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THE EFFECT OF FLEXIBLE WORKING ON WORK-FAMILY SPILLOVER
AND THE MEDIATING ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

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The Effect of Flexible Working on Work-Family Spillover and The Mediating
Role of Psychological Well-Being

Esnek Çalışmanın İş-Aile Yayılımına Etkisi ve Psikolojik İyi Oluşun Aracı Rolü

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"Are you saying I can fly?" "I say you are free."

- Richard Bach

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FWOs	Attitudes Towards Flexible Working Options
WLB	Work-Life Balance
JR	Job Responsibility
OE	Other Employees
SP	Work-Family Spillover
PWFS	Positive Work-Family Spillover
PFWS	Positive Family-Work Spillover
NWFS	Negative Work-Family Spillover
NFWS	Negative Family-Work Spillover
PWB	Psychological Well-Being

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ABSTRACT

This study was carried out to understand the effect of flexible working on work-family spillover and the mediating role of psychological well-being. For this purpose, quantitative research was conducted with a sample group of 338 people. In the study, full-time private sector employees in Turkey were reached using the Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ), the Work-Family Spillover Scale, and the Psychological Well-Being Scale. The data in the research were obtained with the survey method by sharing an online form. The obtained data were analyzed with the SPSS program and PROCESS macro software. As a result of the study, it was found that there were significant relationships between the variables.

According to the t-test results in the study, it was determined that there was a significant difference in terms of negative work-family spillover compared to flexible working status. In the multiple linear regression analysis, the effect of attitude towards flexible working options on the sub-dimensions of work-family spillover was investigated. Accordingly, the work-life balance dimension has a positive and significant effect on positive work-family / family-work spillover and negative work-family / family-work spillover. The job responsibility dimension has a negative and significant effect on positive work-family spillover and negative family-work spillover. On the other hand, other employees dimension has a negative and significant effect on negative work-family / family-work dimensions. It has been found that psychological well-being has a mediating effect on the relationship between the attitude towards flexible work options and the positive work-family / family-work spillover.

When the previous studies are examined, it is seen that the balance and conflict elements of the work-family relationship are discussed separately in the studies. Work-family life is also more integrated today, especially with flexible working models increasingly taking their place in business life. To consider that it is necessary to look at work-family from two sides and that they affect each other sometimes positively and sometimes negatively. It is thought that this study will

make an essential contribution to the literature addressing the issue of work-family spillover. In addition, it is seen that the mediating role of psychological well-being also has a significant effect. All these outcomes in this study will contribute both to Organizational Psychology literature and to organizations going through the period when today's business life is gradually changing and transforming, and new working models enter our lives. Additionally, it is intended to shed light on today's perspective and research to be done in the future.

Keywords: Flexible working, work-family spillover, work-family life conflict, psychological well-being, private sector employees.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, esnek çalışmanın iş-aile yayılımına etkisini ve psikolojik iyi oluşun aracı rolünü anlamak amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, 338 kişiden oluşan örneklem grubu ile nicel bir çalışma yapılmıştır. Çalışmada Esnek Çalışma Düzenlemelerine Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği, İş-Aile Yayılımı Ölçeği ve Psikolojik İyi Oluş Ölçeği kullanılarak Türkiye'de farklı illerde özel sektör tam zamanlı çalışanlara ulaşılmıştır. Araştırmada veriler anket yöntemi ile çevrimiçi form paylaşılarak elde edilmiştir. Elde edilen veriler SPSS programı ve PROCESS makrosu yazılımı ile analiz edilmiştir. Yapılan çalışmanın sonucunda değişkenler arasında önemli ilişkiler olduğu bulunmuştur.

Araştırmada t-testi sonucuna göre esnek çalışma yapma durumuna göre negatif iş-aile yayılımı bakımından anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Yapılan çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizinde; esnek çalışma düzenlemelerine yönelik tutumun alt boyutlarının iş-aile yayılımı alt boyutları üzerinde etkisi araştırılmıştır. Buna göre, iş-yaşam dengesi boyutunun pozitif iş-aile / aile-iş yayılımı ve negatif iş-aile / aile-iş yayılımı üzerinde pozitif yönlü anlamlı etkisi bulunmaktadır. İş sorumluluğu boyutunun pozitif iş-aile yayılımı üzerinde ve negatif aile-iş yayılımı üzerinde negatif yönlü ve anlamlı etkisi bulunmaktadır. Diğer çalışanlar boyutunun ise; negatif iş-aile / aile-iş boyutları üzerinde negatif yönlü ve anlamlı etkisi bulunmaktadır. Psikolojik iyi oluşun esnek çalışma düzenlemelerine yönelik tutum ile pozitif iş-aile / aile-iş yayılımı arasındaki ilişkide aracılık etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur.

Daha önce yapılan çalışmalar incelendiğinde, iş-aile yaşamını konu alan araştırmalarda ilişkinin denge ve çatışma unsurlarının ayrı ayrı ele alındığı çalışmalar görülmektedir. Esnek çalışma modellerinin iş hayatına giderek daha fazla yerini almasıyla, iş-aile yaşamı da günümüzde daha bütünleşmiş durumdadır. İş-aileye iki yönden bakılması gerekliliği ve birbirlerini kimi zaman pozitif kimi zaman negatif etkiledikleri düşünülürse, bu çalışmanın iş-aile yayılımı olarak konuyu ele alması bakımından alanyazına önemli katkı sağlayacağı

düşünülmektedir. Bununla beraber psikolojik iyi oluşun aracılık rolünün de anlamlı etki yarattığı görülmektedir. Çalışmada elde edilen tüm bu sonuçların hem Örgüt Psikolojisi literatürüne hem de günümüz iş hayatının giderek değiştiği ve dönüştüğü, yeni çalışma modellerinin hayatımıza girdiği bir dönemden geçen örgütlere katkı sağlaması amaçlanmaktadır. Ayrıca, bugünün bakış açısına ve gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalara ışık tutması amaçlanmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Esnek çalışma, iş-aile yayılımı, iş-aile yaşam çatışması, psikolojik iyi oluş, özel sektör çalışanlar.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the competitive environment based on the constantly changing dynamics of today's world, organizations aim to survive, keep up with the changes, and ensure success in many areas. Therefore, organizations are to use their resources best, obtain the best performance from them, and provide the highest efficiency to achieve goals. In this direction, organizations have been implementing them by constantly seeking the best management style and determining the most logical practices for the organization's future.

