

Work-Life Balance and Psychological Well-Being among Employees in Bangalore Urban: A Cross-Sectional Study

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Abstract: *This study examined work-life balance and psychological well-being among employees in Bangalore Urban using a quantitative, descriptive, correlational and cross-sectional survey. Of 123 exported response records, 108 contained complete demographic and questionnaire data; 15 incompatible earlier records were excluded. The analysed sample comprised 62 males and 46 females. The survey included a 25-item study-specific work-life balance questionnaire and 18 psychological well-being items matching the Ryff short-form instrument. Negatively worded items were reverse-scored. Analyses included descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, Shapiro-Wilk tests, Welch independent-samples t-tests, Pearson and Spearman correlations, and demographic association tests with conditional Monte Carlo checks. No gender comparison of work-life balance or psychological well-being reached statistical significance. Total work-life balance was not significantly correlated with psychological well-being ($r = .136, p = .159$). The Personal Well-being domain showed a modest positive Pearson correlation ($r = .253, p = .008$), which narrowly remained significant after Holm adjustment across six correlations. Occupation and daily working hours were associated with gender; age, marital status and work mode were not. Several subscales showed poor or negative internal consistency, and normality diagnostics indicated distributional departures. These measurement limitations, mixed occupational coverage and cross-sectional self-report design restrict interpretation. The findings are exploratory and cannot establish causal effects or represent all corporate employees in Bangalore Urban.*

Keywords: work-life balance, psychological well-being, corporate employees, Bangalore Urban, gender

1. Introduction

Work occupies a substantial place in adult life. It provides income, structure, opportunities to use abilities, contact with other people and a sense of contribution. At the same time, employees have responsibilities and interests beyond their occupational roles. They may care for family members, maintain friendships, manage household tasks, pursue education, participate in community life and attend to their own health. Understanding employee experience therefore requires attention to the relationship between work and the wider life in which work takes place. This project examines that relationship through work-life balance and psychological well-being among employees in Bangalore Urban.

Work-life balance can be understood as the perceived compatibility of occupational demands with responsibilities, relationships and activities outside work. It does not require an equal number of hours for every role. An employee may devote more time to work during a planned project period and still experience balance if the arrangement is manageable, meaningful and followed by adequate time for other commitments. Conversely, a shorter working day may feel poorly balanced when schedules are unpredictable or the employee remains mentally occupied with work throughout the evening. The quality and control of time matter alongside its quantity.

Balance is also a changing experience rather than a permanent achievement. A routine that is suitable at one stage of life may become difficult after a change in employment, a caregiving responsibility, an examination, a health concern or relocation. Employees may need to revise

arrangements as circumstances change. This makes balance a process of adjustment between demands and available resources. The purpose of studying it is not to identify one ideal schedule for everyone, but to understand the areas in which work and personal life support or interfere with each other.

The expression work-life balance is broader than work-family balance. Family responsibilities are important, but employees who are unmarried or do not have children also have legitimate needs for rest, relationships, personal development and participation outside employment. Restricting balance to parenting alone would overlook these experiences. A broad approach allows the study to consider work demands, time management, family and personal life, personal well-being and organisational support. These domains represent different parts of the employee's experience and should not be assumed to move together in the same way. Empirical work by Haar et al. (2014) links balance with job satisfaction, life satisfaction and mental health across several cultures, providing a rationale for examining employee functioning while recognising contextual differences.

Psychological well-being adds another important perspective. An employee can complete work tasks and appear productive while feeling little purpose, limited control or difficulty maintaining meaningful relationships. Equally, an employee may face demanding circumstances while retaining a sense of growth and direction. Positive psychological functioning therefore deserves attention beyond an account of workload or stress alone. The present study uses a multidimensional understanding of well-being, while recognising that a questionnaire score is a limited

representation of a person's experience and is not a clinical diagnosis.

In corporate employment, work may involve targets, deadlines, meetings, customer interactions, coordination with colleagues and responsibility for outcomes. These features are not inherently harmful. A challenging assignment can offer learning and achievement when its demands are manageable and support is available. Difficulty may arise when demands remain excessive, priorities conflict or the employee has little opportunity to recover. The same task can therefore be experienced differently depending on expectations, preparation, autonomy and the surrounding organisational conditions. Understanding this variation helps avoid treating all occupational challenge as distress.

Theoretical models provide a way to organise the relationship between occupational and non-work experiences. They identify concepts and possible mechanisms rather than proving the pattern in a particular sample. In this project, several complementary perspectives are considered: work-family conflict, work-family borders, demands and resources, enrichment, psychological well-being and recovery. They are used together because the employee's experience includes demands, choices, relationships and positive functioning. None is treated as a substitute for evaluating the actual questionnaire responses.

Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) work-family conflict framework explains how pressures associated with different roles can become incompatible. Its distinction between time, strain and behaviour helps separate possible routes of interference. The model is relevant to the study's consideration of work demands and family or personal participation. Nevertheless, the WLB questionnaire does not constitute a direct test of every proposition in that framework. A conceptual connection between a domain and a theory should be distinguished from a validated correspondence between particular items and theoretical mechanisms.

