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# When Flexibility Follows Employees Home: Remote-Work Latitude, Work-to-Life Spillover and the Paradoxical Role of Organisational Support in India's IT-Enabled Services Sector

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**Abstract:**

**Purpose:** This study examines whether the latitude to work remotely is associated with the spillover of work into personal life among employees of IT-enabled services (ITES) firms, whether techno-stress and boundary concerns explain this association, and whether organisational support weakens or strengthens it.

**Design/methodology/approach:** Survey data were collected from 104 ITES employees in Karnataka, India. Hierarchical regression, bootstrapped parallel mediation and moderated regression with simple-slope and Johnson–Neyman analyses were used.

**Findings:** Remote-work latitude was positively related to work interference with personal life ($\beta = .283$, $p = .004$), while the number of days worked from home was not. Techno-stress and boundary, isolation and career concerns did not mediate this relationship. Contrary to the buffering hypothesis, organisational support strengthened the relationship: latitude was associated with spillover only when support was moderate to high.

**Practical implications:** Flexibility and a caring climate do not by themselves protect employees' personal time. ITES firms need explicit norms on after-hours availability, and supervisors should actively encourage supported employees to disconnect.

**Originality/value:** The study separates the discretion to work remotely from the amount of remote work and provides evidence, consistent with social exchange theory, that organisational support can amplify rather than buffer the spillover of work into personal life.

**Keywords:** Remote work; work-life interference; organisational support; flexibility paradox; IT-enabled services; India

**Paper type:** Research paper

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Few occupational groups in India changed their way of working as quickly as employees of IT-enabled services (ITES) firms. Contact centres, back-office processing units and knowledge-process teams that had long been bound to secure office floors moved to home-based work within weeks in 2020, and most of them have since settled into some mix of office and home. Remote work is now a routine part of employment in the sector rather than an emergency measure, and firms advertise it as a benefit that helps employees look after their families and their own well-being.

Whether remote work actually protects personal life is less certain than this promise suggests. Research has long noted that the same arrangement that frees employees from commuting can also bring work into the home and keep it there (Golden et al., 2006; Russell et al., 2008). Studies of mobile technology describe an 'autonomy paradox', in which professionals who gain control over when and where they work end up working everywhere and all the time (Mazmanian et al., 2013). Chung (2022) has called this tendency the flexibility paradox, arguing that flexibility often leads to self-exploitation rather than to more free time. In India, studies carried out during and after the pandemic have reported long hours, technostress and a blurring of boundaries among employees who worked from home (Dutta & Mishra, 2023; Javad et al., 2023; Pillai & Prasad, 2022).

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Two questions have received less attention. The first is whether it is the amount of remote work, measured as days at home, or the discretion an employee has over remote work that matters for the spillover of work into personal life. The second concerns the role of the employer. It is usually assumed that organisational support, such as an understanding supervisor, clear policies and respect for off-hours, softens the strain of remote work (Kossek et al., 2022; Prasad & Satyaprasad, 2023). Social exchange theory, however, suggests another possibility: employees who feel well supported may repay the organisation by staying available and working beyond their hours, so that support could strengthen rather than weaken the reach of work into the home (Blau, 1964; Kelliher & Anderson, 2010).

This study examines these questions among 104 ITES employees in Karnataka, the State with the largest concentration of the industry in India. Its objectives are (a) to examine whether remote-work latitude is related to work interference with personal life over and above the number of days worked from home; (b) to test whether techno-stress and boundary-related concerns explain this relationship; and (c) to examine whether perceived organisational support changes the strength of the relationship. The study contributes to the literature by separating discretion from quantity in remote work, by testing two commonly proposed explanatory mechanisms, and by presenting evidence that support may intensify, rather than buffer, the spillover of work into the home.

## 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

### 2.1 Remote-work latitude and work-to-life spillover

Boundary theory views work and home as domains separated by boundaries that people build and maintain with varying degrees of firmness (Ashforth et al., 2000). Work/family border theory adds that the permeability and flexibility of these borders shape how easily demands from one domain enter the other (Clark, 2000). Remote work makes the border between work and home both more flexible and more permeable. The laptop on the dining table and the messaging application on the phone mean that work can be resumed at any moment, and the cues that once marked the end of the working day, such as the commute home, disappear.