First, human power comes in the first line among organizations' resources. Organizations, which realize how vital human power is, are investigating how to interact with the employee for the benefit of the organization while considering how to get the best efficiency from human power. It is known that in the developing world, human capital is not only physical power, but the real human capital is mental, and in the new world, the real dominance is mental power. This fact has led organizations to care about the expectations of the organization's members.

1.1. Flexibility And Flexible Working Arrangements

In this part of the study, the concepts, definitions, and studies related to flexibility and flexible working are explained, and information is given about the historical development process of flexible working. Afterward, information about flexible working types and flexible working models is given.

1.1.1. Flexibility

Since flexibility is a comprehensive statement, It will be meaningful to introduce the definition of the concept of flexibility beforehand. When the meaning of the word 'flexible' is considered, it can be defined as elongation under the influence of an external force, being able to regain its former shape, and being bendable in case the effect of the force decreases or disappears completely (Parlak & Özdemir, 2011).

Flexibility is the ability to adapt to change with little cost and effort. According to the Turkish Language Association, flexibility is defined as "the state of being flexible, to adapt to changing situations and various conditions" (<https://sozluk.gov.tr/> access: 07.02.2022). On the other hand, flexibility can be expressed as the ability to adapt to changes and differences (Arslanoğlu, 2005). In another definition, it is defined as the ability to bend and adapt to conditions (Noyan, 2007).

The literature shows that the concept of flexibility is examined in terms of different concepts. In this context, it would be helpful to discuss how flexibility is handled in the organizational dimension. First, the concept of organizational flexibility; is expressed as being able to keep up with change, developing different solutions according to changing situations, benefiting from different abilities, and using different abilities (Koçyiğit, 2017). In another definition, it is expressed as the ability to stay strong even if negatively affected by changes in a workplace and work environment (Nemli, 1998). It is important for organizational flexibility that the organization can control the changes in its environment and develop itself to manage these situations well (Phillips and Wright, 2009).

In a developing and transforming world, accepting changes by all organizations and employees of any organization, minimizing resistance to changes, is one of the main characteristics of flexible organizations. Therefore, organizations should comply with the strategies and practices for organizational

flexibility to maintain the ability to compete while using all kinds of resources (Koçyiğit, 2017).

1.1.2. Flexible Working

Flexibility in the working order can be defined as the ability to keep up with the new working conditions in the order of working conditions, regardless of certain working schedules (Karakoyun, 2007). Erdut (2003) defined flexibility as a broad concept that includes deregulation. However, according to Hanahmedov (2017), some circles define flexibility as irregularity and non-regulation. This definition does not mean the loss of employee rights. However, this does not remove the protective nature of the rules, and it removes the strict feature.

For employers, flexibility can be expressed as the freedom to determine working hours, forms, and conditions according to rapidly changing technological, economic, social, and market conditions (Özgüner, 2019). However, flexibility in hiring and firing can be seen as freedom for employers (Aksu, 2012). Flexibility is defined as the employer's changing the working time, working order, working system, and place of work in accordance with the employer's flexibility to adapt to the changing conditions of the business, sector, and national economy (Zeytinoğlu, 2012).

According to Özgüner (2019), the most important factor of competition for businesses is the increase in total productivity. High unemployment rate, labor costs, and rigidity of labor legislation negatively affect the productivity of Turkish enterprises. As information technologies develop, standard forms of employment in the industrial society have been replaced by non-standard forms of employment in the information society. Therefore, in the transition from an industrial society to an information society, it was necessary to change the labor legislation to include non-standard forms of employment. By making these changes, countries that have

made their labor legislation more flexible have strengthened their economies and increased their competitiveness.

On the other hand, flexible working is considered in terms of employees. Employees' needs have changed over time. The idea of flexible working arrangements for organizations emerged in the 1980s to make it easier for organizational managers to take their children to school and allow them to start work later (Myers, 1999). It has become a way of working that finds much more application. Flexibility is among the working methods today (Cressey & Jones, 2013). Flexible working; in terms of employees, when to work, when to stop working, and whether they have the right to choose how they work is related to freedom (Baltes et al., 1999). they prefer to go to the doctor to determine a sports time for themselves or to solve their sudden personal problems (Haar, 2007).

For this and similar reasons, for employees who want to benefit from flexible working, as in all matters, it is necessary to reach an agreement with the employer regarding flexible working. While workers needed protection in the past, today, unions, minimum conditions of labor law, working conditions, and international organizations primarily meet the need for employee protection; however, to be protected, the employee must first have a job. This protection requires the employee's safety and the company's competitiveness in the world market and its activities. Therefore, labor law reconciliation between employer and employee is becoming more critical than ever. The flexibility of labor law is brought to the agenda for this compromise (Günay, 2004).