For the present research, the conflict perspective suggests questions about the allocation of time and the transfer of effort across roles. It invites consideration of whether work commitments leave sufficient opportunity for personal responsibilities and whether the employee feels able to participate outside work. It also helps explain why the same number of hours can have different consequences under different schedules. These are questions that guide interpretation; they are not assumptions that the respondents necessarily experienced a particular form or direction of conflict.

Clark's (2000) work/family border theory considers movement between domains with physical, temporal and psychological boundaries. Boundaries can differ in flexibility and permeability, and other people in each domain can affect how they are managed. The perspective is relevant to a study that records office-based, hybrid and remote work. It suggests that location alone does not describe the employee's experience; the timing of availability and the expectations attached to it may also

matter. Those detailed border processes were not separately measured in the current survey.

An application of this perspective would ask whether the employee's preferred arrangement fits actual responsibilities. For example, an integrated schedule might offer useful discretion to one person while repeatedly interrupting another person's protected commitments. The illustrative difference concerns the fit between preferences and circumstances, not a universal ranking of work modes. In the present analysis, work mode remains a demographic characteristic. It is not treated as a complete measure of boundary control, and its association with gender cannot establish its effect on well-being.

The need for this study arises from the importance of understanding employee experience beyond occupational output alone. Work-life arrangements concern how people participate in employment while maintaining other responsibilities and meaningful activities. Psychological well-being concerns the quality of positive functioning within that wider life. Examining the two together can contribute to an informed discussion of employee needs. The contribution is most useful when it is specific about the sample, measures and design rather than presented as a universal explanation of employee well-being.

The literature provides reasons to expect relationships between work experiences and broader functioning, but the pattern in a particular group cannot be assumed. This project examines 108 complete responses collected for the final questionnaire form. It therefore offers local, sample-specific evidence from Bangalore Urban. The importance of the setting does not mean that all local employees are represented. The occupational mix and recruitment limitations must remain visible so that readers can judge the population to which the results might reasonably apply.

One objective is to compare reported work-life balance between the recorded male and female groups. This is relevant because groups may differ in demands or resources, but such differences should be examined rather than presumed. A comparison also needs to consider variability within groups and uncertainty in the estimates. If a result is non-significant, it should not be converted into proof that employees have identical experiences. The study's significance lies partly in replacing assumptions with a transparent account of what the data support.

A second objective is to compare psychological well-being between these groups. This adds information about positive functioning rather than relying solely on work-life scores. It may help distinguish a difference in reported balance from a difference in psychological functioning, if either is present. Interpretation depends on the reliability of the PWB scores and on the sample composition. The comparison is not a diagnostic assessment and does not identify which group has a greater prevalence of a mental health condition.

A third objective is to examine associations between WLB domains, total WLB and total psychological well-being. A domain approach can reveal whether the observed pattern is concentrated in particular aspects of experience. However,

examining several correlations increases the possibility of a chance finding. The analysis therefore includes adjustment for multiple comparisons and considers sensitivity to a rank-based method. These procedures help make the contribution more defensible and keep an isolated result from being overstated as a broad impact.

The inclusion of demographic characteristics provides context for the comparisons. Occupation, age, marital status, working hours and work mode may be distributed differently across gender groups. Describing those differences helps readers understand that the groups are not necessarily alike in every respect. The demographic tests do not establish psychological pathways or control all possible confounding. Their value is descriptive and contextual: they identify features of the sample that should be considered when discussing the findings.

For employees, the conceptual value of the project is a more specific vocabulary for discussing difficulties. Work demands, time management, family and personal participation, personal well-being and support describe different areas that may warrant attention. This does not mean the questionnaire can prescribe a solution for an individual. It means that a broad concern about balance can be examined through more concrete questions. The findings should encourage careful assessment rather than a single recommendation assumed to fit everyone.

For families, the discussion highlights the potential importance of shared expectations, participation and the distribution of responsibilities. It recognises that work-life arrangements can involve several people, even when the questionnaire is completed by one employee. The study does not provide family-level evidence, so its significance here is conceptual. It can motivate future research that obtains appropriate information about household circumstances and relationship experiences, rather than claiming that the present survey has measured changes in family well-being.

For organisations, the project offers a basis for considering how employees perceive demands and support. Possible areas for further assessment include schedule predictability, prioritisation, communication expectations and access to feasible assistance. The survey does not prove that a particular policy will improve performance or well-being. Organisational decisions would require additional information about roles, implementation and employee needs. The report's practical contribution is to identify questions worth examining and to distinguish proposed actions from interventions whose effectiveness has been demonstrated.

For counselling psychology, the topic brings together personal functioning and the conditions in which people live and work. An employee's concern may involve values, relationships, exhaustion, practical constraints or several interacting issues. A formulation that attends to these areas may be more informative than attributing every difficulty to poor coping. At the same time, research scores should not replace clinical assessment. The present project is an academic survey and cannot determine an individual's treatment needs or evaluate the results of counselling.

The study also has methodological significance. It demonstrates the need to inspect item wording, response categories, reverse scoring, incomplete records and reliability before interpreting results. A polished narrative cannot compensate for weak measurement. Reporting poor consistency, where found, is part of responsible research rather than an obstacle to be hidden. Such information can guide instrument review and more careful study design. It also helps readers distinguish the empirical contribution of this dataset from broader theoretical claims about work-life balance and well-being.