From the perspective of conservation of resources theory, the ability to choose when to work from home should be a resource, because it saves time and energy that would otherwise be spent travelling (Hobfoll, 1989). The evidence, however, is mixed. Golden et al. (2006) found that telecommuting reduced work-to-family conflict but increased family-to-work conflict, and Russell et al. (2008) found that, unlike flexi-time and part-time work, working from home was associated with greater work pressure and work-life conflict among Irish employees. Kossek et al. (2006) showed that the effects of telecommuting depend on whether employees feel in control of their boundaries. Felstead and Henseke (2017) observed that remote workers in Britain reported higher effort and a greater inability to switch off. Among Indian IT employees, Prasad and Satyaprasad (2023) found no direct link between remote working and work-life balance once social support was considered.

We focus on remote-work latitude, meaning the extent to which employees are allowed to work from home when the work permits and are able to do so efficiently, rather than on the number of days actually spent at home. Latitude signals that the job can be done from anywhere. Where it is high, the expectation that work can be picked up from home at any hour is likely to be stronger, and the employee may find it harder to leave work behind. We therefore expect latitude, more than the mere count of home-working days, to be associated with work interference with personal life.

*H1: Remote-work latitude is positively related to work interference with personal life, after controlling for the number of days worked from home and for personal characteristics.*

### 2.2 Techno-stress and boundary concerns as explanatory mechanisms

The Job Demands–Resources model holds that job demands drain energy and lead to strain, while resources foster motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Remote work brings its own demands. Techno-stress refers to the strain created by information and communication technology, including pressure to be always reachable, work overload and the feeling of being monitored (Tarafdar et al., 2007). Dutta and Mishra (2023) showed that techno-overload and techno-invasion raised stress among Indian employees during the pandemic, and that a strong overlap of home and work made this effect worse. Remote workers may also face difficulty in separating work time from home time, isolation from colleagues and concerns that being out of sight will harm their careers (Wang et al., 2020). If remote-work latitude increases these demands, and these demands in turn spill over into personal life, they would explain the link proposed in H1.

*H2: Techno-stress (H2a) and boundary, isolation and career concerns (H2b) mediate the relationship between remote-work latitude and work interference with personal life.*

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### 2.3 The role of organisational support

Perceived organisational support refers to employees' beliefs about the extent to which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Most work-life research treats support as a resource that buffers the effect of demands. Supportive supervisors who understand family needs, clear and fair flexible work policies and respect for employees' right to be offline should help employees use remote work without letting it take over their personal lives (Kossek et al., 2022). Prasad and Satyaprasad (2023) found that social support turned remote work into a positive influence on balance among IT employees in Hyderabad.

An alternative argument follows from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Employees who feel valued and cared for by their organisation feel obliged to reciprocate. Kelliher and Anderson (2010) found that employees who were granted flexibility responded by working harder and more intensively, partly as a way of returning the favour. In a supportive remote-work setting, then, employees may make themselves more available, answer messages after hours and let work enter family time, not because they are forced to, but because they feel they owe it to the organisation. Cañibano (2018) described this as the paradoxical nature of flexibility in professional work. Because the two arguments lead to opposite predictions, we state the conventional buffering hypothesis and treat the opposite direction as a competing explanation.

