stay-at-home” orders, or lay-off work to manage the spread of the virus. Although workplace restrictions have varied in start date, duration, and scope, under stay-at-home orders, one of the primary means adopted over the world was the following: employees’ presence that was not considered “essential” at the office has shifted to remote work affecting several aspects of their life (George et al., 2022).

George (2022) emphasizes that employees’ productivity and creative capacity are enhanced when individuals recognize their impact and the organization’s meaning in their life, concomitantly being able to manage their work-life balance. In sum, productivity is exploited when “work is close, but not too close.” When workers are experiencing high working-from-home (WFH) effectiveness, they prefer this arrangement even after the pandemic.

Recent studies summarised the perks and disadvantages of working from home (WFH). The advantages pinpointed are work-life balance, work efficiency, and work control. On the other side, the penalties are home office constraints, work uncertainties, and inadequate tools (Ipsen et al., 2021). Studies show that management and self-employed people showed a lower preference for working from home after the COVID-19 crisis (Wong et al., 2020). The forced and unexpected transition to working from home made managers need to work harder due to the loss of coordination activities that would typically occur as unplanned and extemporaneous interactions in the office (Teodorovicz et al., 2021). Hence, managers face the problem of management control. In this context, trust in employees plays an important role. In a trusting environment, fewer controls are necessary, consistent with working from home, where fewer controls are available (Baker et al., 2007). Thus, «trust» plays an essential role in organizations where risk-taking occurs (Tierney, 2008), task requirements are not clearly delineated, and where work is performed essentially in a virtual environment (Dani et al., 2006).

Beyond that, other variables may impact organizational culture. An employee’s link to a specific corporate is not a contract, but it is about the beliefs and perceptions of both sides, that is, employees and employers (Berber et al., 2022). The less connection between them may lead to the disengagement of the company (Faulds & Raju, 2021). In this line of thought, a company with poor cultural organizations may lower job satisfaction (Mahmood & Ahamed, 2015; McHugh, 1993). Nonetheless, some academics point out job satisfaction as a strong predictor of turnover intentions (Alexandrov et al., 2007).

In what concerns lessons learned in the COVID-19 crisis Thomas Maak highlights those leaders must be willing to step beyond rigid ideological positions to “orchestrate an effective, large-scale response to an unprecedented global challenge” (Maak et al., 2021).

1.1. RESEARCH QUESTION

There's evidence of working from home, even after COVID-19 came to stick (Barrero et al., 2021). Even though academics have looked at the impacts of working from home during the COVID-19 period (Galanti et al., 2021; Purwanto et al., 2020; Vyas & Butakhieo, 2021), scholars underline that the measures already presented, for example, the impact on work-life balance should be improved in a post-COVID-19 setting (Ipsen et al., 2021). In addition, bearing in mind that more companies are facing difficulties retaining their best talent (Berber et al., 2022). The exodus of employees from an organization can impact the entire organization and the individuals that leave. Although academics point out the advantages of working from home, the long-term impact on employee job satisfaction is still questionable.

Regarding turnover, the best way to investigate the turnover of employees is to follow their turnover intentions as a reliable predictor of actual turnover behaviour (Ipsen et al., 2021).

Inspired by the gap mentioned above, the research question it is intended to answer is:

RQ1: How does working from home impact indirectly the turnover intention?

1.2. STUDY OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between working from home and turnover intention, verifying if working from home impacts directly the working-life balance, and the organizational culture and if those three mentioned factor impact directly job satisfaction and analyze its effect on turnover intention.

Regarding turnover, the best way to investigate the turnover of employees is to follow their turnover intentions as a reliable predictor of actual turnover behaviour (Nadeem et al., 2019). Scholars highlight that most turnover results represent a set of well-established correlations with other variables (Mobley et al., 1979). Studying the causes of the propensity of turnover intention will conduct to more accurate conclusions in understanding the causes of turnover (Ngo-Henha, 2018).

This study investigates the relationship between working from home impacts on turnover intention and which variables are relevant to this outcome.

Understanding the primary factors and the significance of each one that impacts job satisfaction when working from home is pertinent to providing stakeholders insights into managing their employees in a distance work context.

1.3. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

Our study is based on research on Working from home (WFH) and Turnover intention (TI) to propose a new theoretical model. To validate the theoretical model, we conducted an empirical study through the collection of data by survey shared on several platforms such as Facebook, LinkedIn, Whatsapp, and institutional e-mail. After data collection, we analyzed 417 valid responses to a questionnaire built

based on a previously validated scale. We apply the PLS-SEM framework to assess our model and compare our results with previous studies.

1.4. CONTRIBUTIONS

Firstly, this study contributes to the literature on a very recent hot topic. Adopting working from home as a new work arrangement for several companies is a new reality. We also present working from home as an important piece in the broad puzzle of organizational culture as an essential factor in job satisfaction. These contributions are very relevant for academia and industry to leverage their competitive advantage by recognizing the element that foments the retention and attraction of talent.

1.5. STRUCTURE OF THE DOCUMENT

The methodological approach applied in the construction of this study is divided into five main sections. The second section presents the literature review about working from home (WFH) and Turnover Intention (TI), and the third section presents the hypothesis and a research model proposal. The fourth section describes our empirical study with 417 valid answers from people from various countries. The third section presents the analysis of the results, and the last section is the presentation of our conclusions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 WORKING FROM HOME

2.1.1 Theoretical Background of Working from Home

Working from Home (WFH) has been a trendy topic since the COVID-19 pandemic. Companies worldwide changed their working models to avoid spreading coronavirus by shifting on-site work to remote work. WFH is a work arrangement that performs jobs remotely from home, and its numbers have increased over the past few years. One of the first authors to refer to acting jobs was Nilles. The author coined “telecommuting,” the telecommuting network composed of computational and telecommunications enabling big companies’ employees to work in offices close to their homes instead of walking long distances to the regular workplace.

As mentioned above, WFH is not a new topic, and several organizations have already been practicing home offices before the outbreak of COVID-19. Niles (1975) pointed out in the article “Telecommunications and Organizational Decentralization” that besides being early to predict the development of the rate and extent of telecommunications-augmented decentralization, policymakers should investigate possible impacts of these technologies and create the requisite policies to maximize the positive benefits and to minimize any negative results. Kurland and Bailey (1999) distinguished four types of telework: home-based, satellite office, neighborhood work center, and mobile. More recently, telecommuting allows workers to work out the traditional offices or workplace setup (Shawn, 2010). Indeed, working from home (WFH) is known as “telecommuting” in the United States and as “teleworking” in Europe. Telecommuting is also known as telework, teleworking, working from home (more common in the United Kingdom), mobile work, and remote work (Carvalho, 2021). Those concepts reflect that telecommunications and jobs often support WFH. Information and Technology Communication use has a large share of the job content and is typically more feasible to be performed remotely (Dockery & Bawa, 2020). In an attempt to clarify semantic differences in the definition of terms, there are definitions of the following terms (Martin, 1992):

Home-based employment (HBE) is a model in which dependent or independent employees and teleworkers do their entire or partial work at home (Joice, 1991). An employee performs non-home-based telework (NHB) not at home but outside the principal business place. NHB examples are telework at telework centers, branch or satellite offices, or car phones (Joice, 1991). Telecommuting is a working model in which a worker performs from a remote site different from the primary workplace. It includes working from home, a satellite office, or a telework center (Nilles 1975).

Teleworking is performing tasks using electronic methods to produce or exchange work output. It involves performing processes remotely, using phones, video conferencing, and working from a telework center and computers. This definition includes independent and dependent work activities outside the principal place of business (Joice, 1991). A telework center is a location composed of several telework stations connected electronically to one or more places of employment (Joice, 1991). A telework station is a work zone in a remote place from the primary business site, including a telework center and home, where employees can perform their tasks. The definition refers exclusively to

“employee,” distinguishing between a home office and principal place of business for an independent contractor or entrepreneur.