Future research can build on the project by using clearly documented instruments, a defined recruitment frame and more detailed information about occupational and household circumstances. Repeated measurements could examine how experiences change across demanding and less demanding periods. An intervention study could evaluate a specified recovery or organisational programme using appropriate outcomes and comparisons. These possibilities follow from the questions raised here, but they are not described as work already completed in the present dissertation.

The overall significance of the project is therefore a focused examination of employee-reported experiences with transparent limits. It combines a broad psychological rationale with specific statistical questions and careful attention to measurement. The introduction explains why balance, relationships, recovery and positive functioning matter; the remaining chapters establish what was actually studied and what the results permit the researcher to conclude. This distinction supports an understandable report while maintaining the academic standards expected of an M.Sc. Psychology project.

2. Review of literature

The literature distinguishes several related but different constructs. Work-family conflict concerns interference between roles, work-family enrichment concerns positive transfer, and work-life balance is a broader evaluation of compatibility. These constructs should not be treated as interchangeable when comparing studies. Likewise, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, mental health and multidimensional psychological well-being represent different outcomes.

Theoretical articles, reviews, meta-analyses and experimental studies offer different forms of evidence. The conflict, border, demands-and-resources and enrichment frameworks identify possible mechanisms. Allen et al. (2000), Kossek et al. (2011) and Wendsche and Lohmann-Haislah (2017) synthesise earlier research; Haar et al. (2014) examine outcomes across cultures; and Bloom et al. (2024) evaluate a particular hybrid arrangement experimentally. The recovery reviews add a temporal perspective. These contributions do not establish that the same pattern must occur with different measures in this mixed Bangalore Urban sample.

The reviewed evidence does not perfectly match the present operational measures. The study examines five WLB domains and six PWB dimensions, whereas the cited

research uses varied definitions, instruments and outcomes. Recent work on hybrid arrangements and recovery broadens the review, but does not remove differences in national, organisational and occupational context. This is a focused narrative review, not a systematic or exhaustive search of the field. Its purpose is to justify the study and identify interpretive limits, rather than claim that all available evidence has been covered.

Digital communication has increased the permeability of boundaries between work and personal life. Email, messaging platforms, mobile applications, and remote access allow work to continue beyond the physical office. For some employees this increases flexibility and control; for others it creates expectations of constant availability. Boundary preferences also differ, with some individuals preferring integration and others preferring clear segmentation.

Flexible and hybrid work arrangements can alter the work-life interface by changing commuting time, location, scheduling, and communication patterns. Flexibility may support balance when employees have meaningful control and clear expectations. However, remote work can also increase interruptions, work intensification, or difficulty disengaging. Therefore, mode of work should be interpreted as a context variable rather than automatically as beneficial or harmful.

Working hours indicate occupational exposure, but hours alone do not capture workload. Employees working similar hours may differ in pace, complexity, emotional demands, autonomy and recovery opportunities. Long or unpredictable hours may reduce time for sleep, relationships and leisure. The study therefore includes average daily working hours as a contextual demographic characteristic.

Work-life balance is influenced by unwritten norms as well as formal policies. An organisation may offer leave or flexibility while simultaneously rewarding constant availability. Supervisor behaviour can communicate whether employees are genuinely permitted to use supportive practices. A psychologically safe culture can make it easier for employees to communicate workload concerns and request reasonable adjustments.

Employee assistance and counselling services can support workers who experience stress, relationship difficulties, emotional exhaustion, or adjustment problems. From a counselling perspective, assessment of work-life balance can identify specific pressure points rather than treating distress as solely an individual weakness. Interventions may include problem-solving, stress management, boundary-setting, sleep and routine support, communication skills, and referral where necessary.

Positive relationships are both a component of psychological well-being and a potential resource for managing work-life demands. Supportive family members, friends, colleagues, and supervisors can provide emotional reassurance, practical assistance, advice, and a sense of belonging. Conversely, work strain can spill over into relationships, and relationship conflict can affect concentration at work. This reciprocal process highlights the interconnected nature of life domains.

Gender differences in work-life experiences can reflect social expectations, caregiving patterns, occupational segregation, and differences in working hours. Yet findings across studies are not always uniform. Gender may interact with marital status, parental status, occupation, organisational level, and cultural context. The present study therefore tests gender differences empirically rather than assuming them.

Age and career stage may influence work-life priorities. Younger employees may focus on skill development and career establishment, while employees at other career stages may combine work with caregiving, health or family responsibilities. Age is considered as a contextual characteristic rather than assumed to determine an employee's work-life experience.

Different occupational sectors create different combinations of customer interaction, technology use, physical presence, shift patterns, targets, regulatory responsibilities, and performance demands. Banking and finance may involve customer service and compliance pressures; IT may involve project deadlines and digital connectivity; manufacturing may involve fixed-site operations; other sectors may have different scheduling patterns. Sector diversity is therefore an important context for interpreting a mixed occupational sample.

Urban corporate employment in India combines rapid economic change, technology-enabled work, extended commuting, diverse family structures, and strong career aspirations. work-life balance in this context may be shaped by organisational practices as well as family and cultural expectations. Local studies are useful because international findings cannot always be assumed to operate identically across cities, sectors, and social contexts.

These contextual considerations motivate assessment of specific domains rather than reliance only on global scores. They also caution against assuming that gender, working hours or work mode by themselves determine an employee's psychological experience.