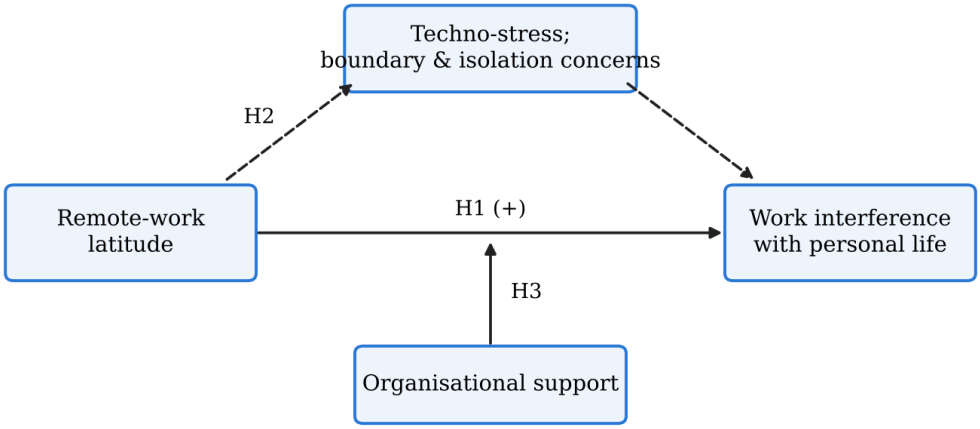
*H3: Organisational support moderates the relationship between remote-work latitude and work interference with personal life, such that the relationship is weaker when support is high.*

### 2.4 Remote work in the Indian ITES context

The ITES context sharpens these questions. Much ITES work is performed for clients in North America, Europe and Australia, so that the working day of an employee in Bengaluru or Mysuru often overlaps with the evening or night. Service-level agreements, quality audits and real-time dashboards make performance highly visible, and team members are commonly reachable through the same messaging tools whether they are in the office or at home. Indian studies carried out during and after the pandemic point to both sides of remote work in this setting. Deepa et al. (2022) found that the loss of social interaction reduced the effectiveness of work from home, and Kashive et al. (2021) showed that employees working from home differ widely in how they manage boundaries, with low-control groups reporting more technostress. Krishnan et al. (2023) linked work from home to workaholism and poorer mental health, while Prasad et al. (2023) reported that remote working was a major source of anxiety for employees of IT-enabled industries in Hyderabad, largely because of isolation and work-family conflict. Sharma et al. (2022) described the mixed experiences of Indian employees with technology-enabled home working, ranging from comfort and saved time to connectivity problems and extended hours.

At the same time, the cultural setting may shape how employees respond to support. Indian workplaces are often described as relationship-oriented, with strong expectations of loyalty to the supervisor and the organisation. In such settings, the felt obligation to reciprocate support may be especially strong, which makes the exchange-based alternative to H3 plausible. Testing these ideas in the ITES sector of Karnataka therefore offers a useful extension of research that has largely been conducted in western knowledge-work settings.

**Figure 1** *Conceptual model of the study*




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## 3. METHOD

### 3.1 Sample and procedure

Data were collected through a structured online questionnaire administered to employees of ITES firms in Karnataka, covering voice, non-voice and knowledge processes. The present analysis uses the first 104 complete responses received in a larger survey of ITES employees in the State. All scale items were compulsory, so there were no missing values. Participation was voluntary, and respondents were assured that their responses would be anonymous and used only for research.

Of the 104 respondents, 59.6 per cent were men and 39.4 per cent were women. Most were aged 35 years or below (66.4 per cent), and 60.6 per cent were married. More than half (53.8 per cent) had responsibility for children, elderly parents or both. With regard to the mode of work, 57.7 per cent worked in a hybrid arrangement, 22.1 per cent worked fully from the office and 20.2 per cent worked fully from home. 54.8 per cent worked in the day shift and the rest in rotational or night shifts serving overseas clients. 58.7 per cent worked in Bengaluru and the remainder in Mysuru, Mangaluru, Hubballi-Dharwad, Belagavi and other centres.

### 3.2 Measures

All constructs were measured on five-point scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). **Remote-work latitude** was measured with three items reflecting permission to work from home when the work permits, the saving of time and energy, and the ability to work as efficiently from home as from the office ($\alpha$ = .52). **Work interference with personal life**, the outcome variable, was measured with three items adapted from Hayman (2005), such as 'My personal life suffers because of my work' and 'I find it difficult to switch off from work after working hours' ($\alpha$ = .64). The other two dimensions of Hayman's scale, personal life interference with work ($\alpha$ = .50) and work/personal life enhancement ($\alpha$ = .52), were used for supplementary analysis.

