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THE FINANCIAL BEHAVIOUR AND FINANCIAL WELL-BEING OF WORK-FROM-HOME AND HYBRID EMPLOYEES IN INDIA

A Study of Saving, Spending, Investment and Financial Management Patterns

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Abstract : Work-from-home (WFH) and hybrid arrangements have become a lasting feature of employment in India, changing how salaried employees save, spend, invest and manage their money. This study examines the financial behaviour of WFH and hybrid employees in India, assesses their level of financial well-being (FWB), and tests whether saving, spending, investment and financial management behaviour influence FWB and whether FWB is related to social well-being (SWB). Primary data were collected through a structured online questionnaire, and 224 valid responses were analysed using descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha, correlation and linear regression (SmartPLS 4 regression module, with Python used for verification and charts). Respondents reported a moderate level of FWB (mean = 3.10 on a five-point scale; 75.0% in the moderate band), and financial management behaviour had the highest mean among the behaviours (3.69). Saving, spending and investment behaviour did not significantly influence FWB ($R^2 = .004$; all $p > .05$), and financial management behaviour also had no significant effect ($\beta = .076$, $p = .259$). FWB had a small but statistically significant positive relationship with SWB ($\beta = .147$, $p = .027$, $R^2 = .022$). The internal consistency of the multi-item scales was low (Cronbach's alpha between .046 and .493), so the findings should be read as exploratory. The results suggest that day-to-day financial behaviours alone do not explain how financially secure employees feel, and that employers and policymakers may need to consider structural factors such as income adequacy, debt and home-office allowances alongside behavioural support.

IndexTerms **- Financial well-being, Saving behaviour, Spending behaviour, Investment behaviour, Financial management, Social well-being, Work-from-home, Hybrid employees, India.**

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid, pandemic-driven shift to work-from-home (WFH) and hybrid work has proved to be a lasting feature of modern labour markets rather than a temporary emergency measure. Survey evidence from the United States suggests that roughly one in five full workdays is now supplied from home, compared with about one in twenty before the pandemic (Barrero, Bloom and Davis, 2021). In India, the information technology and IT-enabled services (IT/ITES) sector, along with banking, financial services and professional services firms, has moved a large share of its workforce into fully remote or hybrid arrangements, and questions about who bears the costs of the home workplace have entered public debate in cities such as Bengaluru.

This shift has changed the way employees earn, spend and save. Studies report lower commuting, wardrobe and eating-out expenses for remote workers (Rajeshwari and Deepali, 2023; Beno, 2021), alongside new household costs such as electricity, internet connectivity, power back-up and home-office equipment that were previously borne by the employer. Whether the money released by WFH is saved, invested, spent on lifestyle items or absorbed by new costs depends largely on the financial behaviour of the individual employee, and conceptual work argues that these gains are realised only through deliberate financial planning (PiSit, 2024).

Financial behaviour matters because it is one of the routes through which income is converted into financial well-being (FWB), that is, the extent to which a person feels able to meet current obligations, absorb shocks and feel secure about the future. FWB is also associated with broader well-being, including how socially connected, accepted and useful people feel. This study therefore examines the saving, spending, investment and financial management behaviour of WFH and hybrid employees in India, assesses their level of FWB, tests the influence of the four behaviours on FWB, and examines the relationship between FWB and social well-being (SWB). The remainder of the paper reviews the literature (Section II), describes the methodology (Section III), presents and discusses the results (Section IV), and ends with the conclusion, limitations and future scope (Sections V and VI).

II. Literature Review and Research Gap

A. Theoretical Background

Four ideas anchor the study. The Behavioural Life-Cycle Hypothesis (Shefrin and Thaler, 1988) argues that households do not treat all money as interchangeable and rely on mental accounts and self-control rules to decide how much to spend, save and invest; because WFH removes cues that structure spending (the commute, the office canteen) and adds new temptations such as round-the-clock online shopping, it helps explain why saving and spending behaviour may change under remote work. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) holds that behaviour follows intention, which is shaped by attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control, so budgeting, expense tracking, regular saving and investment planning can be treated as planned behaviours and as antecedents of financial outcomes. The financial well-being framework (Brüggen et al., 2017; Netemeyer et al., 2018) defines FWB as the perceived ability to meet current and future financial obligations and to feel financially secure, shaped by financial behaviours among other factors and related to overall well-being. Finally, Keyes (1998) defines social well-being as the appraisal of one's circumstances and functioning in society, comprising social integration, acceptance, contribution, actualisation and coherence, which provides the outcome construct for the final objective.