The cited literature offers theoretical and empirical reasons to examine work-life experiences and positive psychological functioning. However, it does not establish the pattern of associations within this mixed Bangalore Urban sample. The study therefore examines gender comparisons, domain-level correlations and selected demographic associations using the 108 complete responses. This local analytical focus does not imply that the review establishes an absence of all prior research in Bangalore Urban.

The present study addresses this local analytical gap through gender comparisons, correlations between each work-life domain and total psychological well-being, and gender associations with selected demographic categories. It contributes sample-specific evidence rather than representative estimates for all corporate employees in Bangalore Urban.

3. Methods

- To examine work-life balance and psychological well-being among employees in Bangalore Urban, including gender differences and selected demographic associations.
- To compare work-life balance and psychological well-being between male and female corporate employees in Bangalore Urban.
- To examine the relationship between work-life balance and psychological well-being among corporate employees in Bangalore Urban.
- To examine gender associations with selected demographic characteristics such as age, occupation, marital status, average working hours per day, and current mode of work.

Hypothesis

- H1: There would be significant differences in work-life balance and psychological well-being between male and female corporate employees in Bangalore Urban.
- H2: There would be a significant relationship between work-life balance and psychological well-being among corporate employees in Bangalore Urban.
- H3: Gender would be significantly associated with selected demographic characteristics: age, occupation, marital status, average daily working hours and current mode of work.

Work-life balance was the predictor construct and psychological well-being was the outcome construct. These labels express conceptual organisation rather than experimental manipulation or causal direction. Gender was the grouping variable. Age, occupation, marital status, average daily working hours and current work mode were categorical demographic variables. No mediator or moderator was tested.

Work-life balance: In this study, work-life balance refers to the respondent's scores across Work Demands, Time Management, Family and Personal Life, Personal Well-being, Organisational Support, and the overall work-life balance score.

Psychological well-being: In this study, psychological well-being refers to scores across Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Personal Growth, Positive Relations with Others, Purpose in Life, Self-Acceptance, and the total psychological well-being score.

Corporate employees: The intended population comprises employees working in company or corporate organisational settings in Bangalore Urban. The realised sample contains broader occupational and employment categories; corporate affiliation was not independently verified. Accordingly, results describe the analysed mixed occupational sample.

Work-life balance scores were sums of coded items from five five-item domains. Each domain ranged from 5 to 25 and the total from 25 to 125. Psychological well-being scores were six three-item subscale sums and an 18-item composite. Each PWB subscale ranged from 3 to 21 and the composite from 18 to 126. Higher scores represent more

favourable item responses after reverse scoring. No validated clinical or normative cutoffs were applied.

A descriptive, correlational and cross-sectional design was used. The descriptive component summarises the characteristics and scores of the sample. The comparative component examines male-female differences using independent-samples t-tests. The correlational component examines linear relationships between work-life balance and psychological well-being. The cross-sectional nature means that all observations represent a particular period rather than change over time.

The study concerns corporate employees in Bangalore Urban. The dataset includes respondents from several occupational categories, including Banking and Finance, Business, Corporate, Government, IT, Manufacturing, and Others. The setting is therefore urban and occupationally diverse, although the sample should not be interpreted as a statistically representative census of all corporate employees in Bangalore.

The response export contained 123 records. Fifteen earlier records, dated 22 March to 2 April 2026, belonged to an incompatible questionnaire structure and lacked the demographic and complete 43-item fields required for this analysis. They were excluded. The remaining 108 records contained all 25 WLB and 18 PWB responses and complete gender data. These records were collected from 23 August to 3 October 2026. The analysed sample comprised 62 males (57.4%) and 46 females (42.6%).

Random sampling was stated in the project plan. The response export does not document a population sampling frame, random selection method or recruitment probability. Therefore, the analysed respondents cannot be claimed to form a verified probability sample. Generalisation is limited to the observed mixed occupational sample.

The approved title refers to corporate employees, but the response categories include government work, business, self-employment and other occupations. Employment types were full-time ($n = 88$), self-employed ($n = 11$), freelance ($n = 4$), contract ($n = 3$) and part-time ($n = 2$). All complete records were retained in this analysis. This mismatch between the title and realised recruitment coverage is a substantive limitation; individual corporate affiliation and residence cannot be verified from the export alone.

Records were included when they used the final questionnaire structure, contained complete responses to all 43 scale items, and provided the demographic information needed for analysis. All 108 complete records in the current export were retained. The dataset describes adult occupational respondents; the available categories do not independently verify their employer affiliation or geographical eligibility.

The 15 earlier incompatible records were excluded because their item content and response structure did not correspond to the final questionnaire. There was no item imputation. No complete record was removed on the basis of its score, the

direction of its contribution to a hypothesis, or repeated response categories alone.

The survey contained 25 WLB statements organised into Work Demands (items 1–5), Time Management (6–10), Family and Personal Life (11–15), Personal Well-being (16–20) and Organisational Support (21–25). The export does not identify a published instrument author, year, validation study or development procedure. It is therefore described as a study-specific questionnaire, with provenance unconfirmed, rather than as an established validated scale.

Responses were coded Strongly disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Neutral = 3, Agree = 4 and Strongly agree = 5. Negative items 3, 5, 8, 12 and 17 were reversed using 6 minus the coded response. Item 25 asks about overall balance although grouped under Organisational Support, illustrating a content-validity limitation of that domain.

