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ANALYSIS OF WELL-BEING AT WORK AND WORKING FROM HOME BASED ON THE RESULTS OF A SURVEY IN SLOVAKIA

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ABSTRACT. The coronavirus outbreak at the end of 2019 can be cited as a trigger for several drastic consequences. In those years and since, the pandemic brought many changes for which the world was not prepared. The spread and increased prevalence of home-based work is one such consequence. The study of the relationship between working from home and well-being at work is one of the most researched areas in the field of economic psychology today. The main objective of this study was to investigate well-being at work in a Slovak sample and to explore its relationship with working from home. The research methodology was implemented in the form of an online questionnaire at the end of 2023. A total of 772 people participated in the survey. According to the research hypothesis, there is a significant correlation between the form of working from home and a higher average level of well-being at work. The results obtained confirmed the hypothesis that working from home has a positive impact on well-being at work. Furthermore, the results highlight the main risks of work from home in terms of 'home comfort' and 'work-life balance'. In conclusion, the research has shown both the advantages and disadvantages of working from home, and managers should strive to ensure that the well-being of employees is maximized in order to work effectively.

JEL Classification: J14, J28, I11

Keywords: workplace well-being, teleworking, Slovakia, efficiency, businesses

Introduction

The emergence of the coronavirus was one of the most significant phenomena in recent times. The epidemic spread gradually from China, slowly engulfing the whole world. The risk of infection and the control of the virus brought about a number of changes (Vyas & Butakhieo, 2020). Significant workplace changes were introduced to comply with various governmental measures. One of the most common consequences of the emergence of the pandemic has been the spread of home working (Chung et al., 2021). The introduction of the "home office" was not, of course, caused by the coronavirus pandemic, but merely by its wider spread. In the United States, 24% of full-time workers worked from home in 2015, rising to 70% after the pandemic (Owl Labs, 2020). Around the world, the number of people working from home has skyrocketed. By 2020, the proportion of people working from home had increased by 69% in Italy, 50% in Switzerland and 37% in Finland (Aegerter et al, 2021). Workplace well-being has also become an important factor in the impact of workplace change (Mihalache & Mihalache, 2021). Some authors have argued that working from home has a positive impact on well-being (Putri & Amran, 2021; Darouei & Pluut, 2021), while research by Allen et al. (2013) found that working from home has a negative impact on well-being.

The present study measures and analyses the well-being at work of employees working in different work arrangements using the Workplace PERMA-Profiler model. The paper is divided into 3 parts: the first part summarizes and presents the theoretical background of the relationships between working from home, well-being at work and the occurrence of coronavirus; the second part discusses the research methodology, and finally the third part details the results and conclusions.

1. Literature review

1.1 The emergence and spread of home working

The term "work from home" is often used and is still used in the vernacular, originating from a term taken from the English language. The Labour Code defines the meaning of 'home office' as a regular work activity of a worker carried out at a place of work separate from his/her place of work (Seneši, 2021).

In the popular imagination, the introduction and spread of home working in the workplace is often mentioned in the same breath as the outbreak of the coronavirus pandemic in 2019. This is partly true, historical sources show that home working can be traced back in time to the 18th century. During this period, the "home office" was a fully accepted and common form of work. It is estimated that in America in the 18th century, telecommuting accounted for 40% of all forms of work and 'commuting' for 60% (Economist, 2020). It was only from 1914 onwards that 'commuting' became a truly dominant and expected form of work (András, 2021).