The central concept explored in this study is “Working from Home.” Throughout the literature review, the study recognizes the discordance between the definition of the concepts cited and their historical evolution. Therefore, it is synonymous with “Teleworking” and “Telecommuting,” even though the focus on studying Working from Home pertains to most teleworkers working at home (Kazekami, 2020).

2.1.1 Working from Home in Europe

In 2010, 5.4% of employed in the EU-27 frequently worked from home. This share has persisted constantly since 2010. The number of employees performing their jobs at home did not change for one decade. Nonetheless, ten years after the scenario changes, working at least sometimes from their homes increased to 12% in 2020. Concerning job characteristics that compose the number of workers working from home (WFH), there are considerably more self-employees than dependent employees, but both categories increased similarly from 2010 until 2020. Around 21.9% of self-employed people usually worked at home in EU-27, while approximately 16.3% in 2010. By comparison, working from home among dependent employees was just around 10.5% in 2020, while 2.9% in 2010 (Statistics | Eurostat, 2021).

Before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, WFH preponderance varied according to the sector. It was exceptionally high in knowledge and Information and Communications Technology-intensive services. More than 40% of IT and other communication services workers were usually or sometimes working from home in 2018 in the EU-27. The share of regular teleworkers was above 30% in knowledge-intensive business services and education and publishing activities. It was also high – around 20% – in telecommunications, finance, and insurance.

On the other hand, the share of WFH was relatively low in the administrative and support services and manufacturing sectors. Before the abrupt change to telework due to the COVID-19 pandemic, teleworking was mainly a benefit for high-skilled workers. Those workers performed their jobs mainly on computers and workers employed in knowledge-intensive activities as teachers who spent part of their work time preparing classes on-site. ICT professionals, managers, and professionals working in legal, business, administration, and science also presented high rates of teleworking. Hence, high rates of teleworking before the pandemic in some fields of work might also reflect the extent to which employees performed informal overtime work at home. Beyond that, some of those workers were probably to work as self-employed, especially professionals who can more easily determine their work schedules and rhythm of work.

Differences in rates of telework among professionals from different areas show that depending on the work tasks; employees can work from home. In contrast, others require its performance by an employee at a specific place (Milasi et al., 2021). Although it is consensual that some job tasks are easily performed at home, the adoption of telework is quite different across countries. Comparing European countries, there is evidence to support the hypothesis that the driving forces of telework before the pandemic outbreak are related to contextual factors such as employment regulation,

working culture, and ICT infrastructure. Furthermore, technical problems and reluctance among managers are reported as the prominent individual- or company-level barriers to telework.

In 2015, the shares of teleworkers were high in the Nordic countries. Every third employee in Finland and Sweden occasionally worked away from the employer's premises using its support. On the other hand, Central Europe found moderate levels of telework, while Southern and Eastern Europe work almost exclusively on-premises. However, it is essential to highlight that numbers for countries per region vary notably with the data sources, reference populations, and operational definitions of telework (Gschwind & Vargas, 2019).

2.1.2 Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Working from Home

Before the pandemic, several studies were conducted to verify the advantages and disadvantages of working from home since there is evidence of growth in teleworking.

The adoption of telework, henceforth referred to in this thesis as "working from home" (WFH), by companies was a result of a force majeure event, given the exceptional circumstances that have surrounded the coronavirus crisis (Belzunegui-Eraso & Erro-Garcés, 2020). After one year and a half of the COVID-19 pandemic, the vaccination process started in developed countries worldwide. The decrease in virus contagion levels was the green light for economies to slowly reopen, fight to achieve pre-pandemic economic results, and go back to "normal" social interaction. According to George (2022) study based on a survey of individuals who transitioned from the workplace to working at home show that, on average, workers perceive that productivity and meaning changed in opposite directions with the shift to working from home (WFH) — productivity increased while the purpose and interest in life decreased.

There is evidence that WFH alleviates traffic congestion, impacting individuals' time and the environment. WFH reduces costs for employers and employees and the stress caused by commuting. WFH arrangement improves employee recruitment and reduces fuel consumption. Consequently, the air quality is improved (Martin, 1992). Concurrently, working from home is not free from disadvantages. For example, it increases employers' IT demands and security issues (International Labour Organization, 2016).

As this study aims to understand WFH's impact on employees, which might influence their willingness to continue in the company or leave, it is pertinent to understand their perspective and practical experience. Laurent Lapierre highlights the difference between working from home voluntarily and non-voluntary. The author defends that non-voluntary working from home is related to adverse outcomes, such as constrain resulting from the work-family conflict (Lapierre et al. 2016). Generally, employees interested in WFH are individuals who begin to WFH when they finish raising their children - employees around their forties (Hakim, 2000). Beyond referred, it is highlighted young entrepreneurs who just finished their studies but want to start their businesses. Also, most retired people who believe they would benefit from working at home rather than finding a new job are complex; some prefer to work from home due to their office environment.

In 1998, an empirical study analyzed the perceived advantages and disadvantages. In this context, the top 3 events that influence people's decisions to telework are when employees have children, when employees get married, and when female employees are pregnant (Teo et al., 1998). Hence, teleworking is particularly interesting for married people who have children (Yap & Tng, 1990). Demographically, the authors' profile was prominently employees not yet married. Hence, teleworking seems to be pertinent as more employees get married and have children in the future. Beyond that, working from home is a work arrangement that is hailed as increasing better work-life balance. A less informal atmosphere promoted by working from home among young workers is also a plus (Kłopotek, 2017). Additionally, empirical studies demonstrate outcomes of working from home, such as increased job performance (Vega et al., 2015), improved job satisfaction (Contreras et al., 2020; Kazekami, 2020), and fewer turnover intentions. Moreover, reduced rates of stress (Irawanto et al., 2021) may impact work-life balance. Additionally, it allows flexibility in the distribution of working time, reconciling employees' family responsibilities with work commitments. Consequently, workers might feel less stressed and achieve a better quality of life (Sonnentag, Volmer, e Spsychala 2008; Teo, Lim, e Wai 1998). Working from home allows individuals to save time commuting to work (Kłopotek, 2017) and save on variable costs, like gas on clothing or accessories (Church, 2015).

Employees demonstrate apprehension about career progress and missing peer interaction, which is crucial for their professional development and advancement, concerning the disadvantages of working from home. Moreover, employees also worry about the loss of personal workspace, implying a loss of control and power in the office. The surveyed may believe that their almost inexistent physical presence at the office will hinder their promotional opportunities (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Teo et al., 1998), especially for workers with less experience (Gainey & Clenney, 2006). Young employees confess they find it difficult to separate home affairs from professionals and lack participation in corporate culture (Kłopotek, 2017).

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF TURNOVER INTENTION AND ITS CAUSES

Employee turnover intention is a phenomenon that has always been a concern for companies (Jha, 2014) as an object of study by scholars (Flint et al., 2013). The exodus of promising employees and their knowledge and productivity might be dysfunctional for the company left behind (Becker & Cropanzano, 2011). On the other hand, the individual that leaves might lose his seniority in the next job. His high expectations may not concretize and, for a while, disrupt his social life (Aldhuwaihi & Shee, 2012).

According to the literature, turnover intention reflects an employee's deliberated and conscientious eagerness to leave the organization where he works to pursue another job. Scholars defend turnover intention as a good predictor of actual turnover (Lee, 2019; Putri & Hasanati, 2022), once intentions usually are an accurate indicator of one's ensuing behavior (Flint et al., 2013; Ngo-Henha, 2018). In this context, it's essential to clarify the difference between turnover intention and actual turnover. Turnover refers to a situation where a person ceases to be an employee of a company. Some authors classify turnover as being involuntary or voluntary. While the first refers to a case in which an employee is dismissed, the second refers to an employee who optionally leaves the organization (Wiley, 1997).