**Techno-stress** was measured with three items drawing on Tarafdar et al. (2007), covering after-hours availability, longer actual working hours when working remotely and stress from monitoring tools ($\alpha$ = .53). **Boundary, isolation and career concerns** were measured with three items covering difficulty in separating work and home time, isolation from the team and fewer chances of recognition for remote workers ($\alpha$ = .67). **Organisational support** was measured with five items adapted from the idea of perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), covering the supervisor's understanding of family responsibilities, clear and fair flexible work policies, respect for the right to be offline, timely IT support and care for well-being ($\alpha$ = .75). The **number of days worked from home** in an average week (0 to 5) was recorded directly. Gender, marital status, dependant care responsibility and shift type (day versus rotational or night) were included as dummy-coded control variables.

Several three-item scales showed alpha values between 0.52 and 0.67. Values of this order are common for short scales, since alpha rises with the number of items, and are generally regarded as acceptable for exploratory research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). They nonetheless imply some measurement error, which tends to weaken observed relationships, and the results should be read with this in mind.

### 3.3 Analysis

H1 was tested through hierarchical regression, with control variables and the number of days worked from home entered in the first step and remote-work latitude in the second. H2 was tested through a parallel mediation model with 5,000 bootstrap samples, in which techno-stress and boundary concerns were entered simultaneously as mediators; an indirect effect was considered significant if its 95 per cent bias-free percentile confidence interval excluded zero (Hayes, 2022). H3 was tested by adding organisational support and its product with remote-work latitude in a third step, after mean-centring both variables. Significant interactions were probed through simple slopes at one standard deviation below and above the mean of support and through the Johnson–Neyman technique (Hayes, 2022).

Because all variables were collected from the same respondents at one time, common method variance is a possible concern (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The questionnaire placed the predictor and outcome items in separate sections, assured respondents of anonymity and included items worded in both positive and negative directions. Moreover, interaction effects cannot be produced by common method variance; if anything, such variance makes interactions harder to detect.

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## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1 Descriptive statistics and correlations

**Table 1**

*Means, standard deviations, reliabilities and correlations*

| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Remote-work latitude | 2.93 | 0.72 | .52 | | | | | | | |
| 2. Days worked from home | 2.02 | 1.61 | .03 | – | | | | | | |
| 3. Techno-stress | 2.91 | 0.79 | .14 | -.05 | .53 | | | | | |
| 4. Boundary, isolation & career concerns | 2.86 | 0.80 | .06 | -.01 | .55** | .67 | | | | |
| 5. Organisational support | 2.90 | 0.77 | .20* | -.02 | .02 | .04 | .75 | | | |
| 6. Work interference with personal life | 2.92 | 0.78 | .29** | -.07 | .05 | .00 | .16 | .64 | | |
| 7. Personal life interference with work | 2.95 | 0.71 | .16 | -.08 | .16 | -.01 | .09 | .54** | .50 | |
| 8. Work/personal life enhancement | 2.84 | 0.77 | -.06 | .03 | .15 | -.06 | .06 | -.52** | -.34** | .52 |

*Note.* N = 104. Cronbach's alpha on the diagonal. * p < .05; ** p < .01 (two-tailed). Days worked from home is a single-item count (0–5).

Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics and correlations. The mean scores of all perceptual variables were close to the mid-point of the scale, with remote-work latitude at 2.93 and work interference with personal life at 2.92. Respondents worked from home on 2.02 days a week on average. Remote-work latitude was positively correlated with work interference with personal life (r = .29, p = .003), while the number of days worked from home was not (r = -.07, p = .460). Remote-work latitude was also positively correlated with organisational support (r = .20, p = .042). The three dimensions of work-life balance were related to one another in the expected directions.