1.2. The relationship between the home-working pattern and the coronavirus pandemic

The re-introduction and spread of home office working is often associated with the emergence of the coronavirus pandemic, as it led many companies to adopt home working (Martin et al., 2022; Agrawal et al., 2023). The emergence of the pandemic played a significant role in the need to introduce home office working (Kaushik & Guleria, 2020). The main reason why companies decided to adopt remote working was to prevent the spread of the coronavirus (Kermit et. al., 2020). Minimizing the number of face-to-face contacts and encounters contributed to the improvement of the pandemic situation (Onyema et. al., 2023) and prevention of employment risks (Mishchuk et al., 2023). In recent years, a number of studies have addressed this topic. These studies have sought to answer one of the most important questions, namely the extent to which workers have shifted to working from home following the outbreak of the coronavirus. Clark's 2021 research looked at the prevalence of home office working in 5 European countries over a 12-year period. By 2020, the year after the outbreak of the coronavirus, the UK had the highest percentage of remote workers of all the countries analysed. The detailed results perfectly reflect the surge in the number of home office workers in all countries surveyed in the post-pandemic period. In his research, the author linked these increasing percentages to the emergence of the coronavirus epidemic, the aim of which he explained as social distancing measures (Clark, 2021). A Eurostat survey showed that only 5-6% of the employed in Europe were working from home before the coronavirus. In 2020, at the beginning of the pandemic, this percentage suddenly doubled and started to increase steadily. The results showed that Finland had the highest percentage (37%) of remote workers (Eurostat, 2021). As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, remote work became a widely adopted form of employment in Hungary as well. The spread of teleworking created a demand for new competencies, bringing digital skills, independent work, effective time management, and online communication abilities to the forefront. Thus, the pandemic fundamentally transformed not only work organization but also the skills expected from employees (Garai-Fodor, 2022; Chopra et al., 2024). A US study surveyed at the same time produced similar results. The study also focused on the relationship between the Covid-19 pandemic and the prevalence of remote working. Kaufman and Taniguchi's (2021) study also identified home working as the most intensive workplace changes among respondents following the outbreak of the coronavirus.

1.3. The relationship between well-being at work and working from home

Well-being at work is one of the narrower slices of definitions of 'well-being', defined in a variety of ways by a multitude of authors. Page, in a 2005 study, defined well-being at work as nothing more than a sense of well-being derived from work, which is related to the external and internal values of work and the general feelings of employees (Page, 2005). Other authors have argued that well-being at work plays an important role in the success of organisations and in achieving better performance (Davidavićiene et al., 2023; Harter et al, 2002). Leadership effectiveness significantly influences organizational well-being outcomes, with transformational leadership approaches demonstrating particular success in fostering employee commitment and engagement in educational institutions (Maama, 2024). Employees who have low well-being at work often produce poor performance and inactivity (Nagy et al., 2024). In Warr's model, he identifies 12 elements/vitamins of the environment that can influence the achievement of well-being at work (Warr, 2007). The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Well-being, published in 2009, lists the prominent contributors to further workplace well-being research, namely M. Seligman - PERMA model, Cartwright and Cooper - ASSET model,

Siegrist - ERI model and C. Maslach and S. E. Jackson - Burnout model (Cartwright & Cooper, 2009).

Working from home is one of the major workplace changes following the emergence of the coronavirus pandemic, which has also had a strong impact on the development of well-being at work. Different working conditions, different locations, different schedules have naturally shaped one's sense of well-being in some direction. Contemporary workplace transformations involving technological integration demonstrate significant impacts on employee performance and well-being, requiring careful consideration of human factors alongside operational efficiency improvements (Angammana & Jayawardena, 2022). These are the interfaces that create the link between the way people work at home and their well-being at work. There is now a growing body of research on home working and well-being at work. Pataki-Bittó and Kun's (2021) research looked at the effects of teleworking on well-being in the pre- and post-pandemic period. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the two periods in terms of relaxed working conditions, psychological well-being and stress. The majority of respondents rated workplace relations as better during the pandemic period. In the period following the emergence of the virus, the psychological state of the respondents was more strongly characterised by stress and negative emotions than in the pre-pandemic phase (Pataki-Bittó & Kun, 2021; Bencsik & Juhasz, 2023).