In alternative to turnover, the turnover intention is full of ambiguity. While we can measure and count the number of employees that leave an institution, it is not easy to measure the willingness of one's to follow a subsequent behavior of his intent due to its subjectivity. Besides their differences, studies demonstrate a positive link between turnover intention and turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 2000). As mentioned, turnover intention impacts not only the organization's dynamic that the individual leaves behind but also his life. Ergo, before an employee decides to leave – the actual turnover - a reflection period precedes – turnover intention (Namin et al., 2021). It is a complex phenomenon to measure and reflects an employee's dissatisfaction with the job. On the other side, job satisfaction is a positive feeling experienced when a person perceives that his job fulfills the material, social and psychological requisites (Azeez et al., 2016).

There are many reasons for an employee to start thinking about leaving the company he works for, for example, job stress, poor performance appraisal, lack of autonomy, and work practices that the worker does not identify with (Ngo-Henha, 2018). In this context, some studies demonstrate that organizational culture impacts job satisfaction (Aldhuwaihi & Shee, 2012). Although it is challenging to clarify, people who are part of a specific organization can sense its organizational culture after a particular time. It means its values, goals, ways of interaction, norms, policies, and explicit or tacit rules. When an employee relates to the organizational culture values when he feels he impacts the company he works for, he is incentivized to take part in the decision-making process, happier at work, and less motivated to search for another job (Abid Alvi et al., 2014). Other studies point out that turnover intention is also related to work-life balance. Work-life balance is a broad concept that refers to a condition that allows a person to define priorities to manage a balance between work and family responsibilities, feeling satisfied in both roles (Mulang, 2022). The more conflict between work and personal life, the more employees feel the difficulties of balancing personal life and work life—consequently, the willingness to quit rises (Suifan et al., 2016).

The factors presented that may indirectly impact turnover are complex and interrelated (Mulang, 2022). All of them share one variable as a bridge between them and turnover intention: job satisfaction (Yi et al., 2011). In this line of thought, maintaining employees' satisfaction is crucial to diminishing turnover intention. Scholars underline that a satisfied employee is willing to make more effort to perform his work more efficiently. Consequently, he increases his productivity, benefitting the organization he works for by raising his job performance (Shafique et al., 2018). The opposite happens with the dissatisfied employee manifests a behavioral intention to quit, for example, absenteeism, starting work late and lazily, breaking work dynamics, and protesting (Santoni & Harahap, 2018).

Some authors also suggest that job performance may indirectly impact job performance once bad supervisor feedback may be perceived as a signal that the organization might not reward them. Beyond that, those negative feedback may make the criticized uncomfortable and think that he or she should not leave the organization instead of facing unpleasant circumstances (Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009).

3. RESEARCH MODEL PROPOSAL AND HYPOTHESIS

Based on earlier studies, this section proposes a conceptual model to study the impact of several variables on turnover intention. The model comprises five constructs: working from home, job performance, work-life balance, organizational culture, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. The research hypotheses aligned with a brief literature review presented in this section support constructing the conceptual model.

3.1 WORKING FROM HOME AND JOB PERFORMANCE

This section discusses the relationship between working from home (WFH) and employee performance. An important question for firms and regulators is how this trend toward more teleworking affects workers' productivity (Künn et al., 2020). Regardless of the sector, employees are one of the critical resources of a company. Several telework researchers and theorists have highlighted that working away from the central office changes the motivational qualities of work and employee attitudes and organizational perceptions (Morganson et al., 2010). However, job performance is still tricky to measure due to its multi-dimensional characteristics and ambiguity (Sonnentag et al., 2008).

According to Ann Welsh, performance should maintain its importance in organizational research. The authors argue that individual employee performance is essential for a better general society since it contributes to productivity growth. For that, corporate researchers should contribute to practicing managers' increased understanding of the causes and consequences of employee performance (Griffin et al., 1981). Over the years, employee performance has been studied in different contexts and through the lens of distinct disciplines to understand behaviors, concepts, and resources that foment performance. Notwithstanding, employee performance is difficult to define or measure due to different or multiple aspects of job-role behavior assessments (Atatsi et al., 2019). A possible definition is a set of scalable actions, behaviors, and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002).

Beyond supra cited, researchers agree that performance must be considered a multi-dimensional concept (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Firstly, performance is not the same concept as effectiveness, productivity, or efficiency (Pritchard, 1990). While energy refers to the evaluations of performance results, productivity is the ratio of effectiveness to the cost of attaining the outcome. For example, the proportion of work hours (input) in relation to effect describes productivity (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Research shows that telework generally increases job performance and productivity (Di Martino & Wirth, 1990; Hill et al., 2003). In Europe, the number of employees working long hours, being "long hours" defined as working 48 hours or more per week – was more expressive among teleworkers than other employees (Eurofound, 2015). Another study by Stanford University found that shifting from working from the office to working from home increased productivity by 13% in 9 months (Bloom et al., 2015). The employees in this study confessed that their performance was due to more calls per minute in a quieter and more convenient working environment and working more minutes because of fewer coffee breaks and sick days. There is also evidence that clerical employees who perform tedious tasks are better and faster in the regular office context. Once-home distractions are more likely to demotivate productive work if the employee does not enjoy his duties, contrasting the productivity for tasks that recruits creativity (Glenn Dutcher, 2012). Previous publications developed the theory of

individual differences in task and contextual performance (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Task performance covers accomplishing the requirements of the contract between the employer and employee. In comparison, the contextual performance includes activities that are not explicitly part of the job description but indirectly contribute to the company's performance by improving the task performance environment (Sonnentag et al., 2008). In 1990, Campbell proposed a model of eight task performance factors. Among these eight factors, five refer to task performance (Campbell et al., 1990): Job-specific task proficiency; Non-job-specific task proficiency; Written and oral communication proficiency; Supervision, in case of leadership position; And partly, management/administration.

Contextual performance consists of behavior that does not directly impact organizational performance, supporting the corporate, social, and psychological environment (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Previous studies categorize five types of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993): Volunteering for activities beyond a person's formal job requirements; Persistence of enthusiasm and application when needed to complete essential task requirements; assistance to others; Following rules and prescribed procedures even when it is inconvenient; Openly defending organization objectives. Contextual performance recruits one's proactivity because it represents individual behaviors that are essential for accomplishing work-related tasks (Crant, 1995). Thus, Crant (2000) defines proactive as "taking the initiative in improving current circumstances; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting present conditions."

Another type of performance not included in the literature by Campbell is "adaptative performance." This concept is developed later due to organizations' increasingly dynamic and changing environments. Thus, recruiting workers with adaptative characteristics (Edwards & Morrison, 1994; Pulakos et al., 2000; Sonnentag et al., 2008). An article published in 2000 proposed eight dimensions of adaptative performance, which the author argues appear over different jobs (Pulakos et al. 2000): Handling emergencies or crises; Handling work stress; Solving Problems creatively; Dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations; Learning work tasks, technologies and procedures; Demonstrating interpersonal adaptability; Demonstrating cultural adaptability; Demonstrating physically oriented adaptability.