B. Review of Related Studies

The fifteen studies reviewed fall into four streams. The first quantifies the cost savings available under remote work. Beno (2021) calculates potential employee savings in housing, commuting and daily beverage spending, Bir, Jung and Widmar (2026) link WFH preference to reduced spending on attire, grooming and commuting, and Rajeshwari and Deepali (2023) found in a survey of 200 IT professionals in Bangalore that WFH reduced commuting, wardrobe and eating-out expenses, although income level was not significantly associated with the effect on expenses and savings ($p = 0.831$). These studies show that meaningful savings exist but do not follow the money to see whether it is saved, invested or spent.

The second stream examines well-being and preferences under remote and hybrid work. Klopotek (2017) and Mierzejewska, Wozniak-Jasinska and Chomicki (2024) find that flexibility and the economic and time savings from reduced commuting are among the most valued advantages, and Al Mohamed, Al Mohamed and Alebrahem (2024) link remote work to better job performance among finance professionals. Well-being in these studies is, however, measured in general terms and not as financial well-being.

The third stream addresses the employer side. Licite-Kurbe and Leonovica (2021) show that employer savings from remote work vary by industry and job type, and Cwiakala et al. (2025) report that 65.3% of organisations see no additional cost from remote or hybrid work. This raises the concern that home-office costs sit with employees, but the employee perspective is not measured; PiSit (2024) argues conceptually that savings should be channelled into emergency funds and long-term goals through planning, without primary evidence. The fourth stream is the financial and social well-being literature (Keyes, 1998; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2014; Brüggen et al., 2017; Xiao and Porto, 2017; Netemeyer et al., 2018), which shows that financial behaviour and capability are associated with subjective financial outcomes and that FWB is related to overall well-being, but largely outside the remote-work context.

C. Research Gap and Research Questions

Three gaps emerge. First, evidence on WFH finances concentrates on cost savings and preferences, and few studies connect employees' actual saving, spending, investment and money-management behaviour to FWB. Second, no reviewed study tests the four behaviours together as antecedents of FWB for WFH and hybrid employees in India, and the pathway from FWB to SWB has not been examined for this group. Third, Indian employee-level evidence is confined to a single city and industry (Rajeshwari and Deepali, 2023). The study therefore asks: (RQ1) What are the saving, spending, investment and financial management behaviours of WFH and hybrid employees in India? (RQ2) What is their level of FWB? (RQ3) Do saving, spending and investment behaviour significantly influence FWB? (RQ4) Does financial management behaviour significantly influence FWB? (RQ5) Is FWB significantly related to SWB?

III. Research Methodology

A. Objectives and Hypotheses

The aim of the study is to examine the financial behaviour of WFH and hybrid employees in India and assess its influence on FWB and SWB. The five objectives are: (1) to examine the saving, spending, investment and financial management behaviour of WFH and hybrid employees; (2) to assess their level of FWB; (3) to examine the influence of saving, spending and investment behaviour on FWB; (4) to assess the influence of financial management behaviour on FWB; and (5) to examine the relationship between FWB and SWB. For each hypothesis the null (H0) states that there is no significant effect or relationship; the alternatives are H1: saving behaviour has a significant influence on FWB; H2: spending behaviour has a significant influence on FWB; H3: investment behaviour has a significant influence on FWB; H4: financial management behaviour has a significant positive influence on FWB; and H5: FWB has a significant positive relationship with SWB.

B. Research Design, Sample and Data Collection

The study follows a quantitative, descriptive and explanatory cross-sectional design based on primary survey data. The target population is salaried employees in India who work under fully remote or hybrid arrangements, and purposive and convenience sampling was used. A structured questionnaire was administered online through Google Forms between 1 and 31 July 2026, and 224 valid responses were retained after screening for completeness and consistency. The sample comfortably exceeds the rule of thumb of ten observations per predictor, and a power analysis ($\alpha = 0.05$, power = 0.80; Cohen, 1988) shows that 224 observations can detect effects of about $f^2 = 0.05$ in the three-predictor model and $f^2 = 0.036$ in the single-predictor models. The sample is therefore adequate for medium and moderately small effects but can miss very small ones.