### 4.2 Remote-work latitude and work interference (H1)

**Table 2**

*Hierarchical regression predicting work interference with personal life*

| Predictor | Step 1 B | SE | Step 2 B | SE | Step 3 B | SE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Female | .095 | .161 | .080 | .155 | .117 | .153 |
| Married | -.142 | .164 | -.088 | .159 | -.104 | .157 |
| Has dependants | -.021 | .157 | -.017 | .152 | -.049 | .149 |
| Rotational/night shift | -.036 | .161 | -.071 | .156 | -.047 | .153 |
| Days worked from home | -.030 | .049 | -.035 | .047 | -.039 | .046 |
| Remote-work latitude | | | .309** | .106 | .260* | .107 |
| Organisational support | | | | | .075 | .099 |
| Latitude × Support | | | | | .267* | .119 |
| $R^2$ | .02 | | .10 | | .15 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | | .08** | | .05 | |
| F for $\Delta R^2$ | | | 8.46 | | 3.00 | |

*Note.* N = 104. Unstandardised coefficients. In Step 3, remote-work latitude and organisational support are mean-centred. * p < .05; ** p < .01.

As shown in Table 2, the control variables and the number of days worked from home together explained only 1.8 per cent of the variance in work interference with personal life, and none of them was significant. Adding remote-work latitude in Step 2 increased the explained variance by 7.9 percentage points ($\Delta F(1, 97) = 8.46$, p = .004). Remote-work latitude was positively related to work interference (B = .309, β = .283, p = .004). Employees who had more freedom to

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work from home, and who found home-based work efficient, reported that work intruded more on their personal lives, even after the number of days actually spent at home was held constant. H1 was supported.

A supplementary analysis with the same predictors showed that remote-work latitude was not significantly related to personal life interference with work (B = .175, p = .077) or to work/personal life enhancement (B = -.074, p = .499). The association is therefore specific to the direction from work to personal life. An analysis of variance also showed no significant difference in work interference between employees who worked from home on no days, one or two days, or three to five days a week (F = 1.28, p = .282).

### 4.3 Mediation through techno-stress and boundary concerns (H2)

**Table 3**

*Parallel mediation analysis: path coefficients*

| Path | B | SE | p |
|---|---|---|---|
| Remote-work latitude → Techno-stress ($a_1$) | .159 | .108 | .144 |
| Remote-work latitude → Boundary concerns ($a_2$) | .066 | .110 | .548 |
| Techno-stress → Work interference ($b_1$) | .020 | .114 | .861 |
| Boundary concerns → Work interference ($b_2$) | -.025 | .112 | .821 |
| Total effect of latitude (c) | .312 | .103 | .003 |
| Direct effect of latitude (c′) | .310 | .106 | .004 |

**Table 4**

*Indirect effects of remote-work latitude on work interference with personal life*

| Indirect path through | Effect | Boot SE | 95% CI |
|---|---|---|---|
| Techno-stress | 0.003 | 0.022 | [-0.033, 0.059] |
| Boundary, isolation and career concerns | -0.002 | 0.014 | [-0.033, 0.030] |
| Total indirect | 0.002 | 0.022 | [-0.037, 0.056] |

*Note.* 5,000 bootstrap samples; percentile confidence intervals.

Table 3 and Table 4 present the mediation results. Remote-work latitude was not significantly related to techno-stress ($a_1$ = .159, p = .144) or to boundary, isolation and career concerns ($a_2$ = .066, p = .548), and neither mediator was related to work interference once latitude was controlled. The indirect effects were close to zero, and all three bootstrap confidence intervals included zero. The direct effect of latitude (c′ = .310, p = .004) was almost identical to its total effect (c = .312). H2a and H2b were not supported: the spillover associated with remote-work latitude was not explained by the technology-related or boundary-related strains measured in this study.

### 4.4 The moderating role of organisational support (H3)

Step 3 of Table 2 added organisational support and its interaction with remote-work latitude. Together they raised $R^2$ by 5.4 percentage points ($\Delta F(2, 95) = 3.00$, p = .055). Organisational support itself was not related to work interference (B = .075, p = .448), but the interaction term was positive and significant (B = .267, SE = .119, p = .027). The sign of the interaction is opposite to that predicted in H3.