More recently, in the context of working from home, authors defend that since workers generally work in teams, performance depends not only on individual employees' WFH but also on the WFH of their colleagues (van der Lippe & Lippényi, 2020). Therefore, it is crucial to analyze how employees influence each other and exploit colleagues' skills and knowledge because it has consequences for the team and individual-level performance. Group cohesiveness is positively related to performance; therefore, there is worst performance when nobody is around because workers experience less cohesiveness (S. G. Cohen & Bailey, 1997)

Another aspect to consider is parenthood. Larson (2020) suggests that in "*the case of a sudden transition to virtual work, there is a much greater chance that employees will be contending with suboptimal workspaces and unexpected parenting responsibilities.*" Regarding the impact of gender, the opinions also diverge gender moderates the bond between WFH and employee productivity (Farooq & Sultana, 2021). The consequences of WFH have more impact on women's performance because, according to the authors' evidence, women are more affected by WFH, carrying their

domestic duties beyond regular working hours. Generally, job task performance at home benefits from fewer work disruptions (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). WFH allows control over breaks, clothing, preferable decoration, music lighting, ventilation, and other elements (Daniels et al., 2000; Elsbach, 2003; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Thus, working from home allows individuals to modify the work environment to match how and when they do their work most effectively (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Therefore, it is pertinent to study that some employees work voluntarily from home while others do not, impacting performance. Additionally, even if employees benefit from new management and more flexibility, the employees at home are less supervised and may enjoy flexibility in working hours and work patterns (Shamir & Salomon, 1985), being difficult to know who is working. This lack of supervision may also impact its productivity. On the other hand, not being subjected to an immediate overseer and less formal supervisors decrease employee stress at work (Irawanto et al., 2021).

In line with the literature, working from home positively impacts performance. Thus, performance is hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): *Working from Home positively affects Job Performance.*

3.1.1 Working from Home and Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance is the concept used to define practices in balancing the demands of employees' family (life) and work lives (Jyothi Sree & Jyothi, 2012). Recent studies define work-life balance (WLB) as a state of well-being everybody should achieve when balancing family, friends, and work responsibilities (Khoury, 2021). Some authors argued that working from home will facilitate work and family life more if a supportive work context is available (van der Lippe & Lippényi, 2020). Several experiments have tried operationalizing the concept, including objective and subjective approaches (Crosbie & Moore, 2004). An objective process is the number of working hours defined as appropriate to keep a WLB, and Portuguese labor law establishes 8 hours of daily work and 40 hours of weekly work. Conversely, a subjective approach is linked to the perceived ability to get well-being when complementing professional activities with their life activities outside the job (Irawanto et al., 2021).

(F. Williams, 2001) argues that people's work-life needs are mapped in three distinct but straightly linked spheres of their lives, and when balanced, there is WLB. Firstly, there is a "*personal time and space: what do we need to care for self and maintenance of body, mind, and soul,*" for example, exercise and self-reflection. Secondly, "*care time and space: what do we need to care appropriately for others.*" The author highlights providing child and adult care, cleaning, laundry, and food services in this context. Lastly, there is "*work time and space*" about what we need to gain economic self-sufficiency, including paid maternity, job-sharing, and flexible hours. For Mann (2000), teleworking has a significant emotional impact on employees, and their studies report negative emotions related to WFH, such as loneliness, irritation, worry, and guilt. In addition, the authors argue that employees experience more mental ill-health than office workers, and thus the quality of working life may not necessarily improve. Some authors alert that more indicators show that working from home leads to work-family conflict than the opposite (Allen et al., 2015).

Nonetheless, other authors defend that employees who work at the same place as their families benefit from job coordination and private life (Bellmann & Hübler, 2020). Apart from the downside of WFH, the current hailings to WLB are positive for companies that take this theme seriously. Working from home provides a potential for more flexibility and option for a wide range of workers (Crosbie & Moore, 2004), even though not being the panacea for solving all WLB troubles. Hence it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): *Working from Home is positively related to Work-Life Balance.*

3.1.2 Work-Life Balance and Performance

Flexible work, working time, and balance between work and family life are central problems of policy and academic debate (Cohen & Liani, 2009). WLB promotes a sustainable and healthy work environment to allow employees to balance work and personal duties, strengthening their loyalty and productivity. Nowadays, employees are apprehensive about their work-life balance even before accepting a job offer, apart from salary and other benefits (Nadesan, 2018). Work-life balance can positively and negatively affect employee performance (Irawanto et al., 2021). The lack of work and personal life balance can negatively affect productivity and decrease employee performance (Cohen & Liani, 2009; Konrad & Mangel, 2000). Workers who improved WLB-supported policies practiced by employing company evidence were more productive (Naithani, 2009). Neglecting employee WLB issues will have lower productivity creating new challenges for medium and long-term organizational survival. Promoting flexible working hours and working from home are initiatives that help work-life balance improvement by decreasing work-life conflict and fomenting job performance through workers' loyalty, commitment, and productivity (Nadesan, 2018). Following the literature, the hypothesis is that work-life balance positively affects employee performance. Hence it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): *Work-Life Balance is positively related to Employee Performance.*

3.1.3 Working from Home and Organizational Culture

The term "organizational cultures" was introduced in the United States academic literature with the article written by Pettigrew in 1979 "On Studying Organizational Cultures" (Hofstede et al., 1990; Pettigrew, 1979). Nowadays, organizational or corporate culture has been acknowledged as a strategic concept, even though it is no consensus about its definition (Aldhuwaihi & Shee, 2012). A possible explanation suggested is an organizational construct: "it is holistic, historically determined, related to anthropological concepts, socially constructed, soft and difficult to change" (Hofstede et al., 1990, p. 33). More recently, Sok (2014) argues that organizational culture is a way of culture in an organizational context that is composed of its intrinsic values and accordant interpretations about how things are and work. In contrast, "work-home culture" or "family-friendly culture" is a side of culture in the context of behaviors and actions, so these can be more easily adjusted regarding newly updated

information. In turn, core values or beliefs about how things are done in a particular organization are disclosed through individual practices (Howard-Grenville, 2020; Swidler, 1986). However, WFH results in difficulty observing those practices due to the remote performance of tasks. Thus, it is challenging for leaders to analyze which aspects of culture and their importance are displayed (Howard-Grenville, 2020). Some initiatives of an organization fail because they are not adequately rooted in its organizational culture (OC) (Kusy et al., 2015). Regardless of the work arrangement, building a consistent OC is crucial. There are discussions of telecommuting's potential for relational impoverishment at work (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). The reduction in face-to-face interactions and the low regularity and content of communication between teleworkers and other company members have impoverished the interpersonal connections with their colleagues or supervisors (Daft & Lengel, 1986). These are apparent disadvantages of working remotely for employees (Bellmann & Hübler, 2020).

On the other hand, working from home is also part of organizational culture itself, and it's a new cultural way for certain companies to get their job done. During the first semester of 2021, a massive resigning movement happened, and the rates of monthly resignations peaked in spring-summer 2021 (Serenko, 2022). Scholars named this phenomenon Great Resignation, and the reasons to leave companies seem very distinct from pre-COVID-19. Working during COVID changed people's affective, cognitive and behavioral processes (Malmendier, 2021). In the last two years, people had the opportunity to evaluate their relationship to work and their purposes and realize that work experience is beyond salary. In this line of thought, it is also essential to reflect if a worker identifies as a member of his current professional group. Some people admitted they would consider leaving if their organization did not allow them to work from home after the pandemic (Serenko, 2022).

Hypothesis 4 (H4): *Working from home positively relates to Organizational Culture.*

3.1.4 Organizational Culture and Job Performance

It is broadly accepted that organizational culture is an important determinant factor for performance (Aldhuwaihi & Shee, 2012; Aycan et al., 1999). Previous studies support the positive association between organizational culture and job performance (Aldhuwaihi & Shee, 2012). For Robbins (2009) and Judge, corporate culture is a construction of meaning that elements share and differentiate from other institutions. Organizations are born for different purposes, and their stakeholders teach organizations elements of how to work and behave within those specific organizations. The internalization of an organization's values, beliefs, and employees' manners is significant since each individual composes that organization has its values and ways of working. Thus, organizational culture significantly impacts employees' performance, improving or decreasing employees' productivity and, therefore, the company's performance. A particular institution's improvement is potentiated when its elements are involved in the same vision through a cohesive path. A well-built OC is conducive to new workers adapting and having a competitive advantage under a specific context (Aycan et al., 1999; Shahzad et al., 2012). Hence it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5 (H5): *Organizational Culture is negatively related to Job Performance.*

3.1.5 Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction (JS) is a complex term that can vary according to each person. Job satisfaction is an attitude toward a job (Pushpakumari, 2008), broadly investigated by organizational behavior research. There are several definitions of this concept. For example, JS can be defined as an individual's overall assessment of his job as favorable or unfavorable (Meier e Spector 2015). Locke's most acknowledged definition is *"a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences"* (Locke, 1976, p. 1000). Other authors studied methods to measure job satisfaction in degrees, corresponding to which employees have a positive and affective orientation about their job in an organization (Syed e Akhtar 2014). The following section discusses the reciprocal impact of JS on employee JP, the impact of WLB on JS, and the impact of OC on JS.