Table 1 describes the respondents. Fully remote employees (61.6%) outnumber hybrid employees (38.4%); 61.6% are aged 25 to 44; and men (52.7%) and women (43.8%) are both well represented. IT/ITES is the largest sector (34.8%), followed by banking, financial services and insurance (16.5%). About 61% earn between Rs.25,001 and Rs.1,00,000 a month, and 73.2% receive at least partial financial support or allowances from their employer.

Table 1 Profile of respondents (n = 224)

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Work arrangement	Fully remote	138	61.6
	Hybrid	86	38.4
Gender	Male	118	52.7
	Female	98	43.8
	Other / prefer not to say	8	3.6
Monthly personal income	Below Rs.25,000	37	16.5
	Rs.25,001–Rs.50,000	69	30.8
	Rs.50,001–Rs.1,00,000	68	30.4
	Rs.1,00,001–Rs.2,00,000	36	16.1
	Above Rs.2,00,000	14	6.3
Employer financial support	Yes, fully	64	28.6
	Yes, partially	100	44.6
	No	60	26.8

Source: Primary survey data (n = 224).

C. Measurement

Part A of the questionnaire recorded 11 profile questions (work arrangement, age, gender, income, industry, experience, time in the current arrangement, days working from home, marital status, dependants and employer support). Part B contained 24 statements, four for each of six constructs, rated on a five-point Likert scale: saving behaviour (SAV), spending behaviour (SPD), investment behaviour (INV), financial management behaviour (FMB), FWB and SWB. The behavioural constructs were derived from regular saving, emergency fund, saving discipline and short- and long-term saving (SAV); essential, discretionary, online and lifestyle spending (SPD); investment frequency, preferences, risk tolerance, diversification and planning (INV); and budgeting, financial planning, debt management and expense tracking (FMB). FWB covers financial security, ability to meet obligations, emergency preparedness, financial stress and confidence about the future, and SWB covers social integration, acceptance, contribution, actualisation and coherence. Seven negatively worded items (SAV6, SPD4, SPD7, INV7, FMB8, FWB4 and SWB5) were reverse-scored (6 minus the response), so that a higher score always indicates a more favourable or higher level of the construct, and each construct score is the mean of its four items. To describe levels, scores were classified into low (1.00–2.33), moderate (2.34–3.66) and high (3.67–5.00) bands.

D. Analytical Framework

The conceptual framework (Fig. 1) treats the four behaviours as antecedents of FWB and FWB as an antecedent of SWB, drawing on Brüggen et al. (2017), Netemeyer et al. (2018), Ajzen (1991) and Keyes (1998). Descriptive statistics, one-sample t-tests against the scale midpoint of 3, Cronbach's alpha and Pearson correlations were used for the descriptive objectives, and ordinary least squares regression on the composite construct scores was used to test the hypotheses, using the regression module of SmartPLS 4 (Ringle, Wende and Becker, 2024). The regression results were independently reproduced in Python and matched to at least three decimal places. The three models are given in Eq. 1 to Eq. 3.

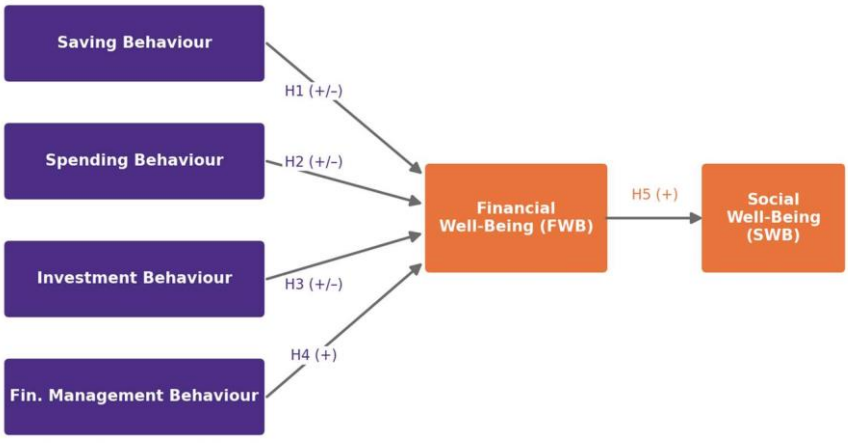


Fig. 1 Conceptual framework of the study

$$FWB = \beta_0 + \beta_1 SAV + \beta_2 SPD + \beta_3 INV + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

$$FWB = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FMB + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

$$SWB = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FWB + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