The 18 PWB statements in the export match the short-form Ryff item set presented by Stanford SPARQ, which cites Ryff and Keyes (1995). The conceptual six-dimension model was described by Ryff (1989). Autonomy uses items 15, 17 and 18; Environmental Mastery 4, 8 and 9; Personal Growth 11, 12 and 14; Positive Relations with Others 6, 13 and 16; Purpose in Life 3, 7 and 10; and Self-Acceptance 1, 2 and 5. Matching the exported wording identifies the item set, but does not establish how the researcher originally obtained it or independently validate this sample's scores.

Seven observed response categories were coded from Strongly disagree = 1 through Somewhat disagree = 2, A little disagree = 3, Neither agree nor disagree = 4, A little agree = 5, Somewhat agree = 6 and Strongly agree = 7. With this orientation, negative items 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 14, 15 and 16 were reversed using 8 minus the response. Final scores are equivalent to the Stanford SPARQ orientation, which initially assigns Strongly agree = 1 and reverses the positively worded items.

The survey recorded name, age group, gender, highest educational qualification, occupation, employment type, marital status, experience, daily working hours and current work mode. Names and timestamps were excluded from statistical tables. The five demographic comparisons specified in the study were age, occupation, marital status, daily working hours and work mode.

The online survey export was screened by questionnaire compatibility and completeness. Response labels were trimmed and normalised for letter case before numerical mapping. The observed item response categories were mapped without treating a blank response as zero. Negative items were reversed before domain and total scores were calculated. All score ranges and demographic counts were checked. Statistical analyses were carried out on the individual responses using Python and SciPy 1.17.0.

All 108 complete final-form records were analysed. Eighteen respondents used one identical response category across all WLB items and 15 across all PWB items. These patterns may indicate straightlining, but the export alone cannot establish careless responding. Such records were

retained transparently because no prespecified response-quality exclusion rule or attention check was documented.

Descriptive statistics summarised frequencies, percentages, score means and standard deviations. Cronbach's alpha was calculated on reverse-scored items for each domain and composite. Negative values indicate negative average inter-item covariance and were retained. They warrant investigation of item coherence, response patterns and scoring. High composite alpha does not establish domain reliability or construct validity.

Shapiro–Wilk tests, skewness and excess kurtosis described total-score distributions overall and by gender. Median-centred Levene tests assessed variance differences. Two-tailed Welch independent-samples t-tests were used for all gender comparisons without assuming equal population variances. Signed t-values use male minus female means. Cohen's d uses the pooled within-group standard deviation. Distributional departures and weak reliability limit inference; non-significance does not establish equivalence.

Pearson correlations examined each WLB domain or total against the PWB composite, with Fisher-transformed 95% confidence intervals. Holm adjustment controlled familywise error across the six Pearson tests. Spearman correlations provided sensitivity checks for distributional departures. The significance threshold was .05, two-tailed. Domain analyses remain exploratory given measurement limitations.

Pearson chi-square tests examined five gender–demographic tables. Sparse expected counts motivated conditional Monte Carlo p-values from 50,000 tables with fixed margins, seed 20261011 and a plus-one correction. Categories and complete responses were retained. Cramér's V described association size. Holm adjustment across the five Monte Carlo p-values informed demographic decisions.

Ethical considerations and consent

The original online questionnaire displayed an introductory participant information statement describing the study purpose, voluntary participation, confidentiality, withdrawal and approximate completion time of 10–15 minutes. It stated that proceeding indicated voluntary agreement to participate. The researcher reports that this wording was present during data collection. This was a consent-by-proceeding procedure; no separate consent checkbox has been verified. The dissertation was academically approved by the project guide, but no separate research ethics committee approval was obtained. No ethics approval or exemption is claimed. Participant names are omitted from reported analyses. The journal should determine whether this documented process satisfies its research ethics policy.

4. Results

Of 123 response records, 15 incompatible earlier records were excluded and 108 complete final-form records were retained. The sample comprised 62 males (57.4%) and 46 females (42.6%). All retained questionnaire cells mapped to observed response categories, and no item data were missing.

Overall WLB and PWB distributions departed from normality. Female WLB scores showed negative skew, while PWB scores were positively skewed in both gender groups. The male WLB Shapiro–Wilk result was not significant ($p = .059$), which does not prove normality. These diagnostics motivate cautious interpretation and rank-correlation sensitivity checks.

Total WLB alpha was .910, while total PWB alpha was .587. WLB Work Demands had negative alpha ($-.178$); other WLB domain estimates ranged from .603 to .931. PWB subscales were particularly weak: Autonomy, Environmental Mastery, Positive Relations and Purpose in Life had negative estimates, while Personal Growth and Self-Acceptance were .231 and .064. Reliable measurement cannot be assumed for these subscales. Their means and comparisons are reported descriptively, and conclusions about distinct dimensions are limited. PWB composite reliability also warrants caution.

Reverse scoring was checked against item wording and the published PWB scoring orientation. Poor reliability should not be repaired by omitting reversals or deleting items solely to increase alpha. Further review of administration, item comprehension and response quality is needed. Constant-category response patterns across mixed positive and negative items provide a plausible concern but do not establish the cause of the reliability problems.