3.1.5.1 Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Literature suggests a reciprocal relationship between JP and JS since performing a job well may lead to job satisfaction, *"especially if good performance is rewarded."* In this line of thought, good performance may lead to rewards, which leads to joy (Lawler III & Porter, 1967). *"Satisfaction causes performance; performance causes satisfaction, and rewards cause both performance and satisfaction"* (Pushpakumari, 2008). Ergo, satisfaction and productivity have an important relationship in which each affects the other (Carroll et al., 1964). The literature points out two different reward types: intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are psychological rewards provided directly by a person, and extrinsic reward is provided by a third person, such as a supervisor or workgroup (Ivancevich et al., 2011). *"Payment, promotions, interpersonal relationships, status and fringe benefits are some examples of extrinsic rewards."* Responsibility, achievement, autonomy, personal growth, challenge, complete work, and feedback characteristics of the job are some intrinsic rewards. Other authors detail non-financial incentives to increase JS and impact employee performance. Those incentives include (Judge & Klinger, 2000): Providing exciting and essential work assignments; Fomenting commitment to the realization of a vision; Assigning challenging objectives in conjunction with ongoing performance feedback; Granting autonomy regarding how a job is done; Providing public and private recognition for outstanding contributions; and Enabling the employee to do work that he loves. Hence it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 6 (H6): *Employee Performance is positively related to Job Satisfaction.*

3.1.5.2 Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance

According to (Bellmann & Hübler, 2020), companies should extend the possibility of working remotely, restricting work outside the contracted working hours to a minimum. Employees and employers should discuss the drawbacks and perks of working from home since the relationship between work and family life is linked, affecting each other (Khoury, 2021). Work and personal life should be complementary rather than antagonistic to balance. Numerous studies have pointed out the positive impacts of work-life balance on job satisfaction (Nadesan, 2018). In this context, employees who can manage the balance between their job and personal activities and duties ought to put more effort into their organizations, influencing their job performance (Isse et al., 2018). Thus, a company that provides a balanced environment between their employee's personal life and job promotes satisfaction for their work in that organization (Noah & Steve, 2012). Hence it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 7 (H7): *Work-Life Balance positively relates to Job Satisfaction.*

3.1.5.3 Job Satisfaction and Organizational Culture

As mentioned and supported previously by literature, there's evidence that WFH could negatively impact OC. Fully remote workers are more likely to quit their jobs since the connection to their colleagues is different compared to employees who, as routine, work in the office place. Working in an office environment shifts moments of employees having lunch together and having a coffee break to talk with each other. These interactions foment social ties, leading people to get more connected with each other. Not only in the context of social connections but also in the professional attitude, since when the main methods of communication are through messages or video, fewer spontaneous moments can lead to discussing ideas that lead to innovation. Moreover, less connection between people leads to easily giving more negative feedback, leading to employees' disengagement instead of becoming "positive brand ambassadors" of the institution they work for (Faulds & Raju, 2021). In this line of thought, a company with poor cultural organizations may lower job satisfaction, impacting its performance (Mahmood & Ahamed, 2015; McHugh, 1993). On the other hand, when an organization and its elements share the same vision, values, and objectives, the employees tend to lean toward working as a big team. Consequently, the employees become proud to be part of the company and the job they execute, resulting in a positive link to the company (Kartika & Purba, 2018). Hence it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8 (H8): *Organizational Culture is positively related to Job Satisfaction*

3.1.6 Turnover Intention

3.1.6.1 Turnover Intention and Job Satisfaction

Turnover is related to the cease of functions by a worker in a company. In contrast, turnover intention is not a straightforward concept (Ngo-Henha, 2018). Turnover Intention (TI) refers to an employee's willingness, thought, or desire to voluntarily leave the company he works for (Thoresen et al., 2003). Based on the literature review, "Determinants of Employee Turnover Intention," several researchers provide different outputs on the main variables that determine turnover intention. The most frequent variable is job satisfaction (Wójcik 2020). It's undeniable to focus on job satisfaction as a determinant variable to understand turnover intention (Ding & Lin, 2006). Thus it may be a suitable predictor of TI (Yücel, 2012). Hence it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 9 (H9): *Job Satisfaction is negatively related to Turnover Intention.*

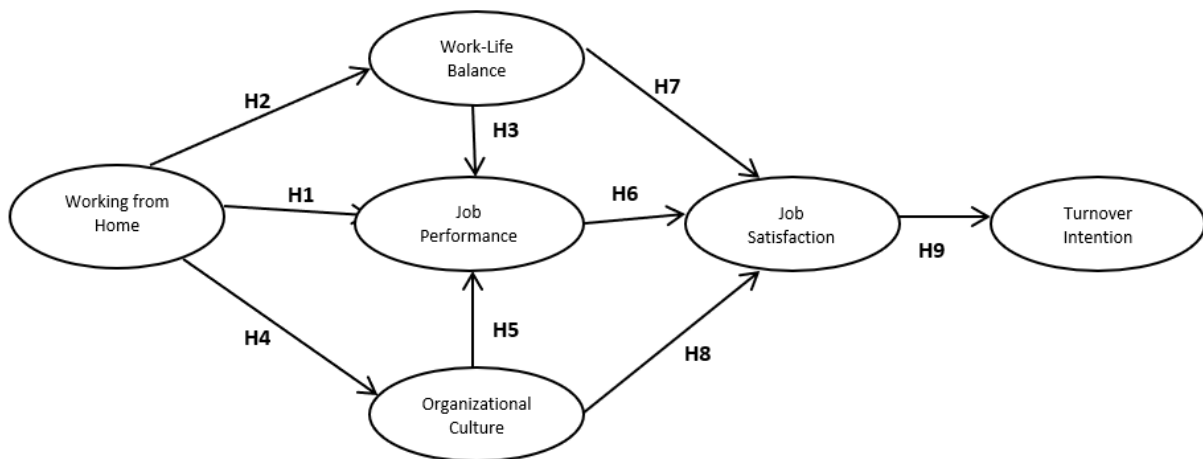


Figure 1 – Turnover intention research model proposal

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

4.1 METHOD

A questionnaire was built to analyze the data, and a quantitative empirical methodology was applied. The questionnaire was designed using previously validated questionnaire scales to operationalize the constructs. The constructs presented in this section are (i) Working from Home (Mehta, 2021), (ii) Job Performance (Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021), (iii) Work-Life Balance (Mas-Machuca et al., 2016), (iv) Organizational Culture (Post et al., 1997), (v) Job Satisfaction (Mousa et al., 2020) and (vi) Turnover Intention (Yücel, 2012). These constructs are modeled as latent variables (LVs) measured through a set of indicators (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