**Table 5**

*Conditional effect of remote-work latitude on work interference at levels of organisational support*

| Level of support | Support score | Effect (B) | SE | t | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low (−1 SD) | 2.13 | .055 | .149 | 0.37 | .711 |
| Mean | 2.90 | .260 | .107 | 2.44 | .017 |
| High (+1 SD) | 3.67 | .466 | .132 | 3.52 | < .001 |

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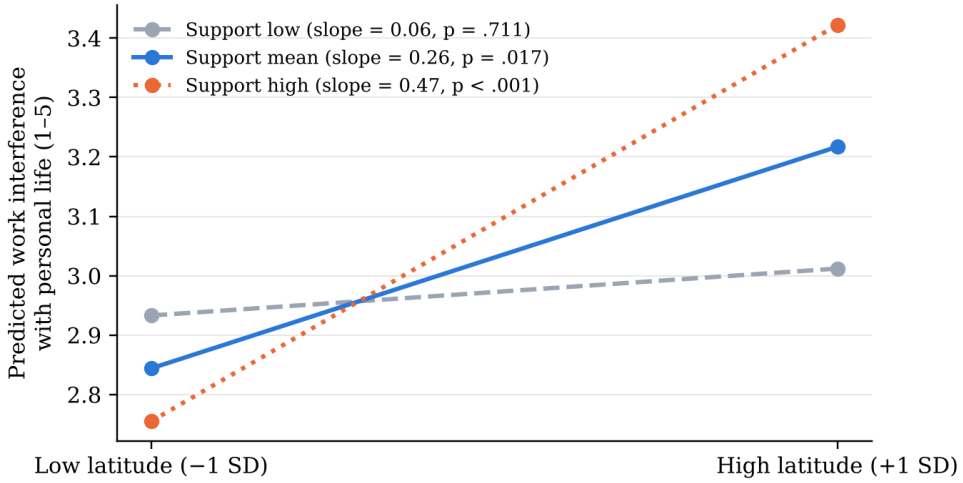
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**Figure 2**

*Interaction of remote-work latitude and organisational support in predicting work interference with personal life*




*Note.* Lines are predicted values from the Step 3 model at ±1 SD of remote-work latitude and at low (−1 SD), mean and high (+1 SD) organisational support.

The simple slopes in Table 5 and the plot in Figure 2 show the form of the interaction. When organisational support was low, remote-work latitude was unrelated to work interference (B = .055, p = .711). At the mean level of support, the relationship was positive (B = .260, p = .017), and it was strongest when support was high (B = .466, p < .001). The Johnson–Neyman analysis indicated that the effect of latitude became significant at support scores of 2.75 and above, a range that included 56 per cent of the sample. Organisational support therefore did not buffer the relationship; rather, the spillover associated with remote-work latitude appeared only among employees who perceived moderate to high support. H3 was not supported, and the pattern is consistent with the competing, exchange-based explanation outlined earlier.

As a robustness check, the interaction model was re-estimated without the control variables. The interaction remained positive and significant (B = .243, p = .038), which indicates that the result does not depend on the choice of controls.

## 5. DISCUSSION

This study set out to understand when the freedom to work from home leads work to spill over into the personal lives of ITES employees. Three findings stand out. First, it was the latitude to work remotely, and not the number of days spent at home, that was associated with greater work interference. Second, this association was not explained by techno-stress or by boundary and isolation concerns. Third, organisational support did not soften the association; on the contrary, the spillover was confined to employees who felt well supported by their organisations.

The first finding adds to the growing evidence that remote work carries a cost for personal life alongside its benefits (Felstead & Henseke, 2017; Russell et al., 2008). It also suggests that the meaning of remote work lies less in its quantity than in what it signals. An employee with high latitude knows that the job can be done from anywhere, and so can be expected, by others and by the employee, to do it from anywhere and at any time. This is in line with the autonomy paradox described by Mazmanian et al. (2013), in which the freedom to work anywhere becomes an obligation to work everywhere. The absence of an effect for days worked from home also cautions against using simple counts of home-working days as indicators of flexibility in research and in company dashboards.