Eq. 1 (Model 1) addresses Objective 3, Eq. 2 (Model 2) Objective 4 and Eq. 3 (Model 3) Objective 5. For each predictor the unstandardised (B) and standardised (β) coefficients, standard error, t-value, p-value and 95% confidence interval are reported, together with R^2, adjusted R^2 and the F-test. Diagnostics comprised variance inflation factors (VIF), the Durbin-Watson statistic, the Breusch-Pagan test and the Cramér-von Mises test of residual normality. All tests are two-tailed at the 5% level.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. Data Screening and Reliability

The response file contained 224 records with no missing values, no duplicate records and no respondent who gave the same answer to all 24 items. One entry outside the response scale (FWB6 = 6) was set to 5, which changes the FWB mean by about 0.001, and all seven reverse-scored items matched the 6-minus-response rule. Internal consistency was low for every construct (Table 2): Cronbach's alpha ranged from .046 (financial management behaviour) to .493 (investment behaviour), well below the conventional threshold of 0.70 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Each behavioural construct pools different sub-behaviours, so it behaves more like an index than a reflective scale, and alpha is not the ideal criterion for it (Hair et al., 2022). Even so, low reliability means the composite scores contain a large share of measurement error, which weakens observed relationships, so the results should be treated as exploratory. One FWB item ("I could handle a large unexpected expense") has a mean of 1.99 against 3.42 to 3.54 for the other three, with 77.2% of respondents disagreeing, and it is almost uncorrelated with the rest of the scale.

Table 2 Reliability of the construct scales

Construct	Items	Cronbach's α	Mean inter-item r	Meets 0.70?
Saving behaviour (SAV)	4	.435	.157	No
Spending behaviour (SPD)	4	.344	.112	No
Investment behaviour (INV)	4	.493	.194	No
Financial management behaviour (FMB)	4	.046	.012	No
Financial well-being (FWB)	4	.246	.071	No
Social well-being (SWB)	4	.178	.046	No

Source: Primary survey data (n = 224); computed in Python.

B. Financial Behaviour of Employees (Objective 1)

Table 3 gives the mean, standard deviation and skewness of each construct with the share of respondents in each band, and Fig. 2 shows the means. Financial management behaviour has the highest mean (3.69), and 138 respondents (61.6%) fall in the high band, indicating that most employees report budgeting, planning and expense-tracking habits. Investment behaviour follows (3.23), while saving (3.11) and spending behaviour (3.10) sit only slightly above the scale midpoint. One-sample t-tests show that all four means differ significantly from 3 (SAV: $t = 2.94$, $p = .004$; SPD: $t = 2.58$, $p = .010$; INV: $t = 5.12$, $p < .001$; FMB: $t = 22.01$, $p < .001$), but for saving and spending the gap is only about 0.1 of a scale point, so these behaviours are best described as moderate. Financial management behaviour is negatively skewed (−0.67), only 3 respondents (1.3%) are in its low band, and its standard deviation (0.47) is the lowest of the six constructs, so it varies little across employees; this matters for Objective 4.

Table 3 Descriptive statistics and level classification of the constructs (n = 224)

Construct	Mean	SD	Skew.	Low n (%)	Moderate n (%)	High n (%)
Saving behaviour (SAV)	3.11	0.58	0.20	24 (10.7)	157 (70.1)	43 (19.2)
Spending behaviour (SPD)	3.10	0.61	−0.09	27 (12.1)	157 (70.1)	40 (17.9)
Investment behaviour (INV)	3.23	0.67	−0.11	25 (11.2)	135 (60.3)	64 (28.6)
Financial management (FMB)	3.69	0.47	−0.67	3 (1.3)	83 (37.1)	138 (61.6)
Financial well-being (FWB)	3.10	0.55	−0.34	22 (9.8)	168 (75.0)	34 (15.2)
Social well-being (SWB)	3.26	0.53	−0.20	9 (4.0)	160 (71.4)	55 (24.6)

Bands: low = 1.00–2.33, moderate = 2.34–3.66, high = 3.67–5.00. Source: Primary survey data (n = 224); SmartPLS 4 and Python.