To describe the relationship between the latent values designed in the theoretical model was used Structural Equation Model (SEM), an adequate framework of advanced statistical techniques to answer research questions. One of the reasons that SEM was chosen to apply in this study is because SEM allows the analysis of simultaneous relationships among dependent and independent constructs and copes with latent variables that can't be directly measured, which is the case in this study. Thus those latent variables are composed of several indicators (Aparicio et al., 2019, 2021; Hair et al., 2011). In this study, those indicators are the questionnaire questions grouped by the correspondent construct. In this study, the mentioned indicators are presented as reflexive indicators once the direction of causality is from the construct to the indicators. The theoretical model's causal relationships were tested and assessed with the component-based approach of Partial Least Square – Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM). As the name mentions, PLS-SEM has two iterative procedures using the least squares estimation for single and multi-component models with the goal of minimizing the variance of all the dependent variables (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). In this context, the cause-effect directions among the variable have to be specified, and the quality of the model is better as more indicators are used to explain the latent variables because the larger the number of indicators, the better the explanation of the latent variables (Hair et al., 2011). In the scope of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), there are two different methods: covariance-based techniques (CBSEM) and variance-based techniques (VBSEM), such as PLS-SEM. However, less known than Covariance Based-SEM, the use of PLS-SEM in developing exploratory research has been gaining recognition among authors in the business and marketing fields (Hair et al., 2011). After careful literature research, the phenomenon in cause presents a set of characteristics preferable to applying PLS techniques instead of CBSEM. The problem is relatively new, once the number of people working from home has been in the last decade, as presented in section 1 of this study. The measurement models need to be developed again. PLSEM is earmarked for causal predictive analysis, while CB-SEM focuses on theory to transit an exploratory analysis to a confirmatory.

Besides, the SEM is complex, with five latent variables and almost thirty indicators. In addition, it modeled the reflexive relationship between the indicators and the latent variables. Furthermore, the sample size is small, 419 validated, and does not follow a normal distribution. (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

4.1.1 Data Collection

The questionnaire was shared through the Qualtrics platform and was open in July 2022. The link was shared randomly through Facebook, LinkedIn, Whatsapp, and e-mail. The questionnaire starts with a brief description of the research object following the sample characterization. The respondents have also been reminded that answering the survey was voluntary and anonymous. In the second section, the measures recurring to the numeric scale are evaluated, from one to seven points, with one as the option “I totally disagree” and seven as “I totally agree.” In this context, it’s essential to highlight the questionnaire would not be considered complete unless the respondents answered all the questions. In this context, from the 419 answers, 417 were complete and considered valid. The structure of the questionnaire is presented in the following table:

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics of participants’ characteristics

Measure		Value	Frequency
Questionnaire Respondents		417	100.0%
Gender	Female	205	49.2%
	Male	211	50.6%
	I would rather not say	1	0.2%
Professional Situation	Self-employed	29	7.0%
	Works for someone else	388	93.0%
Working Model	Work full-time at the company's office	87	20.9%
	Hybrid working arrangement	27	61.6%
	Work full time at home	73	17.5%

This section presents the two-step PLS-SEM results: the measurement model results to check the constructs' validity, consistency and reliability, followed by the structural model results to verify whether the hypotheses are significant. The software used to study the PLS-SEM data was Smart PLS 3.0.

4.2 MEASUREMENT MODEL RESULTS

Several tests were done to assess the measurement model by analyzing the convergent validity; the discriminant validity constructs reliability and indicators reliability. To test the convergent validity, it was examined the indicators loadings, and the average variance extracted (AVE) were examined. The individual loadings on each construct must be all above 0.7 to be considered significant (Hair et al., 2011). However, two loadings, WFH3 and JS3S, had values under the threshold, so they were deleted to guarantee the indicators’ reliability. Consequently, the results improved. The Cronbach's Alpha of the constructs were all above 0.7, and their composite reliability was greater than 0.8. Therefore, the measurements used for each variable in this study are reliable (Hair et al., 2011). To verify the convergent validity of the constructs, it was determined the average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE measures the amount of variance captured by a latent variable in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (dos Santos & Cirillo, 2021). Each of the results meets the criterion of being

above 0.5, the recommended cut-off value (Hair et al., 2011). Therefore, the measurements used for each variable in this study are convergently valid.

Table 2 - Quality criteria and factor loadings

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Job Performance	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Culture	Turnover Intention	Working From Home	Work-Life Balance
Job Performance	0.875	0.915	0.73	0.855					
Job Satisfaction	0.888	0.918	0.693	0.117	0.833				
Organizational Culture	0.938	0.951	0.765	0.091	0.738	0.875			
Turnover Intention	0.877	0.924	0.803	0.041	-0.696	-0.492	0.896		
Working From Home	0.852	0.894	0.629	0.659	0.236	0.268	-0.046	0.793	
Work-Life Balance	0.883	0.914	0.681	0.308	0.575	0.604	-0.318	0.411	0.825

Firstly, all indicators' loadings were compared with the cross-loadings to assess the discriminant validity and verify if all loadings were greater than the respective cross-loadings (Hair et al., 2011). As shown in table 5 in appendix B, the condition is met. Secondly, it was verified the criteria that all the square roots of AVE, the values on the diagonal, share higher values than the correlation among the other latent variables, which are the values off the diagonal (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, all indicators' heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) is above 0.9 (Table 3) (Henseler et al., 2015).

Table 3 – HTMT test results

	Job Performance	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Culture	Turnover Intention	Work From Home	Work-Life Balance
Job Performance						
Job Satisfaction	0.131					
Organizational Culture	0.102	0.806				
Turnover Intention	0.049	0.785	0.541			
Work From Home	0.758	0.264	0.3	0.056		
Work-Life Balance	0.35	0.636	0.654	0.349	0.467	

The inner variance inflation factor (VIF) was also calculated, and all the values were under 5, which means they passed the test (Hair et al., 2011). Thus the model does not have a multicollinearity problem.

4.3 ASSESSMENT OF STRUCTURAL MODEL

The structural model was assessed using SmartPLS 3.0 through PLS-SEM techniques and bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is a type of statistical resampling that uses the original data set to simulate more samples to determine the significance of paths among the model's constructs. For that, it means that our data contains 417 observations. To test the hypothesis, we computed a bootstrap with 5000 subsamples, recommended number (Hair et al., 2011; Méndez-Suárez, 2021). It was observed that the effect of working from home on an employee's job performance, work-life balance, and organizational culture is statistically significant. Looking to adjusted R^2 values, the model explains 45.4% of the variation in job performance ($\hat{\beta} = 0.645$ and $p < 0.001$), 16.9% of the variation in work-life balance ($\hat{\beta} = 0.411$ and $p < 0.001$) and 7.2% in organizational culture ($\hat{\beta} = 0.268$ and $p < 0.001$). Therefore, H1 and H2 H4 are supported. Additionally, the individual impact of work-life balance ($\hat{\beta} = 0.146$ and $p < 0.001$) and organizational culture ($\hat{\beta} = -0.619$ and $p < 0.001$) is statistically significant in explaining job performance. Notwithstanding, only H3 and H5 are supported because, according to the results, the impact of organizational culture on job performance is negative, so H5 is not supported. Beyond that, the model explains 57.1% of the variation in job satisfaction. The individual impact of work-life balance ($\hat{\beta} = 0.205$ and $p < 0.001$) and organizational culture ($\hat{\beta} = 0.615$ and $p < 0.001$) are statistically significant. However, job performance is not statistically significant in explaining job satisfaction. Hence, H7 and H8 are supported but not H6. Lastly, the model explains 48.4% of the variation in turnover intention. Therefore, the turnover intention is a reflective second-order construct of job satisfaction ($\hat{\beta} = -0.696$ and $p < 0.001$), supporting hypothesis 9.