In many areas, the form of working from home introduced in the post-pandemic period of the coronavirus influenced the degree of well-being at work in some direction. Work-life balance, the threat of home comforts, the availability of co-workers, the quality of work, and physical and mental well-being all underwent some degree of change. In many cases, sources in the literature reveal contradictory results on the effectiveness of the home office. Windeler et al. (2017) found that working from home has a positive effect on job satisfaction, as there is less workload. Dutcher (2012) in his study showed that working from home increases creativity and autonomy. In a 2006 study, Kossek et al. found positive consequences of the home office in terms of flexibility-efficiency and better work-life balance. In contrast, Hammer et al. (2005) argued that working from home has a negative impact on work-life balance. Several researchers have agreed with the latter finding that working from home can have negative effects (Allen et al., 2015; Derks et al., 2016; Staniec et al., 2023). Song and Gao, (2019), concluded that teleworking can lead to higher stress and depression.

Based on the findings of the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is tested in our research: *H1: There is a significant relationship between the working from home and employees' level of well-being at work.*

2. Methodological approach

The present study investigated the effects of working from home on well-being at work among employees in Slovakia. Data were collected using an online questionnaire-based survey conducted between November and December 2023. The research used a snowball sampling method, where the first participants were contacted through personal and work connections. They were then asked to forward the questionnaire to other employees who had experience with remote or on-site work. This method allowed for the gradual expansion of the sample and enabled the inclusion of participants from various sectors, age groups, and regions. The questionnaire was distributed via online platforms, including social media (LinkedIn, Facebook), email invitations, and internal communication channels of selected organizations. Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

In total, 772 individuals participated in the survey. Based on the form of work, respondents were divided into two groups: 214 employees worked from home (fully or

partially), and 558 employees worked on-site. The sample included participants from various sectors: retail and wholesale trade (37.5%), public administration (21.5%), IT sector (17,3%) financial services (13,5%) and others (10,2%). The diversity of sectors was considered important, as the nature and feasibility of remote work vary significantly across industries. Regarding the demographic composition, 58.5% of respondents were male and 41.5% female. The largest proportions were in the 46–50 age group (24.1%) and the 41–45 group (16.8%), while the smallest was in the under-18 group (0.1%) (Table 1).

Table 1. Research sample

Characteristic		**% of the Sample**
Gender	Female	41,50%
	Male	58,50%
Age	under 18	0,10%
	19-25	8,00%
	26-30	10,40%
	31-35	12,60%
	36-40	12,70%
	41-45	16,80%
	46-50	24,10%
	over 51	15,30%

Source: *based on the author's calculations, 2025*

To assess workplace well-being, the research used the Workplace PERMA-Profiler, a standardized questionnaire developed by and Butler and Kern (2016). The foundation of the questionnaire is Martin Seligman's Positive Psychology Model, which outlines five pillars of personal well-being: positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment (PERMA). However, this original model was not fully suitable for measuring well-being in the workplace. Butler and Kern expanded and adapted the model to fit organizational contexts, resulting in the Workplace PERMA-Profiler. This revised questionnaire measures workplace well-being across 10 dimensions using a total of 23 items. The first five dimensions (positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment) are derived from Seligman's original model. The remaining five (negative emotion, health, loneliness, happiness, and the PERMA average) were introduced by Butler and Kern. It is important to note that the PERMA average is not a separate dimension but a composite score based on the first five pillars. Negative emotion, loneliness, and happiness serve as supplementary indicators to provide a more nuanced understanding of well-being.

The questionnaire exists in two versions; in this study, the general (non-leadership) version was used. All items were rated on a 0–10 Likert scale (0 = not at all true of me, 10 = completely true of me). The use of a 10-point scale enabled more nuanced comparisons between individuals, which aligned with the study's aim to explore subjective differences in employee experiences.

In addition to the standardized scale, the questionnaire also included open-ended and multiple-choice questions addressing the perceived advantages and disadvantages of working from home. These allowed for the inclusion of qualitative data, providing richer insight into participants' subjective experiences.