The second finding is that the spillover could not be traced to techno-stress or boundary concerns. One explanation is that the intrusion of work into personal life associated with latitude does not feel like strain to many employees. It may take the form of voluntary extra effort, such as finishing a task in the evening or replying to a client in another time zone, rather than of pressure from technology or surveillance. Kelliher and Anderson (2010) observed exactly this kind of self-driven intensification among employees with flexible arrangements. An alternative explanation is measurement-related: the short techno-stress and boundary scales had modest reliability, which may have masked weak mediating effects. Future studies should use longer, validated instruments to examine this possibility.

The third finding, that support intensified rather than buffered spillover, runs against the common assumption in work-life research but fits social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Employees who believe that their organisation values them

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and cares for their well-being may feel a stronger obligation to reciprocate, and remote-work latitude gives them the means to do so by remaining available beyond working hours. Cañibano (2018) and Chung (2022) both describe how flexibility granted as a gift can be repaid with longer and more intense work. The finding also echoes Haines et al. (2024), who showed that flexibility can operate through favourable and unfavourable pathways at the same time. In a supportive setting, employees appear to use their latitude to integrate work into home life rather than to protect home life from work.

This interpretation does not imply that organisational support is harmful. Support was positively correlated with remote-work latitude, and other research has linked support to engagement, retention and well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The finding suggests rather that support, as currently practised in ITES firms, may not include strong enough norms about protecting personal time. Several of the support items concerned understanding and care; if this care is not matched by clear limits on availability, employees may feel free, and even obliged, to let work spill over.

It is also worth noting what did not matter. The number of days worked from home, gender, marital status, dependant care and shift type were all unrelated to work interference with personal life. The absence of a gender effect is noteworthy, since women in Indian IT and ITES firms have often been reported to bear a heavier burden of home-based work (Javad et al., 2023). In this sample, the spillover associated with remote-work latitude affected men and women alike, which suggests that it stems from the nature of the arrangement and the expectations attached to it rather than from the distribution of domestic labour alone.

### 5.1 Theoretical implications

The study makes three contributions. First, it distinguishes between the discretion to work remotely and the amount of remote work, and shows that the two relate differently to work-to-life spillover. Second, it shows that the link between remote-work latitude and spillover is not necessarily a strain process, which challenges the demand-based explanations derived from the Job Demands–Resources model and points to motivational or exchange-based processes. Third, it provides evidence that organisational support can act as an amplifier rather than a buffer of spillover, which suggests that buffering assumptions in work-life research should be tested rather than taken for granted.

### 5.2 Practical implications

For ITES organisations, the findings suggest that granting remote-work latitude and expressing support are not enough to protect employees' personal lives. Firms should pair flexibility with explicit norms on availability, for example by defining response-time expectations for after-hours messages, encouraging scheduled sending of e-mails and making clear that employees will not be judged by how quickly they reply outside their shifts. Supervisors, who shape both support and expectations, should model these norms in their own behaviour. Because spillover was greatest among employees who felt well supported, managers should not assume that a caring climate automatically prevents overwork; they may need to actively encourage supported employees to switch off. Finally, HR analytics that track only the number of remote days may miss the real drivers of spillover.

### 5.3 Limitations and directions for future research

The study has limitations. The sample of 104 employees was drawn by convenience from the first responses to a larger survey and may not represent the ITES workforce of Karnataka as a whole. The design was cross-sectional, so the direction of the relationships cannot be established; it is possible, for example, that employees who already allow work into their personal lives seek more remote-work latitude. All data were self-reported, and some scales had modest reliability. The interaction effect, though robust to the removal of controls, was observed in a modest sample and should be replicated in larger and more diverse samples before firm conclusions are drawn. Future research could use diary or longitudinal designs to trace how support and latitude shape after-hours work over time, measure reciprocity and felt obligation directly to test the exchange explanation, and compare voice, non-voice and knowledge processes.

## 6. CONCLUSION

Remote work is often presented as a way to give employees more time for their personal lives. Among ITES employees in Karnataka, however, the freedom to work from home was associated with more, not less, intrusion of work into personal life, and this was not because of the technology or isolation that remote work brings. The intrusion was confined to employees who felt well supported by their organisations, suggesting that employees may repay support by remaining available. Organisations that want remote work to protect personal life will need to combine support and flexibility with clear and credible limits on when work is expected.

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**Declarations**

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