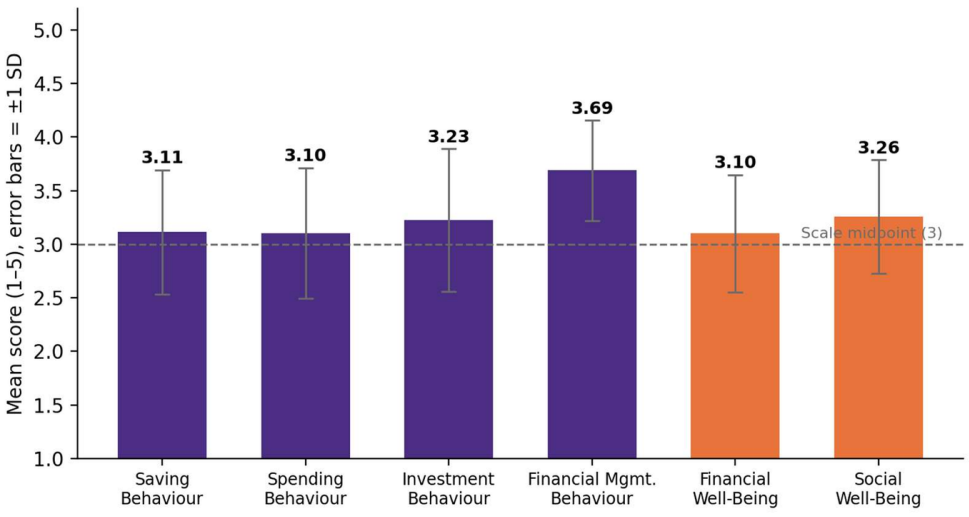


Fig. 2 Mean scores of the behaviour and well-being constructs (error bars = ±1 SD)

C. Level of Financial Well-Being (Objective 2)

FWB has a mean of 3.10 (SD = 0.55), a moderate level that is slightly but significantly above the midpoint ($t = 2.71$, $p = .007$). Of the respondents, 168 (75.0%) are in the moderate band, 34 (15.2%) in the high band and 22 (9.8%) in the low band, so most employees neither feel clearly financially secure nor clearly insecure. SWB is somewhat higher (mean = 3.26). Within FWB, respondents are moderately positive about feeling financially secure (mean 3.42), not being stressed about money (3.45) and being

confident about their financial future (3.54), but 77.2% disagree that they could handle a large unexpected expense (mean 1.99), which points to thin emergency buffers.

D. Influence of Financial Behaviour on FWB (Objectives 3 and 4)

Table 4 reports the regression results. In Model 1, saving (β = .036, p = .594), spending (β = .027, p = .690) and investment behaviour (β = .037, p = .587) have no significant influence on FWB; together they explain only 0.4% of its variance (adjusted R^2 = −.009), and the model is not significant (F(3, 220) = 0.31, p = .821). H1, H2 and H3 are therefore not supported. VIF values between 1.02 and 1.05 show that the null result does not come from multicollinearity, and the confidence intervals show that the data are compatible only with very small effects: a one-point rise in any of the three behaviour scores is associated with a change in FWB of between about −0.10 and +0.16 points. In Model 2, financial management behaviour has a positive but non-significant effect on FWB (B = 0.088, β = .076, t = 1.13, p = .259) and explains 0.6% of its variance, so H4 is not supported. The direction of the coefficient agrees with the expectation that budgeting, planning and expense tracking support FWB, but the evidence is not strong enough to conclude that an effect exists. Financial management behaviour is concentrated at the upper end of the scale and its four items hang together very weakly (α = .046), so there is little variation and much noise with which to detect an effect. Even when all four behaviours are entered together in an exploratory model, none is significant (R^2 = .009, F(4, 219) = 0.49, p = .741).