3. Results

The emergence of the coronavirus pandemic and the economic crisis hit many parts of the world hard. Jobs, the labour market, employment and the economy were all severely affected. The potential advantages and disadvantages of working from home were analysed along eight propositions, the results of which are presented in *Table 2* in the form of statistical indicators and in *Figures 1 and 2* in the form of graphs.

Table 2. The potential advantages and disadvantages of working from home

		The quality of my work improved while working from home	Flexible scheduling produced more productive work	Working from home meant an increase in accuracy, concentration and immersion in work.	The "lure of home comforts" did not affect my performance	Working from home did not change the availability of employees	The work-life balance was not threatened by the form of working at home	My physical and mental health also improved while working at home	Work stress, anxiety and nervousness decreased when working from home
N	Valid	214	214	214	214	214	214	214	214
	Missing	558	558	558	558	558	558	558	558
Mean		7.57	7.93	7.77	4.21	5.58	3.06	8.23	8.27
Median		9.00	9.00	9.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	9.00	9.00
Mode		9	9	9	2	5	2	9	10
Std. Deviation		2.526	2.286	2.422	3.061	2.566	3.069	2.364	2.480
Minimum		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maximum		10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

Source: *own research, 2025*

Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the results of the statements on the form of working from home. The survey asked respondents to indicate on a Likert scale from 0 to 10 how much they agreed with the statement. Scale scores ranged from '0= strongly disagree' to '10= strongly agree'.

The first statement is that working from home improves the quality of work. A significant proportion of respondents agreed with this statement. The most common response was a scale of 9, which was marked by 37.4% of respondents. The results show an improving trend for the majority of respondents in terms of the quality of work done at home.

The second statement links flexible working hours to more productive work. Flexible working hours can nowadays even be a condition for more effective work. The results for the second statement also reflect that flexible schedules produce more efficient work. 81.8% of respondents indicated a scale of 7 to 10, indicating their agreement with the validity of the following statement. In conclusion, the results further reinforce the fact that today's flexible schedules are of great importance for more productive work.