While the traditional working model is the work of certain people in a particular area and time for a predetermined wage, flexible working order; refers to all forms of work in which time, place, salary, and person to work vary. Changing the weekly working days, stretching the working hours, making different wage calculations under these conditions, changing the working place, and working with other employees in different periods can be counted as different variations of flexible working (Uyargil & Uluhan, 2015). Flexible working order is a form of work that has emerged due to the mutual needs of employers and employees and is

based on the mutual consent of both parties. However, the labor law guarantees the flexibility of working conditions, and flexible working conditions cannot include working contrary to the labor law (Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010). Therefore, flexible practices to be made with the agreement of both parties will ensure favorable working conditions. According to Aksu (2012), flexibility is the freedom for employees to determine the types and conditions of work in line with their needs. Regarding business, flexibility refers to flexible arrangements made in organizational structures, career planning, or wage payments (Seyyar and Öz, 2007). According to Doğan et al. (2015), employees who see new work patterns in organizations as dangerous for their careers and themselves may also view flexibility negatively.

The goal of flexible working is to change the way, time, or place of work, considering the changing needs of the employer and the employee. As it can be understood here, the concept of flexible working serves the interests of both the employer and the employee (Acar, 1992). Moreover, with the pandemic, it has been seen once again that both parties need flexibility.

1.1.3. Historical Development of Flexible Working

In the first half of the 20th century, the heavy working conditions faced by the employees caused the labor unions to attach importance to occupational health and safety issues. Accordingly, working hours have been the subject of constant discussion between the employee and the employer. Trade unions demanded a shortening of working hours, and it was observed that working hours were permanently reduced in European countries in the second half of the 20th century. For instance, the average weekly working hours in Western Europe, 46 hours in the 1960s, decreased to 40 hours per week in the 1980s. This decline has led employers to flexible working arrangements. The beginning of flexible working practices is based on the applications made to solve the traffic problem in Federal Germany in

1967, whereas the spread of flexible working began in the 1970s. In 1975, Germany and Switzerland's populations with flexible working order comprised more than 30% of the working population. In the same period, the USA, France, Belgium, Italy, England, and the Netherlands joined the flexible working practices. It is known that 800 companies in France and 500 companies in England implemented flexible working orders in 1975. In 1980, 8% of the UK and 12% of the workforce in the USA worked in flexible working arrangements. With the spread of flexible working practices in the 1980s, it is known that legal regulations have been made in this regard in European countries. One of these regulations was made in Belgium in 1985, and it was possible to make the working time 45 hours instead of 40 hours per week, provided that the annual total working time is not exceeded. According to this, even if the employees work 5 hours more in some weeks, they will still have performed the same amount in total annually, since this time will be given to them in different periods. A similar law came into force in France in 1987, and employees were allowed to work 44 hours a week, not exceeding 39 hours per week on an annual basis (Bolat, Seymen, & Bolat, 2006). In the same period, it became possible to make flexible employment contracts. The contracts made in this context in Belgium determine daily and weekly work's lower and upper limits. Based on these studies, work and wages are done by informing the employee in advance. It also shows flexibility according to the working hours (Bolat, Seymen, & Bolat, 2006).

Employers have sometimes made the historical development of flexible working practices to keep up with the market's competitive conditions and sometimes the employees' work lives.

However, flexible working practices have become necessary for employers and employees due to the COVID-19 pandemic emerging at the end of 2019 and spreading globally in 2020. Countries have changed their labor laws to facilitate flexible working practices, and employers and employees have made the transition to these practices easier in a way that will contribute to both parties. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, numerical flexibility, functional flexibility, and flexibility in

terms of space and time, which are mentioned in the next section, have started to be implemented rapidly in Turkey and globally (Erol, 2020).

1.1.4. Types of Flexibility

Flexible working types are classified in different ways in the literature. This section examines flexibility types under five main headings: numerical flexibility, financial flexibility, functional flexibility, working time flexibility, and location flexibility.

1.1.4.1. Numerical Flexibility

Numerical flexibility is defined as employers' ability to change the number of employees according to the demand (Şen, 2000). The ability to use this capability provides companies with many of the benefits of applying numerical flexibility. Workplaces that adopt numerical flexibility will not have to dismiss their employees in times of crisis and will not bear the costs necessary to ignore them (Felstead & Jewson, 1999). Thanks to the numerical flexibility application, some of the costs for large workplace requirements are avoided. However, it is necessary to fulfill many material and moral needs while maintaining large workplaces. Therefore, numerical flexibility benefits emerge more, especially in extraordinary situations like epidemics. Therefore, numerical flexibility can be preferred to eliminate the minor damage from the downsizing policies imposed by the workplace's crisis conditions (Erdut, 1999).

Using numerical flexibility is also associated with job security and threatening job security. Furthermore, legal arrangements regarding recruitment and dismissal and quotas for the employment of people with social and mental disabilities put employers in a difficult situation, especially in times of crisis, and

are considered a burden. For this reason, legal regulations and flexibility rules should be made (Şen, 2000).

Atkinson (1984) defined the concept of numerical flexibility internally and externally. External numerical flexibility refers to external contributions to the existing workforce in specific periods. Our country's external numerical flexibility application areas have been determined and limited by Labor Law No. 4857. According to this, outsourced work by employers to different companies is provided depending on certain conditions. Although numerical flexibility is defined in labor law, it is an application that allows employers to reduce labor costs. This practice (part-time work) is also used for different seasonal needs of employees. Businesses that produce industrial products from agricultural products or whose production can increase or decrease due to seasonal effects actively use this flexibility model (Atkinson, 1984). In the internal numerical flexibility method, although the employer benefits from external mechanisms, it reduces personnel costs by working its existing workforce in different periods and thus ensures production efficiency. Short work, part-time work, overtime work, shift work, job sharing, on-call work, and other time-based flexible working methods are all considered methods of internal numerical flexibility (Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010). This method is very active and beneficial in our country in terms of shift work and overtime working methods to benefit more accurately from the workforce of production facilities. Labor Law No. 4857 has defined such works and set some limits.