Figure 2 - Research model results

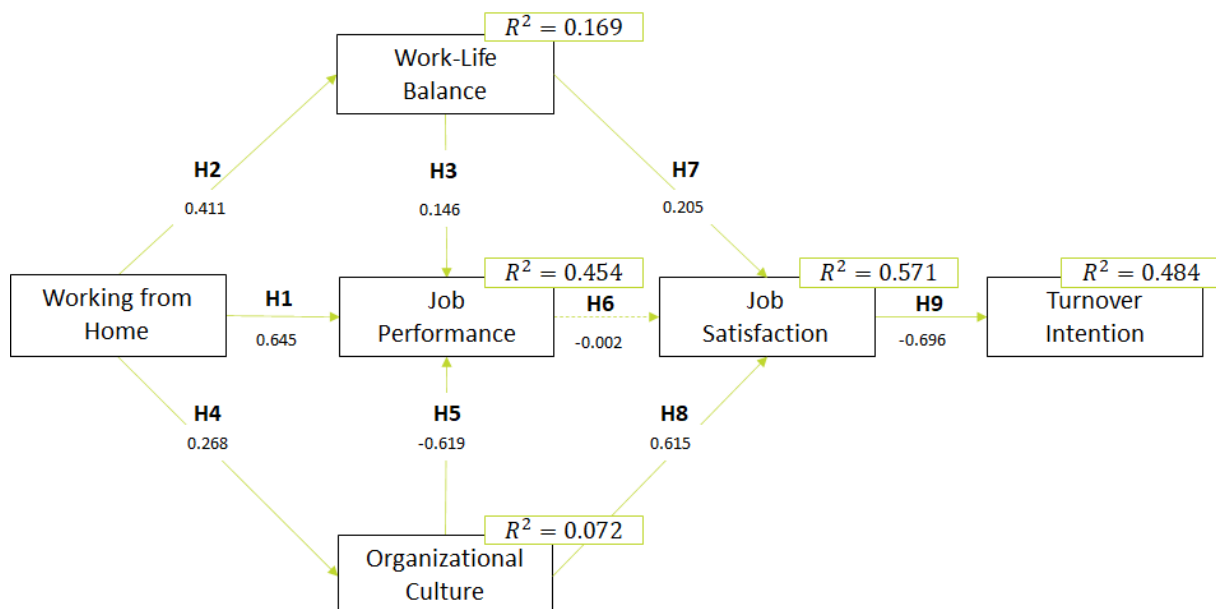


Table 4 - Research hypotheses results

Hypotheses	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	$\hat{\beta}$	p-values	Findings	Conclusion
H1	Work From Home	Job Performance	0.645	0	significant	supported
H2	Work From Home	Work-Life Balance	0.411	0	significant	supported
H3	Work-Life Balance	Job Performance	0.146	0	significant	supported
H4	Work From Home	Organizational Culture	0.268	0	significant	supported
H5	Organizational Culture	Job Performance	-0.169	0	significant	not supported
H6	Job Performance	Job Satisfaction	-0.002	0.95	non-significant	not supported
H7	Work-Life Balance	Job Satisfaction	0.205	0	significant	supported
H8	Organizational Culture	Job Satisfaction	0.615	0.001	significant	supported
H9	Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intention	-0.696	0	significant	supported

5. DISCUSSION

This study aims to measure the impact of working from home (WFH) on job satisfaction (JS) and, consequently, turnover intention (TI). The findings that JS significantly impacts TI are consistent with previous studies (Ding & Lin, 2006; Mehta, 2021).

While some early studies focus on the relationship between those two constructs during the COVID-19 lockdown, this study focuses on a phase after the pandemic when people returned to their normal daily lives. During the COVID-19 pandemic, thousands of companies had to change their working models to respond to the pandemic crisis, and as a result, their employees shifted to working at home. (Belzunegui-Eraso & Erro-Garcés, 2020). Recent studies underline workers' challenges of WFH during the COVID-19 lockdown, such as dealing with family or finding difficulties in establishing boundaries between personal and professional life (Al-Habaibeh et al., 2021; T. Allen & Armstrong, 2006; Birimoglu Okuyan & Begen, 2022; Prasetyaningtyas et al., 2021). On the other hand, this study's findings indicate that people now are experiencing work-life balance (WLB) while working at home, as defended by other scholars (Crosbie & Moore, 2004; van der Lippe & Lippényi, 2020). WFH is here to stay, and the findings support early literature review that WFH significantly impacts workers' WLB and job performance (JP) (Bloom et al., 2015, 2021; Mas & Pallais, 2020). In contrast with recent studies in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic that report employees' difficulties in focusing on work and fear of using companies' ICT (Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021), our findings evidence that people perceive their productivity raises when working at home. These findings are interesting for evidencing an improvement in people's attitudes concerning previous difficulties.

Another critical component of working from home is its impact on organizational culture. Organizational culture (OC) can be described as the beliefs, values, and ways to react within a particular organizational context (Post et al., 1997; Williams et al., 1993). It is a very profound and ambiguous concept. Some recent studies list crucial factors to success for organizations working from homes, such as trust, flexibility, strong interpersonal relationships, contract to fit, and continuous culture improvement (English, 2022). According to our findings, people perceive that WFH agrees with their needs and is willing to work and engage with a company that follows this work arrangement as part of its culture (Serenko, 2022). These results are in accordance with the early literature about the change of work arrangement paradigm.

Surprisingly, the results show that OC has a statistically significant negative impact on JP, which is not following the hypotheses. The hypotheses presented agree with the literature that defines OC as having a significant effect on job performance (Alvesson, 1990; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Putriana et al., 2015). According to our literature review, a company with poor cultural organizations may negatively impact its performance (Mahmood & Ahamed, 2015; McHugh, 1993). We did not find literature that supports the contrary. Therefore, the negative results might justify two possibilities (i) that the respondents' perceived OC environment in other spheres beyond WFH does not foment their job performance, (ii) they did not realize that besides their interest in WFH, it had a negative impact on their JP indirectly because they feel less connected, (iii) or and this option seems to be the most accurate, when people meet at the office, punctually, due to the hybrid model they invest their time on the office to socially interact with their colleagues impacting their job performance. Authors defend that employees have better performance when workers feel they have emotional connection and

pride, have career objectives, and are engaged with the organization's practices (Putriana et al., 2015). Notwithstanding people's manifest approval and desire to work from home, our findings show that their current OC environment does not foment their perceived JP. This study assesses the impact of WLB, JP, and OC on job satisfaction (JS). As foreseeable, the results support that WLB has a significant and positive impact on one's satisfaction with his job, as defended in the literature review (Bellmann & Hübler, 2020; Isse et al., 2018; Khoury, 2021; Noah & Steve, 2012).

Curiously, our findings are not congruent with the hypotheses concerning the impact of JP on JS. (Lawler III & Porter, 1967) argues that job performance impacts job satisfaction since employees are rewarded directly and indirectly for their performance. These results can be in consonance with our findings that a company with good OC may positively impact JS (Mahmood & Ahamed, 2015; McHugh, 1993). Fomenting a solid OC in line with their employees improves their satisfaction concerning work. However, suppose the employees feel that their actual company does not recognize their job performance adequately. What might keep them satisfied with their job might be other aspects beyond performance, for example, the work environment and the connection with some colleagues (Kartika & Purba, 2018).

6. CONCLUSIONS

Our research has several practical implications. Our study identifies and analyzes essential factors that companies must consider to define appropriate strategies and actions for flexible working-from-home (WFH) arrangements to reinforce their human capital retention and attract new relevant talent. Retention of talent has been one of the most prominent organizations' challenges since their competitive advantage in the market depends on the knowledge detained by human capital. Nowadays, that challenge has been more difficult to overcome. Companies are being confronted with a phenomenon that started at the beginning of 2021 that economists called "The Great Resignation." The COVID-19 pandemic lockdown opened an unprecedented door for people to rethink not only their role and purpose in their jobs but also in their life and social relationships.