Note. Male $n = 62$; female $n = 46$. All tests are two-tailed Welch tests. t and d are signed as male minus female. Fractional df are Welch–Satterthwaite degrees of freedom. p -values are unadjusted; none met .05.

No gender comparison reached significance. Total WLB was 80.02 ($SD = 17.01$) for males and 81.93 ($SD = 12.48$) for females, $t(105.99) = -0.68$, $p = .500$, $d = -0.13$. Total PWB was 81.32 ($SD = 10.01$) for males and 83.00 ($SD = 10.97$) for females, $t(91.90) = -0.82$, $p = .417$, $d = -0.16$. These findings do not establish equivalence. Low reliability can also reduce sensitivity to differences.

Median-centred Levene tests indicated variance differences for Family and Personal Life ($p = .037$), Personal Well-being ($p = .037$) and total WLB ($p = .012$). Welch tests were therefore preferred over a common pooled-variance test. These exploratory diagnostics do not remove the distributional and measurement limitations.

WLB Correlations with Total PWB and Rank Sensitivity Checks

Note. $N = 108$. Holm adjustment covers six Pearson correlations. Spearman p -values are unadjusted sensitivity results. Confidence intervals use Fisher transformation.

Total WLB had a small non-significant Pearson association with total PWB, $r(106) = .136$, $p = .159$, 95% CI $[-.054, .317]$. Its Spearman association was also non-significant ($\rho = .169$, $p = .080$). H2 was therefore not supported at the total-score level.

The Personal Well-being domain had the largest Pearson correlation, $r(106) = .253$, $p = .008$, 95% CI $[.067, .422]$. Its Holm-adjusted p -value across the six Pearson tests was .050 when rounded to three decimals (unrounded .049517); it narrowly met the .05 threshold. Spearman ρ was .220 with unadjusted $p = .022$, but did not survive Holm adjustment across six rank correlations. The domain evidence is therefore modest and sensitive to analytical choices, with reliability and construct-overlap concerns. No other Pearson association met .05.

Gender Associations with Demographic Characteristics

Note. Monte Carlo p -values use 50,000 fixed-margin random tables, seed 20261011 and a plus-one correction. Holm adjustment covers five demographic Monte Carlo tests. $V = \text{Cramér's } V$.

Occupation and average daily working hours were significantly associated with gender after the Monte Carlo checks and Holm adjustment. Occupation had $\chi^2(6) = 20.19$, Pearson $p = .003$, Monte Carlo $p = .00128$, Holm $p = .00512$ and $V = .432$. Working hours had $\chi^2(3) = 16.08$, Pearson $p = .001$, Monte Carlo $p = .00066$, Holm $p = .00330$ and $V = .386$. Age, marital status and work mode were non-significant. These findings concern category distributions rather than effects on well-being.

Expected-count checks found cells below five in all demographic tables: age 3 of 8 cells, occupation 5 of 14, marital status 2 of 6, working hours 2 of 8 and work mode 1 of 6. Minimum expected counts were .85, 1.70, .43, 3.83 and 4.26 respectively. Conditional simulation was used because the usual chi-square approximation is less dependable with sparse cells. The significant demographic results remained supported under this check.

The Personal Well-being domain result is exploratory and distinct from the overall relationship specified by H2. Lack of significance does not prove that an association or group difference is absent.

Table 1: Internal consistency of study scores

Score	Items	α
Work Demands	5	-0.178
Time Management	5	0.622
Family and Personal Life	5	0.690
Personal Well-being	5	0.603
Organisational Support	5	0.931
Total Work-Life Balance	25	0.910
Autonomy	3	-0.411
Environmental Mastery	3	-0.004
Personal Growth	3	0.231
Positive Relations with Others	3	-0.159
Purpose in Life	3	-0.131
Self-Acceptance	3	0.064
Total Psychological Well-Being	18	0.587

Source: final 108-response dissertation analysis; see accompanying limitations.

Table 2: Gender comparisons (Welch tests)

Score	Male M (SD)	Female M (SD)	t	df	p	d
Work Demands	15.18 (2.27)	15.89 (2.26)	-1.62	97.3	0.109	-0.31
Time Management	16.44 (3.63)	16.50 (3.01)	-0.10	104.7	0.920	-0.02
Family and Personal Life	15.40 (4.14)	15.70 (3.11)	-0.42	106.0	0.676	-0.08
Personal Well-being	16.31 (3.66)	16.67 (2.64)	-0.61	105.9	0.546	-0.11
Organisational Support	16.69 (5.23)	17.17 (4.26)	-0.53	105.0	0.600	-0.10
Total Work-Life Balance	80.02 (17.01)	81.93 (12.48)	-0.68	106.0	0.500	-0.13
Autonomy	13.90 (2.40)	14.22 (2.47)	-0.66	95.6	0.510	-0.13
Environmental Mastery	14.19 (2.56)	13.93 (2.88)	0.48	90.4	0.630	0.10
Personal Growth	15.03 (3.09)	15.35 (2.87)	-0.55	100.8	0.586	-0.11
Positive Relations with Others	11.73 (2.89)	11.83 (2.36)	-0.20	105.0	0.843	-0.04
Purpose in Life	11.84 (2.87)	12.72 (3.07)	-1.51	93.4	0.134	-0.30
Self-Acceptance	14.63 (2.72)	14.96 (3.35)	-0.54	84.7	0.588	-0.11
Total Psychological Well-Being	81.32 (10.01)	83.00 (10.97)	-0.82	91.9	0.417	-0.16

Source: final 108-response dissertation analysis; see accompanying limitations.