For instance, the daily working hours of workers, excluding exceptional sectors, are limited to 11 hours. At the same time, a worker's overtime hours in a year are limited to 270 hours (Bolat, Seymen, & Bolat, 2006). These methods both enable the employer to use the workforce more effectively and protect the living conditions and rights of the employees. In addition, the short-time working method, a type of internal numerical flexibility during the pandemic period, has helped both the employer and the employee. The application started by expanding its scope in March 2020 and ended on March 31, 2021. In this method, the Turkish Employment

Agency General Directorate pays a part of the employees' wages for the period they cannot work. This application was especially preferred during the pandemic period.

1.1.4.2. Financial Flexibility

This flexibility is also called wage flexibility. Wage flexibility is defined as the ability of an enterprise to change the wage structure and levels according to productivity level, labor market conditions, and solvency (Özgüner, 2019). Wage flexibility is workplaces' ability to make wage policies and adjust wage policies according to changing economic conditions (Wilthagen & Tros, 2003). According to Karlıdağ et al. (2012), wage flexibility applies a person-based system in employee wage payments. Thus, it expresses the freedom to separately evaluate the enterprise's performance, productivity, capabilities, and economic structure. The application area of wage flexibility, which can significantly contribute to the employer when it is difficult to predict future periods and market variables move quickly, has narrowed considerably with collective bargaining agreements (Koray, 1994).

Employers can pay their employees' non-fixed wages based on the total earnings of the enterprise. From time to time, these wages may increase according to the total payments of the workplace or decrease (Erdut, 2003). Additionally, the determination of the salaries deserved by taking into account the parameters such as the performance of the employees at the workplace, individual success, productivity, merit, dedication, and creativity is characterized as wage flexibility. Employees who contribute to the organization by improving themselves are rewarded, and both parties benefit from this flexibility (Tuncay, 1995). Therefore, a relationship between wage flexibility and employee productivity and wages (Aksu, 2012).

According to Karlıdağ et al. (2012), wage flexibility is handled at macro and minor levels. From a micro point of view, wage flexibility means that wages are

tailored to the firm's occupations, industries, and employee qualifications. From a macro point of view, wage flexibility is expressed as the ability of wages to adapt to cyclical fluctuations and economic conditions. According to Aksu (2012), while the business world tries to establish a relationship between unemployment, wages, and inflation, unions have not allowed wage flexibility through collective agreements. However, due to the economic crises, the parties began to re-evaluate salaries, as the employees faced the risk of losing their job security.

As a result, the wages paid to the employees are determined based on individual and institutional performance. Thus, wage flexibility is considered a motivation tool and reduces labor costs. In addition, it is used to get high efficiency from the employees. However, it should also be noted that the perceptions that wage flexibility only leads to positive results are wrong. Likewise, there are also studies on wage flexibility suggesting that there may be negative consequences. For example, it is stated that determining wages according to performance and efficiency level may cause polarization among employees and cause unrest within the organization (Zeytinoğlu, 2012).

1.1.4.3. Functional Flexibility

In organizations where functional flexibility is applied correctly, employees can take responsibility for more than one job, adapting to changing conditions and minimizing the effect of fluctuations in the workload (Atkinson, 1984). Functional flexibility is defined as the ability of the workforce to undertake more than one job or task in the enterprise (Taşoğlu and Limoncuoğlu, 2010). There are two ways to achieve this: training, rotation, etc., to the employees. In addition, functional flexibility is also called internal flexibility. With internal and functional flexibility, it is aimed to use the internal workforce in the most efficient and best way. Different tasks are performed by adapting to new production techniques with existing employees without recruiting new workers to the workplace. Functional flexibility, rapidly adopted by businesses, is becoming more common daily (Yavuz, 1995).

With this flexibility, workers must be versatile, in other words, multifunctional, and they should act following all conditions in the production process.

The type of functional flexibility in pandemic conditions has greatly benefited employers as well. For instance, when an employee needs to stay in quarantine due to sudden news, the presence of people who can do that employee's job within the scope of functional flexibility will be a savior for businesses. In addition, it is used to ensure the continuity of the work.

1.1.4.4. Working Time Flexibility (Flexitime)

This type of flexibility is where the employees can determine the working hours, provided that the work is done in the time specified by the employer (Tarcan, 2000). Types of flexibility are often classified under the heading of program flexibility. Considering the program flexibility that allows employees to change their work schedules using various official policies, for example, flexitime gives flexibility in arranging their daily working hours within an acceptable range of options (Baltes et al., 1999).

The flexibility of working hours is a practice preferred by western countries (Kalleberg, 2000). However, flexibility in working hours is a type of flexibility that is widely practiced in developed countries as well, as it allows the working hours to be determined in line with the preferences of the employees and to provide work-life balance (Işığık, 2006).

This type of flexibility has come into play with the change of working hours in the traditional sense. Thus, businesses need to get the job done in the required time; workers, on the other hand, can determine their working hours in line with their preferences freedom (Sönmez, 2006). Therefore, models that provide flexibility in terms of working time are preferred by employers as they are an effective way to eliminate low productivity and operate workplaces

uninterruptedly. At the same time, they are also warmly approached by the employees because they can provide employees with options in terms of working hours (Mahiroğulları, 2005).