Table 4 Regression results for Models 1 to 3

Predictor	B	SE	β	t	p	95% CI (B)
Model 1: dependent variable FWB						
Saving behaviour	0.034	0.064	.036	0.53	.594	[−0.093, 0.161]
Spending behaviour	0.025	0.061	.027	0.40	.690	[−0.096, 0.145]
Investment behaviour	0.031	0.057	.037	0.54	.587	[−0.081, 0.142]
Model 2: dependent variable FWB						
Financial management behaviour	0.088	0.078	.076	1.13	.259	[−0.066, 0.243]
Model 3: dependent variable SWB						
Financial well-being	0.143	0.064	.147	2.22	.027	[0.016, 0.270]

Model 1: R^2 = .004, adjusted R^2 = −.009, F(3, 220) = 0.31, p = .821. Model 2: R^2 = .006, adjusted R^2 = .001, F(1, 222) = 1.28, p = .259. Model 3: R^2 = .022, adjusted R^2 = .017, F(1, 222) = 4.93, p = .027, f^2 = .022. Constants omitted. The p-values of F were recomputed from the F distribution because the SmartPLS ANOVA output reported values that did not correspond to the stated degrees of freedom; the tests on individual coefficients are unaffected. Source: Primary survey data (n = 224); SmartPLS 4, verified in Python.

E. FWB and Social Well-Being (Objective 5)

In Model 3, FWB has a significant positive relationship with SWB (B = 0.143, SE = 0.064, β = .147, t = 2.22, p = .027; 95% CI [0.016, 0.270]), so H5 is supported: a one-point higher FWB score is associated with a 0.14-point higher SWB score. The effect is small, however. FWB explains 2.2% of the variance in SWB (adjusted R^2 = .017; f^2 = .022, just above Cohen's (1988) threshold of 0.02 for a small effect), and it is the only relationship in the study that is statistically significant (Fig. 3). Among the correlations examined, saving behaviour and SWB were also correlated (r = .191, p = .004), but this was not hypothesised and would not remain significant after a Bonferroni adjustment for 15 correlations (threshold of about .003).

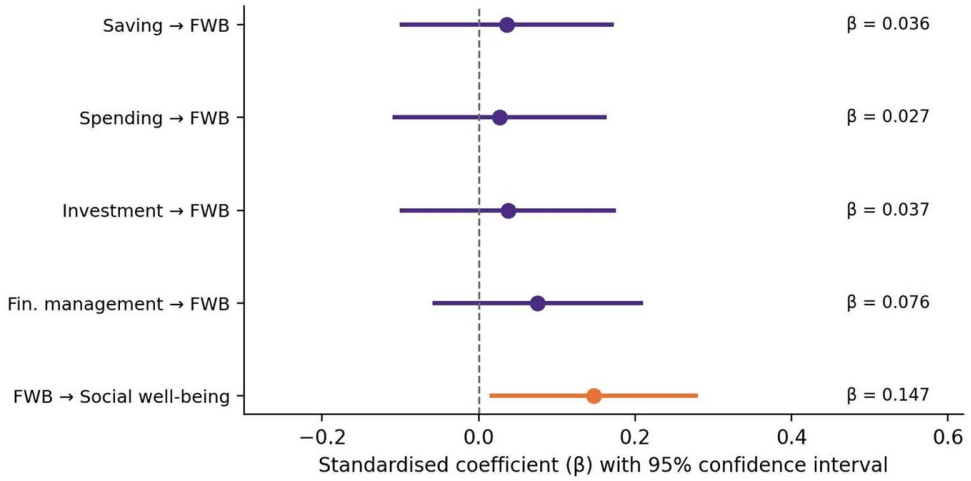


Fig. 3 Standardised regression coefficients with 95% confidence intervals

F. Hypothesis Testing Summary

Table 5 Summary of hypothesis testing

No.	Hypothesis	β	p-value	Decision
H1	Saving behaviour → financial well-being	.036	.594	Not supported
H2	Spending behaviour → financial well-being	.027	.690	Not supported
H3	Investment behaviour → financial well-being	.037	.587	Not supported
H4	Financial management behaviour → financial well-being	.076	.259	Not supported
H5	Financial well-being → social well-being	.147	.027	Supported

Source: Compiled from Table 4.