Table 3: Work-life balance and psychological well-being correlations

WLB score	Pearson r	p	Holm p	95% CI	Spearman p	p (p)
Work Demands	0.073	0.455	1.000	[-0.118, 0.258]	0.096	0.325
Time Management	0.104	0.286	1.000	[-0.087, 0.287]	0.098	0.313
Family and Personal Life	0.079	0.414	1.000	[-0.111, 0.264]	0.095	0.329
Personal Well-being	0.253	0.008	.0495	[0.067, 0.422]	0.220	0.022
Organisational Support	0.091	0.347	1.000	[-0.099, 0.276]	0.140	0.149
Total Work-Life Balance	0.136	0.159	0.795	[-0.054, 0.317]	0.169	0.080

Source: final 108-response dissertation analysis; see accompanying limitations.

Table 4: Demographic associations by gender

Variable	χ^2 (df)	Pearson p	Monte Carlo p	Holm MC p	V
Age	5.22 (3)	0.156	0.138	0.414	0.220
Occupation	20.19 (6)	0.003	0.001	0.005	0.432
Marital status	2.57 (2)	0.276	0.225	0.450	0.154
Average daily working hours	16.08 (3)	0.001	< .001	0.003	0.386
Current mode of work	2.08 (2)	0.353	0.355	0.450	0.139

Source: final 108-response dissertation analysis; see accompanying limitations.

5. Discussion

The final analysis used 108 complete responses. No reported gender comparison reached significance, total WLB was not significantly associated with total PWB, and occupation and working hours were associated with gender. The Personal Well-being domain showed a modest positive Pearson correlation that narrowly remained significant after adjustment across six correlations. These statistical patterns must be interpreted alongside the weak reliability of several scores and the mixed recruitment coverage.

The absence of significant gender differences can be interpreted in several ways. Male and female employees in contemporary corporate settings may share similar workloads, performance expectations, commuting challenges, digital connectivity, and organisational policies. It is also possible that differences in specific life responsibilities are balanced by different resources or coping strategies. The present data do not permit a causal explanation, but they do caution against assuming that gender alone determines work-life or psychological outcomes.

The current mean differences were small relative to within-group variability, particularly for the composite scores. Welch tests accounted for unequal variances, but do not establish that the male and female populations are

equivalent. Poor subscale reliability and limited sample size can obscure differences. Gender-specific interventions are therefore not justified by these comparisons alone, while individual assessment may still reveal relevant responsibilities, workload and support needs.

The total-score correlation was small and its confidence interval included both a slight negative relationship and a modest positive relationship. A non-significant result is not proof that balance and well-being are unrelated. It indicates that the current data did not provide sufficiently clear evidence for the specified total-score hypothesis. The uncertain provenance of the WLB questionnaire and modest PWB composite reliability make construct-level interpretation particularly cautious.

Personal Well-being concerns sleep, emotional exhaustion, self-care, routine satisfaction and stress management. Its positive association is consistent with a recovery perspective, but the two constructs have overlapping content. Shared self-report method and content overlap may contribute to the association. The Pearson finding narrowly survived Holm adjustment, whereas the rank sensitivity result did not survive adjustment across six rank tests. It should be framed as exploratory rather than a robust demonstration of impact.

The male and female groups differed in occupational composition and reported daily hours. Male respondents

were more represented in the 9–10 and above-10-hour categories, while female respondents were more represented in 6–8 hours. Occupational differences included a larger female share in the Others category. Monte Carlo checks supported the occupation and working-hours results despite sparse cells. Neither result establishes that occupation or longer hours caused a psychological outcome, because those pathways were not tested.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) conceptualise incompatibility between work and family demands. Clark (2000) emphasises border management, Voydanoff (2005) considers demands and resources, and Greenhaus and Powell (2006) describe enrichment across roles. These frameworks provide a rationale for multidimensional assessment; they do not predict that every domain must correlate with a particular composite in every sample.

Haar et al. (2014) link work-life balance with individual outcomes across cultures. The current non-significant total-score correlation does not reproduce that broad pattern, but different measures, occupational composition and sampling may help explain the difference. The present data cannot distinguish those explanations. Kossek et al. (2011) provide a broader basis for examining workplace support, and a non-significant direct correlation here should not be interpreted as evidence that support has no value.

Sonnentag's (2018) recovery perspective helps contextualise the Personal Well-being items. Ryff (1989) and Ryff and Keyes (1995) distinguish multidimensional positive functioning from general satisfaction or absence of distress. The exported PWB wording matches the 18-item form, but the poor empirical subscale reliability prevents strong interpretation of distinct psychological dimensions in this sample. Theoretical relevance cannot compensate for weak observed measurement.

For counselling psychology, domain-specific assessment may help clarify an employee's concerns. Questions can explore workload, time control, family participation, sleep, recovery, emotional energy, self-care and perceived support. This is a conceptual application of the topic, not a claim that the survey validates a clinical assessment tool. The scores with poor reliability should not be used to make individual clinical judgments.