The flexibility of working hours does not mean a reduction. Here, flexibility is meant; working times can be changed with different working styles (Yüksel & Bozkurt, 2008). Flexibility in working times provides a framework for the working time determined at the workplace and leaves free space for the worker and the employer in terms of the length and arrangement of the active time. Thus, employees can control their working hours (Yüksel & Bozkurt, 2008). Although working hours do not change in the first application, the distribution of this time to days varies according to the need. A workweek intensification can be an example of this. In the second application, the employees' working time increases according to their needs. Overtime and compensatory work are examples of this situation. In the third case, the employer can reduce the standard working time below the maximum (45 hours) and leave the working hours to the employee's preference. In this practice, which is widely seen in international companies, the work done is not evaluated over time but the completed work unit. Thus, even if the employee meets the work by working 30 hours a week, there is no wage deduction due to incomplete work (Uyargil & Uluhan, 2015).

For both the employee and the employer, the application of flexible working hours has some advantages and disadvantages. This application's advantages are the reduction of the time spent on the road, the decrease in the absenteeism rate, the determination of the time balance to be allocated to non-work life by the employee and the reduction of stress, the decline in employee turnover rate, the necessity of the employee replacement process within the units, and the flexibility application being accepted and supported by the employees (Uyargil & Uluhan, 2015). In workplaces that practice flexibility in working hours, employees experience increased engagement and loyalty, motivation and productivity, and a decrease in the number of quitting (Taşhyan, Engizek & Necmettin, 2017). In addition, there are positive results for the employer. Flexibility in working hours is a type of

flexible working that emerged to ensure employers' compliance with the market and to maximize productivity. In conventional systems, the start of the work at a particular time in the morning and the end at a specific time causes the inability to use the resources effectively and respond to market demands. From the employee's point of view, fixed working hours are incompatible with the variable structure of human beings and constitute an obstacle to establishing a work-life balance (Uyargil & Uluhan, 2015). According to Parlak & Özdemir (2011), flexibility in working hours allows employees to maintain a work-life balance. In terms of employers, it becomes attractive because it will enable the organization of working hours according to changes in demand, increasing the competitiveness of the enterprise and reducing costs. According to Alverson (1998), employees' loyalty and commitment increase their motivation, and the turnover rate decreases in workplaces that implement flexible working hours. However, there are also possible drawbacks to the practice of working time flexibility (Acar, 1992). Among the disadvantages of the application is dissatisfaction as it is not suitable for all jobs and employees, additional costs (such as transportation and energy costs), decreased sense of teamwork, communication problems, and controlling difficulties for managers (Uyargil & Uluhan, 2015).

The concept of time flexibility is the type of flexibility examined in this study. It was asked whether people benefit from the flextime application as a type of flexible working. The details of the research are given in the second part.

The literature shows that the flexibility of working hours is handled with floating and shift work hours. Two factors that redefine regular working hours are cited as the reason for the prevalence of such working hours (Seifert, 2000). One is the spread of the 24-hour economy and the increase in shift work, night shift, and weekend work (Glorieux et al., 2008). The other is the use of time accounting as a tool for a change in established business patterns and the more irregular allocation of working hours to daily, weekly, and monthly due to fluctuations in demand.

1.1.4.4.1. Floating Working Hours

Employees can use flexible periods by filling the total time they need to work for the period determined as weekly, 15-day, or monthly and by fulfilling the requirement to be at their job at the primary time (Çakır, 2001). While the daily working time remains the same during the floating job periods, the starting and ending times are left entirely to the employee. The most important feature is that the daily working time is the same, but the employee determines the arrival and departure. This model started to be implemented in Germany for the first time in the mid-1960s, spread in European countries such as Switzerland, England, France, Sweden, and Spain in the following years, and was preferred by companies in countries such as the USA, Canada and Japan (Ekonomi, 1994).

There are two models of floating working times: simple and qualified working times. In simple floating work time, the daily work time of the employee is determined precisely. In other words, although the employees have to be at the workplace during the core working period that the company makes available, they choose when to start and when to finish their work during this core period. In qualified floating work time, employees also have the right to determine the length of their daily working time. Although the daily core time is kept here, the employees have the opportunity to compensate for their daily work surplus or deficiency by working less or more in a specific period (week, month). In this way, the employee cannot demand overtime wages while compensating for the working time over time but can use the overworked time as free time for themselves.

However, this type of work is not a suitable model for band production or where work is done in a relatively short time frame. It is more suited to be used in qualified works, office services, or jobs that can adjust the work time according to the workload (Tuncay, 1995). The advantages of this type of working style for employees can positively affect their attitudes towards work. To make it easier for employees to harmonize their work-family or non-work lives, increase job

satisfaction, arrange working times based on when they are productive, reduce the stress caused by the obligation to comply with fixed time, reduce the stress caused by family-work conflict, get rid of the boredom of routine work and feel freedom with the control of working hours are counted as advantages as well (Doğan & Türk, 1997).

1.1.4.4.2. Shift Work Hours

Shift work is the oldest practice of flexible working hours. It is widely used today. In this type of work, a relatively long working time in the workplace is split between two or more groups of workers by successive start and end times. It is also possible for shifts to be of different lengths, at night or on the weekend. There may even be overlapping or overlapping shift times. That is, instead of the classical two or eight-hour shifts in the workplace, the working time in the workplace is used by creating many variable shift systems or by creating many successive part-time shift groups. It is called the flexible shift system (Eyrenci, 1994). Shift work is also practiced in the past and requires continuous work due to the nature of the job. The flexibility of the shift working system is usually achieved by combining it with other models. Today, flexible shift systems are applied instead of two or three-shift systems. By forming many part-time shift groups, the working hours of these groups are added one after the other, and integrity is ensured in the shift work in the workplace. The start and end times of shifts can vary. While flexibility is provided in shift times in some workplaces, core time intervals that employees must be in the workplace are determined. In this case, it is possible to calculate the equalization of the working time in a specific time interval by recording the differences in the operating hours of the employees in the shifts. As a result, shift working time can allow the company to extend the daily standard work period (Öztürkoğlu, 2013).