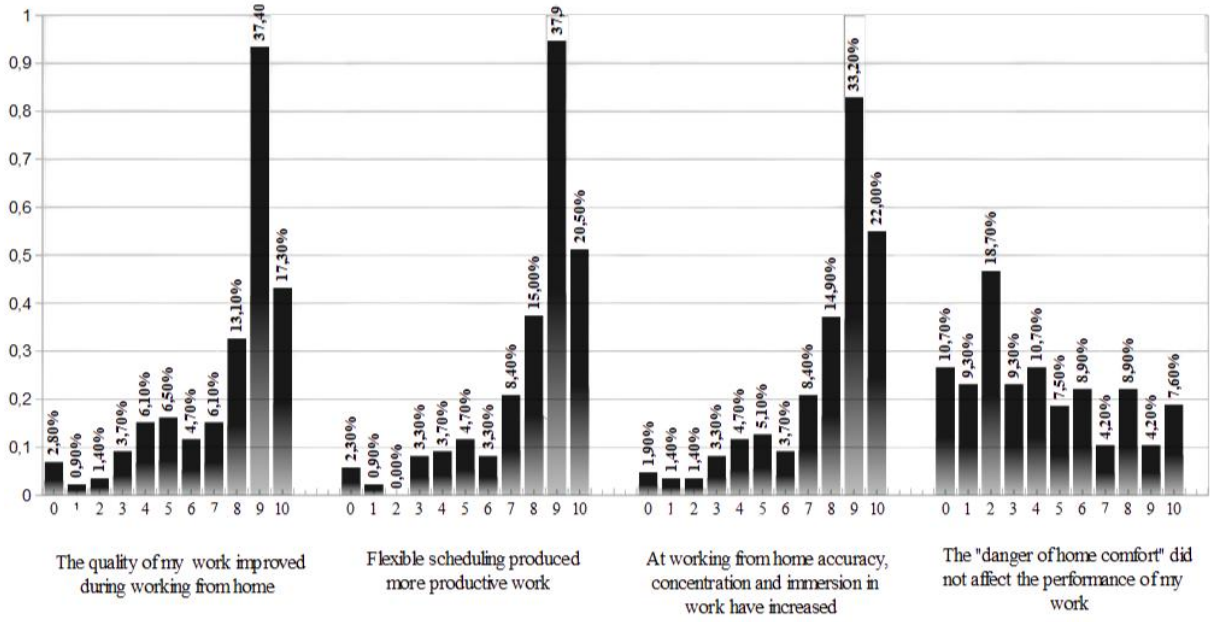

Figure 1. Advantages and disadvantages of working from home
Source: own research, 2025

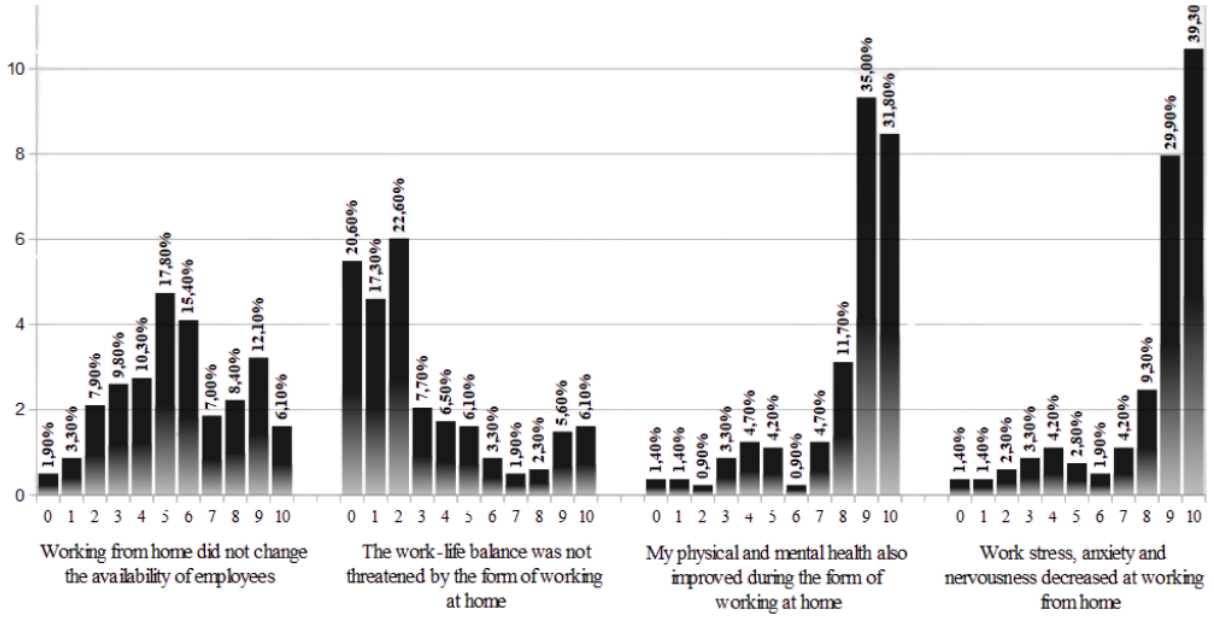

Figure 2. Advantages and disadvantages of working from home
Source: own research, 2025

The third claim examines the validity of the finding that working from home enhances punctuality, concentration and reflection on work. For the sample surveyed, the majority of respondents (78.5%) agreed with this statement. The most frequently indicated response was a 9 on the scale (33.2%). The results show that other benefits of working from home include increased concentration, immersion and punctuality.