G. Model Diagnostics

The diagnostics show no multicollinearity (largest VIF = 1.05) and no heteroscedasticity (Breusch-Pagan p = .615, .478 and .819 for Models 1 to 3). Residuals of Models 1 and 2 depart from normality (Cramér-von Mises p = .001 and .003), although with 224 observations the coefficient tests are reasonably robust to this. Their Durbin-Watson values (1.03 and 1.02) point to positive residual autocorrelation in record order, which most likely reflects how the responses are ordered in the file, since the data are cross-sectional. Positive autocorrelation tends to understate standard errors and would make significant results easier to obtain, so it does not alter the conclusion that Models 1 and 2 show no significant effects. Model 3 has the best-behaved residuals (Durbin-Watson = 1.63; Cramér-von Mises p = .590).

H. Discussion in the Light of the Literature

The finding that none of the four behaviours significantly influences FWB is consistent with Netemeyer et al. (2018), who show that perceived FWB has a wider set of antecedents than behaviour alone, with Rajeshwari and Deepali (2023), who found no significant association between income and the effect of WFH on expenses and savings, and with PiSit (2024), who argues that the gains of remote work materialise only through deliberate planning. It does not confirm the expectation drawn from Xiao and Porto (2017) that behaviour is a channel to subjective financial outcomes, although the low reliability of the composite scores may have hidden a real but small effect. FWB is a perception that is also shaped by factors the behaviour scores do not capture, such as income adequacy, debt, dependants and financial knowledge (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2014).

The moderate levels of saving and spending behaviour agree with the mixed picture in the literature: remote work releases some costs (Beno, 2021; Rajeshwari and Deepali, 2023) but adds others, and the released money has to be channelled into savings. The small positive relationship between FWB and SWB is in line with Brüggen et al. (2017) and Netemeyer et al. (2018), who relate FWB to overall well-being, and with Mierzejewska et al. (2024), who link the economic advantages of remote work to subjective well-being. Finally, Barrero, Bloom and Davis (2021) show that the amenity value of remote work is skewed towards higher earners, and Cwiakala et al. (2025) report that most organisations see no additional cost. The present data cannot show who bears home-office costs, but 26.8% of respondents receive no employer support and 77.2% say they could not handle a large unexpected expense, which points to thin financial buffers for many remote and hybrid employees.

V. Conclusion and Implications

This study examined the saving, spending, investment and financial management behaviour of WFH and hybrid employees in India, their level of FWB, and the links between behaviour, FWB and SWB, using 224 survey responses. Employees report moderate saving, spending and investment behaviour, comparatively strong financial management behaviour and a moderate level of FWB. Contrary to the expectation that sound financial habits translate into FWB, none of the four behaviours had a statistically significant influence on FWB, and together they explained very little of its variance. FWB did, however, have a small and statistically significant positive relationship with SWB (β = .147, p = .027). These conclusions must be read against the low reliability of the composite scores and the convenience sample. What can be said with reasonable confidence is that, in this sample, the behaviours as measured are not strong predictors of how financially secure employees feel, and that if they matter at all, the effects are small.

For employers and HR teams, the results caution against assuming that financial-behaviour training alone will lift employees' FWB. Structural factors such as pay adequacy, allowances for home-office and utility costs, and debt burden may need equal attention, and because FWB is related to SWB, financial wellness support may also help with broader employee well-being. For researchers, the study highlights the importance of validated, reliable scales when measuring financial behaviour and well-being, since low reliability can mask real effects.

VI. Limitations and Future Scope

The findings should be read in light of several limitations. The Cronbach's alpha of every construct was well below 0.70, so the composite scores are noisy and the estimates are probably attenuated. Purposive and convenience sampling limits generalisation to all WFH and hybrid employees in India. The data are self-reported and cross-sectional, so causal direction cannot be established, particularly between FWB and SWB. The models explain only 0.4% to 2.2% of the variance and include no control variables such as income, age, marital status, dependants or debt; differences between fully remote and hybrid respondents were not tested, and there is no on-site comparison group. Finally, SmartPLS was used for regression on composite scores and not for full PLS-SEM with latent variables.

Future research could use validated and more reliable instruments, such as the CFPB Financial Well-Being Scale (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2015), with formative or index-based measurement for the behaviour constructs; use income, age, marital status, dependants, employer allowances, debt and financial literacy as controls, moderators or mediators; compare fully remote, hybrid and on-site employees; apply full PLS-SEM or covariance-based SEM to handle measurement error explicitly; use a larger, probability-based, multi-sector and ideally longitudinal sample; and supplement the survey with interviews on how employees actually use the savings and bear remote-work costs.

VII. Acknowledgment

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