The flexibility of the flexible shift model is measured based on which the employees' preferences are taken into account in the duration, location, and

distribution of shifts. This working method, used extensively in EU countries, is also applied in our country. Labor Law No. 1475 and the statute of the law regulated the procedures and principles of shift work. Thanks to the Draft Labor Law, it will be possible to implement this working system by making it more flexible (Öztürkoğlu, 2013).

Generally, shift work is a way of working only for the benefit of the workplace. Shift works are done in jobs where continuous mass production is made (Hueck, 1994). The model's most significant advantage is that the business can extend the working hours. Especially in some workplaces in the service sector (hospitals, workplaces with a heat treatment furnace), it is obligatory to work 24 hours a day. With the implementation of this model in many workplaces, the capacity utilization rate is increased without paying overtime. Other advantages are, respectively, to maximize the use of tools and equipment in the workplace, ensure the continuity of the development of technological methods, to meet the demands of the general public in service sectors such as communication, health, security, tourism, and transportation (Korkusuz, 2005). Moreover, shift working systems are beneficial when an increase in production capacity is planned at the workplace or when shift workers are desired to work part-time (Öztürkoğlu, 2013).

1.1.4.5. Location Flexibility (Flexplace)

Location flexibility allows employees to choose where to perform their work-related tasks, and this type of flexibility is called 'flexplace.' According to this type of flexibility, offering flexibility to employees means offering telecommuting or remote work (usually from home) rather than traditional workplaces, either part-time or full-time (Hill et al., 2001). As it is understood, it refers to how employees can choose where they are engaged in their work-related duties and responsibilities.

Another option, a virtual office, is where employees are given portable tools to do their work and the freedom to choose the workplace that best meets their

business and personal/family needs (Hill et al., 1998). Another type of location flexibility is collective offices, which allow employees of different organizations to come together and work close to their homes. These offices can bring together the employees of various organizations, or they can belong to a single organization. Organizational culture is maintained in these offices where work is done collectively (Tutar, 2002). In both cases, employee telecommunication is necessary for employees to perform their jobs successfully (Madsen, 2003). Location flexibility, where employees do not need to work in a fixed place, has come to the fore, especially with the development of information technologies, offering all employers the opportunity to provide employment all over the world. In this way, people who are in different locations and do not know each other can produce joint projects and works on behalf of the same employer. This situation allows employers to choose from a broader range and opens the door to a worldwide working field for employees. Location flexibility also enables the employees of organizations operating in more than one location to work in different areas (Ölçer, 2004).

According to Uyargil & Uluhan (2015), there are advantages provided by location flexibility. These include increasing productivity, reducing the time lost by employees, making it easier for people with disabilities to perform their work, and reducing the time spent on the road and the money spent on transportation. However, location flexibility has its disadvantages. The difficulty of control, increase in the error rate in work done, the cost of the necessary infrastructure and equipment for remote working and emergence of personal problems due to the inability of the employees to balance their work and private life can be counted among these disadvantages.

The concept of location flexibility is the type of flexibility examined in this study. According to location flexibility, a kind of flexible work of individuals, it was asked whether employees benefit from this type of flexibility. The details of the research are given in the second part.

1.1.5. Flexible Working Models

With each passing day, the dynamics in work patterns change, and there are differences in fixed-time and monotonous working styles. Employees prefer flexible working arrangements more, and flexible working arrangements are also included in collective agreements much more (Öztürkoğlu, 2013). This section examines the flexible working practices customized and included in our labor law.

1.1.5.1. Fixed-Term Working

According to the law numbered 4857, employment contracts between the employer and the employee are indefinite unless otherwise stated. However, if certain conditions are met, employers can hire personnel with a fixed-term contract. For example, in cases such as the completion of a particular job, the unpredictable increase in orders, or the commissioning of new equipment, the parties may conclude a fixed-term employment contract. However, in these contracts, the job's definition, wage, and duration must be specified in writing (Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010).

The most crucial feature of fixed-term contracts is that they do not give job security to the employees. In other words, an employee who works with a fixed-term contract cannot request reemployment in case of leaving/removal from the job. In addition, since the end date of the work is foreseen in fixed-term contracts, no notice indemnity is paid. If the term of the fixed-term contract exceeds one year, the employee is entitled to severance pay. Several measures have been taken in the labor law to prevent employers' malicious use of fixed-term contracts. Employees working on a fixed-term contract cannot have different rights from peers just because their contract is for a fixed period. Again, in our labor law, it is stated that specific employment contracts can be extended once. In case of an extension of the

agreement for the second time, if it cannot be based on a substantial reason, the contract will have the effect of an indefinite contract from the first date (Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010). This type of elasticity can be included in the external numerical elasticity function. It is generally applied by private companies whose workload increases in specific periods.

1.1.5.2. Part-Time Working

The main feature of part-time work is that it is shorter than average working time, it is done regularly, and it is optional. The International Labor Organization (ILO) defines part-time work as "regular work, which is formed by mutual agreement between the employee and the employer and which is shorter than the normal working period" (Centel & Szek, 2002).