In this context, the practical implications of this study are very relevant for helping the organization drive its strategy under the above-mentioned paradigm change. Despite the past literature, the lack of physical presence could be a flag to signify the detachment of an employee. The fact is that nowadays, an employee demands WFH as part of their organizational culture (OC) to stay in the company. According to our results, people see in WFH an improvement in their job performance (JP) and their work-life balance (WLB). Along with working remotely, people find in this new work arrangement more flexibility, less time for commuting, and more free time for themselves and their family and friends. During the COVID-19 lockdown, people were more anxious, stressed, and less focused on their work due to the complicated and unpredictable context. Now, they found they can find their balance, recognize the benefits of working remotely, and want to continue doing so. The results show that working from home explains 16.9% of the variation in WLB, 7.2% in OC, and 45.4% in the variation in JP. Our findings support that WFH plays a crucial role in employees' JP, and beyond significant, its impact is positive. In this context, companies whose tasks could be executed at home by their employees through a computer should keep or switch, at least partially, to the WFH working model arrangement. WLB, JP, and OC explain 57.1% of the variation in job satisfaction (JS).

Additionally, the results are surprising concerning the impact of the OC on JP, and the link between both is statistically significant but negative. An interpretation of those results could be that people don't feel their actual values, beliefs, and ways of acting inside their current organization promotes their job performance (JP). Even though WFH is part of nowadays OC of thousands of companies, it is also true that OC is a vast and ambiguous concept. When talking about OC, one can refer to something concerning colleagues communicating with each other daily until the policies and practices in the organization. According to this line of thought, we could admit WFH could also negatively and indirectly impact job performance.

On the one hand, working from home allows fewer distractions from colleagues, such as getting distracted with coffee breaks. Thus, we believe that a hybrid WFH arrangement is being increasingly adopted, like having people go to one or two times a week to the office. They might drive their presence in the office to get together with their colleagues and straighten the relation with the people. Naturally, it may impact their performance a little on those days, but according to our data, foment straight relations between people pays off concerning the organization having a solid OC. In the long term, it may make them happier and more committed to the institution.

Furthermore, our results confirm that WFH promotes JP, but JP does not foment JS. Based on the previous literature review, a possible explanation could be people do not feel they are being adequately rewarded for their effort. The rewarding culture must be motivated and part of a company OC, and a strong and healthy OC significantly impacts JS. The “Great Resignation” we are assisting today is a consequence of a poor and toxic culture that people are unwilling to deal with anymore. Once a company’s human capital is rethinking its beliefs and behaviors, it is also the company's role to accompany the change to avoid losing its best talent, which is the organization's structure.

Our findings WLB plays an essential role in JS. When an employee feels he has a balance between taking care of his personal life and his job, it fosters his satisfaction with his current professional situation. In turn, the variation in TI is explained by job satisfaction (JS) at 48.4%. To conclude, if companies want to keep their best talent, they must invest in keeping them happy.

7. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORKS

Our database for this study development was collected in one survey for a short time, and we agree that a longitudinal study could contribute to having a better model. Beyond that, our model focus on peoples' perception and opinion about working from home. Besides being a few, some of our survey respondents are still working entirely in the company's office. We accept that the model could be improved if it focused only on people who are still working full remotely, have a flexible working arrangement, or give different response weights to each case. Our model also disregards other factors that may influence turnover intention, such as income, legal work procedures, lack of diversity in the work team, and incentives to collaborate. Thus, we suggest focusing on the mentioned factors in future work.

We suggest analyzing the impact of working from home after the "Great Resignation" period and exploring the real impact of companies in which the WFH arrangement could work to have their employees working at home.

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APPENDIX A

Table 3 - Questionnaire structure

Construct	#question	Original Question as the in the source	Author
Working from Home	WH1	Working from home allows me to set the pace of my work	(Mehta, 2021)
	WH2	Work from home is convenient as technical support is always available	
	WH3	Work from home is convenient as it saves on commuting time	
	WH4	Working from home enables me to provide full range of services for which I am trained	
	WH5	WFH allows me to schedule my work	
	WH6	Working from home gives me the flexibility to make changes in the ways work is carried out.	
Work-Life Balance	WB1	The company facilitates work-life balance	(Mas-Machuca et al., 2016)
	WB2	Managers emphasize work-life balance	
	WB3	I have enough time for my family and friends	
	WB4	I do not need to work overtime as I use to finish work within working hours.	
	WB5	There is enough time for recreation activities	
Job Performance	JP1	The home office helps me achieve my business objectives more efficiently than working from the usual office.	(Prodanova & Kocarev, 2021)
	JP2	The adoption of the home office is useful to improve my performance within the company.	
	JP3	The adoption of the home office is useful to improve the performance of everyone within the company	
	JP4	The adoption of the home office is useful to increase company profits.	

Construct	#question	Original Question as the in the source	Author
Organizational Culture	OC1	Differences of opinion are welcomed in this organization.	(vd et al., 1997)
	OC2	In this organisation communication flows freely and accurately throughout the organisation-upward, downward. and laterally.	
	OC3	There is an air of openness and trust in this organization.	
	OC4	Employees in this organisation have a clear understanding of whar its values and philosophies are.	
	OC5	Thus organization views its employees as importante contributors to the organization's success.	
	OC6	This organisation rewards employees on the basis of performance	
Job Satisfaction	JS1	I am satisfied with the work I do	(Mousa et al., 2020)
	JS2	I am satisfied with my supervisor	
	JS3	I am satisfied with the relations I have with my co-workers.	
	JS4	I am satisfied with the pay I receive for my job.	
	JS5	I am satisfied with the opportunities, which exist in this organisation for advancement (promotion).	
	JS6	All things considered, I am satisfied with my current job situation	
Turnover Intention	TI1	I intend to leave the organization.	(Yücel, 2012)
	TI2	I intent to make a genuine effort to find another job over the next few months.	
	TI3	I often think about quitting.	

APPENDIX B

Table 4 – Cross-Loadings

	Job Performance	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Culture	Turnover Intention	Working From Home	Work-Life Balance
JP1	0.864	0.11	0.066	0.018	0.596	0.247
JP2	0.914	0.108	0.099	0.026	0.605	0.302
JP3	0.875	0.083	0.059	0.034	0.558	0.284
JP4	0.758	0.097	0.089	0.069	0.485	0.215
JS1	0.176	0.838	0.582	-0.621	0.245	0.485
JS2	0.049	0.802	0.653	-0.532	0.173	0.525
JS4	0.056	0.742	0.477	-0.516	0.095	0.396
JS5	0.085	0.836	0.668	-0.534	0.221	0.416
JS6	0.112	0.934	0.674	-0.68	0.231	0.557
OC1	0.075	0.636	0.882	-0.427	0.241	0.544
OC2	0.089	0.658	0.895	-0.432	0.231	0.53
OC3	0.065	0.683	0.933	-0.461	0.231	0.58
OC4	0.129	0.612	0.869	-0.417	0.251	0.543
OC5	0.077	0.642	0.875	-0.439	0.22	0.531
OC6	0.045	0.637	0.788	-0.406	0.231	0.436
TI1	0.018	-0.601	-0.407	0.903	-0.024	-0.242
TI2	0.053	-0.61	-0.43	0.908	-0.014	-0.251
TI3	0.038	-0.656	-0.482	0.876	-0.081	-0.354
WFH1	0.507	0.187	0.198	0.001	0.791	0.313
WFH2	0.509	0.263	0.25	-0.081	0.769	0.388
WFH4	0.597	0.184	0.192	-0.061	0.787	0.319
WFH5	0.517	0.155	0.199	-0.007	0.838	0.328
WFH6	0.47	0.137	0.222	-0.027	0.777	0.272
WLB1	0.284	0.512	0.513	-0.301	0.385	0.826
WLB2	0.245	0.573	0.587	-0.319	0.36	0.844
WLB3	0.261	0.453	0.498	-0.262	0.324	0.87
WLB4	0.257	0.331	0.344	-0.13	0.285	0.731
WLB5	0.227	0.462	0.513	-0.264	0.326	0.848

APPENDIX C