For organisations, the conceptual literature supports considering structural conditions alongside individual strategies. Workload, scheduling, communication expectations and the practical use of support are possible areas for assessment. The present correlations do not establish the effectiveness of changing these conditions. The proposals below should be evaluated in the relevant organisation rather than described as interventions validated by this study.

Employees may benefit from recognising recovery and self-care as legitimate components of occupational sustainability rather than as activities that occur only after all work is completed. Regular sleep, physical activity, meaningful leisure, supportive relationships, realistic routines, and psychological detachment can help preserve personal

resources. Employees may also benefit from identifying which specific work-life domain is most difficult rather than viewing balance as a single all-or-nothing condition.

Managers can contribute to sustainable work by clarifying priorities, reducing unnecessary after-hours communication, monitoring workload, supporting leave and flexibility, and responding constructively when employees raise concerns. Because gender did not significantly differentiate the main psychological outcomes in this sample, managers should avoid making assumptions about individual needs based only on gender.

Human-resource practices can integrate employee well-being with workload design, flexible work policies, manager training, employee assistance, and periodic well-being assessment. Policies are most effective when organisational culture supports their actual use. Working-hour patterns may deserve particular attention because the demographic analysis showed a significant gender association.

Counsellors working with employed adults can assess work-life domains as part of case formulation. Difficulties with sleep, emotional energy, routine, family participation, time pressure, and boundary management may be clinically relevant even when the client does not initially describe the problem as work-related. Interventions can include stress management, problem-solving, cognitive restructuring where appropriate, behavioural activation, communication, boundary-setting, and referral for organisational support.

These implications are proposals informed by the conceptual literature, not proven intervention effects. The study did not test counselling, workload redesign, flexible working or recovery programmes. The affected subscales should not be used for individual screening, diagnosis, employment decisions or claims about a particular employee's psychological functioning.

Organisations may consider periodic workload reviews, manager training in supportive supervision, clear norms around after-hours communication, access to confidential counselling, flexible work where feasible, and well-being initiatives that include recovery and self-care. Programmes should be evaluated rather than assumed to be effective.

Before extending the research, verify the WLB questionnaire's source or development history, review wording and grouping, and document any expert review or pilot testing that actually occurred. For PWB, investigate administration and response quality using an established instrument and a documented scoring procedure. Do not modify scoring after examining whether a hypothesis becomes significant. Plan recruitment, quality checks and analysis decisions before the next data collection.

The design is cross-sectional and based on self-report, so it cannot establish causal direction. The sample is modest and geographically framed by the study rather than independently verified from residence fields. A random selection procedure was planned but not documented. Mixed occupational and employment categories do not cleanly

match the originally planned corporate-only recruitment scope, and the export does not verify employer affiliation.

Measurement is a major limitation. WLB provenance and validation history remain unknown. Work Demands has negative internal consistency, PWB subscale alphas are negative or very low, and PWB composite alpha is only .587. Eighteen WLB and 15 PWB records show constant-category responding across their respective items. Such patterns warrant review but were retained because no prespecified response-quality rule or attention check was documented. Their cause cannot be established retrospectively from the export.

Distributional departures, uneven variances, sparse demographic cells and multiple comparisons also limit conclusions. Welch tests, Spearman checks, Holm adjustments and fixed-margin simulation improve transparency, but they cannot repair unreliable measurement or recruitment bias. The near-threshold adjusted Personal Well-being result should be interpreted cautiously. The literature review contains a limited set of studies rather than a systematic search of current evidence. Actual consent and ethics documentation were not supplied.

Future studies should recruit a clearly defined corporate population through a documented sampling procedure, use instruments with established provenance and suitable local measurement properties, and prespecify response-quality checks. Larger sector-specific samples may support demographic comparisons with fewer sparse cells. A longer or better-performing PWB version may improve dimension-level assessment. Longitudinal designs would help assess changes in work-life experiences and functioning over time.

Replication should distinguish total-score hypotheses from exploratory domain analyses and include reliability, distribution plots, uncertainty intervals and multiplicity control. Recovery-oriented programmes could be evaluated using a design that directly measures change rather than inferring intervention benefit from a cross-sectional correlation.

6. Conclusion

In the 108 complete-response sample, gender comparisons were non-significant and the total WLB-PWB relationship was small and non-significant. The Personal Well-being domain showed modest exploratory evidence of a positive association, while occupation and working hours differed by gender. These findings describe this dataset and do not establish causal impact, equivalence between genders or population-wide relationships. Poor reliability of several domains and uncertainty about recruitment and WLB instrument provenance materially restrict the strength of the conclusions.

Declarations

Ethics approval: No separate research ethics committee approval was obtained; academic dissertation approval is not represented as ethics committee approval.

Informed consent: Participant information and consent-by-proceeding wording were provided in the original Google Form, according to the researcher and the reviewed form screenshots. Individual consent checkbox records were not documented.

Publication permission: The dissertation contains an undertaking referring to written publication permission. The researcher reports that the college does not issue separate approval certificates. The journal should review this disclosure; no written waiver is claimed.

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Data availability: The participant-level dataset is not publicly available due to privacy and confidentiality considerations. Aggregate findings are reported in the article.

Author contributions: Naveen Kumar K. is the sole author.

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