According to Law No. 4857, the maximum working time in our country is 45 hours per week. If the employee working in a workplace works significantly less than the equivalent employees doing that job, the work done is included in the scope of part-time work. In labor law, this period is determined as two-thirds of the working time of the equivalent worker. In a workplace where a regular worker works for 45 hours, work done up to 30 hours is included in the scope of part-time work. Again, according to Turkish Labor Law, an employee cannot be treated differently from a peer employee just because the employment contract is partial. If an hourly wage is agreed upon in a part-time employment contract, every 7.5 hours of work is calculated as one day. Wages and insurance premiums are paid over this calculation. In part-time agreements with monthly salaries, the insurance premium and the determined monthly compensation are paid in full regardless of working hours (Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010).

This system is widely applied in developed countries and international companies. The sector where the system is most common is the service sector. Part-time work, a frequently used method in low-quality jobs in business lines such as

banking, insurance, and accommodation in the service sector, has begun to be used effectively in jobs that require technical knowledge today (Yalınapa, 2002). Organizations that continue their search for qualified employees in a fierce competition contribute to the entry of new generations into working life by including university students with part-time employment contracts and the opportunity to train employee candidates for future periods. However, in addition to advantages, part-time employees are generally deprived of social rights within the company as a disadvantage (Tokol, 2019).

1.1.5.3. Short-Time Working

In the Unemployment Insurance Law dated 25/8/1999 and numbered 4447, the principles of short-time working are specified. Suppose an employer is employed with the insured subject to a service contract. In that case, the weekly working time can be temporarily reduced due to economic conditions, sector-related or regional crises, or compelling reasons. Moreover, the work can be stopped in the workplace completely or partially, and short-time work is paid to the employee. In short-time work, the salary is calculated as 60% of earnings, which is the basis of the premium earned for the last 12 months. The monthly payment cannot exceed 150% of the gross minimum wage. For the employee to benefit from the short-time working allowance, they must be entitled to unemployment benefit in terms of working hours and the number of unemployment insurance premium payment days (for those who have been subject to a service contract for the last 120 days before the start of the short-time work and have paid at least 600 days of unemployment insurance premium in the last three years) by Article 50 of Law No. (TBMM, 2022).

1.1.5.4. On-Call Work

On-call work is a working method in which the employee gets the job done upon the request of the employer, based on a predetermined agreement between the employer and the employee (Tokol, 2001). According to Tokol (1992), working on-call is when the employer asks the employee to perform the job or service in case the employer needs the employee to perform a job or service. In this arrangement, known as "On-Call Work," work arrangements include concise hours or no predictable fixed hours, and the employer has no obligation to provide a specific working hour. The On-Call Work model is subject to different contract formats depending on the country and is referred to as "zero-hours contracts" (ILO, 2004).

Significantly if employees do not benefit from equal treatment with full-time employees in terms of remuneration, "on-call work," including "zero-hour contracts," may cause difficulties such as unpredictable/insufficient working hours and low earnings. In addition, on-call workers may have problems establishing a work-life balance due to frequently changing work schedules (ILO, 2004).

In work performed on-call, the compensation for the job is paid according to the type of work. In addition, rules of on-call work can be discussed between the employer and the employee, and a fixed fee per call can agree upon. The essential advantages of on-call work are that the employer does not have to create a workplace for the employee and that the employee is not permanently attached to a workplace. The most critical parameter in the on-call working method is that the call conditions and results must be clearly stated (Kutal, 1991). Otherwise, the employer may not be able to get the employee to do the job or service they want at the desired place and time, and the employee is called indefinitely so that their life order may be disrupted. They may not be able to receive the wage they deserve. Therefore, the terms of the call must be detailed in advance so that the parties do not face such negative situations (Alpagut, 2008).

Although on-call work is a part-time employment contract, its application areas and primary grounds are pretty different. Employment contracts, which are based on the employer's ability to request the job to be done from the employee, if needed, are partial employment contracts in which the employee is called. In this type of work, if the contrary is not included in the contract, the employer must notify the employee four days before the work is done. After this notification, the employee must work at least four consecutive hours if the contrary is not added to the contract. The minimum weekly working hours in on-call work is 20 hours unless otherwise agreed. Regardless of whether the job need arises, the wage corresponding to this hour is paid to the employee. Again, in this type of work, the number of insurance days is calculated so that every 7.5 hours of work corresponds to one day (Tokol, 2019; Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010).

1.1.5.5. Job-Sharing

Job sharing is a type of working time flexibility that aims to maintain production with the same number of workers by shortening working hours to avoid layoffs (Lehnedorff, 2009). Thus, job sharing can be defined as two or more workers sharing the responsibilities of a full-time job. According to Günay (2007), job sharing is a job that fewer employees can do under normal circumstances, and the job is done in a shorter time by sharing the work with more employees. In this application, the service performed by one employee is carried out with the sharing of more than one employee. In other words, it is the completion of a job by a few employees in a specific order at certain times of the day instead of that can be completed by working full time for days. In this flexible working model, each employee sharing the job with the employer must conclude a separate employment contract. All employees have individual social rights and wage agreements that they deserve. In a job-sharing agreement, the work order is mainly decided by

employees, but there are also demands of the employer according to the type of work.

Job sharing applications are primarily applied in large factories, enterprises with many employees, and workplaces with the opportunity and conditions to work around the clock. Workplaces engaged in mass production can work continuously in shifts, except for the rest periods of the machines (Treu, 1992). In these cases, job-sharing applications are preferred. After determining the working times, workload, decision making, problem-solving, etc. All duties and wages, and social benefits provided by the job are shared. Sharing a teaching task by two teachers is an example of this work. This work differs from partial work, as the shared work is full-time and is done by more than one person. Those who share the work are obliged to continue the work uninterruptedly during the working period. Job sharing is an alternative method to dismissing workers in economic crises (Olmsted & Smith, 1997). Job sharing was widespread in Europe in the 1980s and 1990s. The most advanced countries in this regard are Germany and the UK. From the first half of 1990, job-sharing policies were promoted in all member states to remedy high unemployment in the EU (Bastina, 1994).