The fourth statement was that working at home did not pose a "threat to comfort at home". There is a large body of research and literature to support the notion that individuals

tend to become complacent in the home environment and forget to meet deadlines at work (Bánhidi, 2022). In the case of working from home, employers often fear that their employees may easily fall into this comfort trap. Similar to what is described in the literature, the "home comfort threat" is presented as a disadvantage of home-office in the sample studied. 48% of the respondents indicated that their work was affected by the "home comfort threat", scoring between 0 and 3 on the scale.

The fifth claim is that working from home has no impact on the availability of employees. Working from home can be affected and disrupted by a number of unplanned, unexpected events. In an office or on-site environment, the availability of staff is a given, but in a remote home environment, the flow of information can be disrupted by a number of factors (Ford et. al., 2021). Our respondents also expressed a wide range of views on this topic. The majority of respondents moderately agreed with statement 5 (17.8%). The remaining responses were varied, ranging from a scale score of 0-4 to a scale score of 7-10. Based on the results, it is difficult to make unanimous statements and conclusions about statement 5.

The sixth statement addresses a long-debated issue of whether or not working from home is a threat to work-life balance. This factor is unanimously cited in most of the literature as a disadvantage of the home office (Hill et al., 2003). Our findings similarly support the literature's assumptions that working in a home environment is a major contributor to work-life imbalance. For 68.2% of respondents (scale 0-3), working at home was detrimental to work-life balance. The results show that for the majority of respondents, working from home had a negative impact on their work-life balance.

The seventh statement was that working from home contributes to improving mental and physical health. Several literatures argue that working at home can in many cases lead to mental and physical development and improvement (Dujay, 2022; Suh & Lee, 2017). There was a high level of agreement with statement 7, with 78.5% of respondents indicating that they had experienced physical and mental improvement from working at home. They indicated a scale score between 8 and 10.

The eighth and final statement was that there is a reduction in stress, anxiety and nervousness when working in a home environment. 78.5% of the respondents indicated scores between 8 and 10 on the scale, indicating that there was less stress, anxiety and nervousness at work when working at home.

In summary, the findings of the present study indicate that the perceived advantages of working from home outweigh the disadvantages. The data reveal that employees generally associate remote work with several positive outcomes, such as improved work quality, greater flexibility in scheduling, as well as benefits to physical and mental well-being. Additionally, many respondents reported a reduction in work-related stress, anxiety, and nervousness. Conversely, some challenges related to the home environment were also identified, including distractions stemming from the comfort of the home and potential difficulties in maintaining work-life boundaries. The availability of colleagues were viewed neutrally, reflecting mixed perceptions about remote work’s impact on workplace relationships.

The rest of the study contains the hypothesis testing process and results. According to the research hypothesis, there is a significant relationship between the form of working from home and overall well-being at work. The hypothesis suggests, among other things, that working from home has a positive effect on the achievement of general well-being. The hypothesis was analysed using the two-sample independent t-test in SPSS. The first criterion for the applicability of the test was to perform a normality test. The second condition is the test for homogeneity of variance, which is provided by Fisher's F-test. The SPSS program performs the F-test and the t-test simultaneously. In the two-sample independent t-test, the means of the responses of two different groups were compared using the *Workplace PERMA-Profiler*

sample. One group consisted of those working from home (214), while the other segment was the 'commuters' camp (558).

Table 3. Group statistics (work from office)

Group statistics					
		N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
PERMA average	Work from home	214	**6.12**	1.852	0.127
	Work from office	558	**5.83**	1.568	0.066
Positive emotions	Work from home	214	5.69	2.009	0.137
	Work from office	558	5.42	1.704	0.072
Engagement	Work from home	214	5.93	2.213	0.151
	Work from office	558	5.35	1.985	0.084
Relationships	Work from home	214	5.88	1.987	0.136
	Work from office	558	5.86	1.643	0.070
Meaning	Work from home	214	6.76	1.946	0.133
	Work from office	558	6.47	1.707	0.072
Accomplishment	Work from home	214	6.40	1.841	0.126
	Work from office	558	6.05	1.607	0.068
Negative emotions	Work from home	214	6.36	2.325	0.159
	Work from office	558	5.81	2.111	0.089
Health	Work from home	214	6.38	1.788	0.122
	Work from office	558	6.33	1.667	0.071
Loneliness	Work from home	214	5.56	2.938	0.201
	Work from office	558	5.31	2.578	0.109
Happiness	Work from home	214	5.94	2.267	0.155
	Work from office	558	5.79	1.820	0.077

Source: *own research, 2025*

Table 3 illustrates the mean and standard deviation of the *Workplace PERMA-Profiler* sample factors for home- and teleworkers. The first, and most important variable, is the mean and variance of overall well-being at work across the groups studied. For those working in a workplace setting, the average general well-being at work is 5.83 with a standard deviation of 1.56, while for those working in a home-based work setting, this value increased to 6.12. The difference between the averages is not very significant, but it does provide evidence that individuals working from home have, on average, higher levels of well-being at work than those working in a site-based work environment. To test our hypothesis, the results of the '*PERMA average*' factor in Table 3 are key. The results for the other factors of the *Workplace PERMA-Profiler* are complementary in terms of the means and variances. We can learn important information about which factor mean scores better for which group in terms of achieving well-being at work.

After the descriptive statistical analysis, the support of hypothesis is investigated by the two-sample t-test procedure. The study seeks to answer the question whether the difference in means between the groups studied is merely due to chance or whether there is a real correlation in the evolution of the results. Significant correlation can be said to exist in cases where $p<0.05$. In the light of this, the analyses are based on a 95% confidence level and a probability of error of 0.5%.

Table 4. Independent Samples Test of the examined variables

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
PERMA average	Equal variances assumed	17.282	0.000	2.193	770	**0.029**	0.291	0.133	0.030	0.552
	Equal variances not assumed			2.037	336.457	0.042	0.291	0.143	0.010	0.572
Positive emotions	Equal variances assumed	14.359	0.000	1.845	770	**0.065**	0.266	0.144	-0.017	0.549
	Equal variances not assumed			1.715	336.978	0.087	0.266	0.155	-0.039	0.571
Engagement	Equal variances assumed	6.546	0.011	3.520	770	**0.000**	0.580	0.165	0.257	0.904
	Equal variances not assumed			3.354	351.944	0.001	0.580	0.173	0.240	0.921
Relationships	Equal variances assumed	12.794	0.000	0.122	770	**0.903**	0.017	0.140	-0.258	0.293
	Equal variances not assumed			0.112	330.669	0.911	0.017	0.153	-0.283	0.317
Meaning	Equal variances assumed	11.250	0.001	2.092	770	**0.037**	0.299	0.143	0.018	0.579
	Equal variances not assumed			1.974	345.807	0.049	0.299	0.151	0.001	0.597
Accomplishment	Equal variances assumed	9.407	0.002	2.539	770	**0.011**	0.342	0.135	0.078	0.606
	Equal variances not assumed			2.390	344.437	0.017	0.342	0.143	0.061	0.623
Negative emotions	Equal variances assumed	3.127	0.077	3.138	770	**0.002**	0.548	0.175	0.205	0.891
	Equal variances not assumed			3.006	355.407	0.003	0.548	0.182	0.189	0.907
Health	Equal variances assumed	3.658	0.056	0.374	770	**0.709**	0.051	0.137	-0.217	0.320
	Equal variances not assumed			0.362	363.197	0.717	0.051	0.141	-0.226	0.329
Loneliness	Equal variances assumed	11.001	0.001	1.146	770	**0.252**	0.247	0.216	-0.176	0.671
	Equal variances not assumed			1.081	345.832	0.280	0.247	0.229	-0.202	0.697
Happiness	Equal variances assumed	20.594	0.000	0.925	770	**0.355**	0.145	0.157	-0.163	0.454
	Equal variances not assumed			0.840	323.816	0.402	0.145	0.173	-0.195	0.486

Source: *own research, 2025*

Table 4 presents the results of the *Workplace PERMA-Profiler* based two-sample independent samples t-test for the variables under study. The two-sample t-test provides confidence that the means of the variables in the sample under consideration are significantly different from each other. To find out whether the difference between the means is due to chance or not, the significance level was tested. In our case, the value "sig (2-tailed)" is the benchmark. As far as the research hypothesis is concerned, the results of the first factor in Table 4 *(Perma average*) are relevant. For the factor "general well-being", the difference between the means tested is significantly different ($p=0.029$; $p<0.05$). This means that the results of the 2 groups under study for the factor *"PERMA-average*" are not due to chance, but show a real correlation. When examining the means of the other factors in the *PERMA-Profiler* sample, significant differences were found for engagement ($p=0.000$), meaning ($p=0.037$), performance ($p=0.011$) and negative emotions ($p=0.002$). For the results of the other items in the sample, $p>0.05$, and in light of this, we cannot speak of a significant correlation.

The research hypothesis that there is a relationship between working at home and well-being at work is confirmed by the higher overall well-being level ($M=6.12$) measured in *Table 3* and the significance value of $p=0.029$ obtained in *Table 4*.

Discussion

The present study investigated the level of well-being at work of employees in Slovakia. The research conducted on the basis of the Workplace PERMA-Profiler model revealed detailed information on the set of factors (factors) that promote and inhibit well-being at work. The hypothesis testing showed that the overall well-being, is on average higher among home-based workers than among those working in a teleworking environment. The validity of the hypothesis was confirmed by the Perma average result in Table 3 ($6.12>5.83$) and the significance level of $p=0.029$ obtained in Table 4. The result of the hypothesis test proves that there is indeed a relationship between the form of working from home and the level of well-being at work of Slovak workers. The successful adoption of remote work arrangements required organizations to effectively manage employee resistance to organizational changes, as systematic diagnosis and management of change resistance is crucial for successful workplace transformations (Kuzhda, 2016). Other arguments in favor of working from home are: commitment to work, greater responsibility and efficiency, and higher performance. These factors were found to be associated with better results in a home working environment, when the level of significance is taken into account. There are often conflicting results in the literature on the effectiveness of the home office. The results of the present research add to a growing body of studies that report on the positive effects of working from home on well-being at work, such as Kardos et al. (2020), Windeler et al. (2017), Kossek et al. (2006) and Dutcher (2012).

Further results of the survey conducted add useful information to the list of advantages and disadvantages of working from home. Similar to the research of Dujay (2022) and Gajendran and Harrison (2007), the results are consistent on several points regarding the positive effects of the home office. These benefits include: the principle of flexibility-efficiency, physical and mental development, stronger concentration and accuracy, better performance, and improved quality of work. The results suggest two strong phenomena as disadvantages of the home office. For the sample studied, the "threat of home comfort" and "disruption of work-life balance" were identified as the main risks of working from home. In the literature, as in the present study, work-life imbalance is most often cited as a disadvantage of the home office (Jostell & Hamlin, 2018; Hill et al., 2003).

Conclusions

Overall, the research conducted on a sample from Slovakia shows that there is a significant association between working from home and enhanced well-being at work. For the sample studied, the degree of well-being at work in both home and workplace environments is stronger than medium, but higher among those working from home.

'Well-being' is a time-varying state that needs to be measured at certain intervals. External influences such as the emergence of the coronavirus and the economic crisis have all had an impact on well-being and have unintentionally changed it. A limitation of the research is that it is a one-off survey in one country, Slovakia.

For future research, it would be worthwhile to extend the survey to an international level, including more European countries, in order to get a picture of the relationship between work at home and well-being at work at an international level.

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