Job sharing can be desirable to employers. It is also possible to arrange the working hours according to the workflow, as both partners sharing the work can work in the high season. Thanks to job-sharing, it is reported that overtime, absenteeism, and employee turnover decrease in many companies while productivity increases (Ronen, 1984). In addition, companies that implement the job sharing model can protect their experienced workforce equipped with company-specific qualifications, saving on dismissal costs in times of economic crisis. For this reason, companies that share jobs will be able to return to their normal functioning under favorable conditions when the crisis ends, as they do not dismiss their experienced and skilled employees (Avery & Zabel, 2001).

1.1.5.6. Working At Home

In the Home Work Contract No. 177 dated 1996, working at home is defined as "without working at a workplace or similar facility of the employer to which the employee is affiliated, but to produce a good or service at home provided by the employer and to earn money." The definition made by the International Labor Organization is "the production of a good or the provision of a service for an employer, in a place (usually in the employee's own home) chosen by the employee without the intermediary or the supervision of the employer, and it is based on a contract" (Alp & Sönmez, 2011).

Since the late 1980s, the rapid increase in developments in the field of informatics has enabled some changes in working arrangements (Jessop, 2005). In particular, the way for employees to work outside the workplace has been paved. However, it is seen that having technology is less costly and accessible, making working outside the workplace typical in many workplaces. Developing and renewed technology made what and how is done more important than where the work is done. Therefore, employers expected result-oriented efficiency from their employees and gave them flexibility about where they would work (Näswall et al., 2007). In this way, employees started to work at home by using the facilities provided by technology without going to their workplaces. Choosing a home-based arrangement will result in a significant cost reduction in the workplace. Therefore, the biggest reason why the employer prefers to work from home is to save some costs. Smaller workplaces will be needed as fewer people will be employed. The small size of the workplace itself is a cost-reducing factor. In addition, regarding employees commuting, food, and clothes to list few. There will undoubtedly be a decrease in expenses in these matters (Koçak & Ersin, 2011). The arrangement of working from home, seen as one of the leading options for information flexibility in working life, is thought to have more positive aspects for both employees and employers (Karakoyun, 2016).

Although the concept of working at home is regulated separately in the Turkish Code of Obligations and Labor Law No. 4857, it is especially confused with teleworking. Although both are flexible ways of working, there are differences. In teleworking, the job is carried out with technological tools, and the work results are reported to the employer. Therefore, teleworking can be carried out at home, from a telecentre, or mobile. Here, it is necessary to distinguish between teleworking and working at home. Because teleworking at home is a type of teleworking and requires the performance of the work done at home with information communication technology. In addition, it is often impossible to charge the telework at home per piece (Dulay, 2016; Günay, 2017). It is seen from the sources that while teleworking at home is teleworking, working at home can express a different flexible working situation in some cases, so the model of working at home has not been fully considered under the teleworking model.

In addition to the advantages listed above, there are also disadvantages of working from home. First, penalties are stated, such as the lack of control by employers and their concerns over those working from home and the isolation of employees from the general work environment (Fu et al., 2012). Apart from that, situations such as problems in the social security of employees who work from home, the increase in the number of illegal workers, and the possibility of being out of control are evaluated (Erdut, 1997).

1.1.5.7. Teleworking

The concept of telework is expressed in many ways, such as telecommuting, teleworking, electronic homework, and a flexible workplace. Within the framework of the work organization, telework is defined as the work done in a place away from the workplace using communication technologies per the employment contract's conditions and optionally (Aydın, 2008). It defines the working styles where the work is done outside the workplace by being included in a work organization where

remote communication is provided by using information and communication technology (Alp, 2011). The International Labor Organization (ILO, 1990) explains telework as "a way of working in a place far from the workplace, separate from the workers at the workplace and that the new technologies used today to ensure this work because it increases the communication possibilities." According to Mokhtarian et al. (2004), on the other hand, teleworking is a flexible way of working in which work can be carried out independently of the traditional office with the use of information and communication technologies. This way, employees have the same status and rights as other employees.

There are different types of telework. According to Parkkola (2003), many terms such as telework, teleworking, telecommuting, remote work, distance work, flexible work, and e-work are used for teleworking. These concepts characterize that employees carry out their work-related activities from a distance away from the traditional workplace (Di Martino and Wirth, 1990); however, there are some differences between these terms (Parkkola, 2003). There is a close relationship between "telework" and "telecommuting." "Telecommuting" is a form of teleworking. Teleworking is the realization of work from anywhere other than the main office, using information technologies. To be able to talk about telecommuting, it is not enough to be teleworking and doing the work in a different place from the main office. A shortening of the commute distance to work must have occurred as well. Although the frequency of commuting to work decreases, if the commute to work distance increases, this is not telecommuting but teleworking (Nilles, 1994; Erdem, 1997).

One type of telework in terms of the place where the work is done is "Tele Center Based" work. Employees of this type are away from their employers but are not in the home environment. Still, they can do their job by being in another telecenter (televillages or telecenters) created between office-home-based work. They are often similar to the traditional office environment while saving commute time. Employees may be required to travel and communicate between central offices, electronic mail, etc. The mobile telework type can be used (Erdem, 2004).

Many employees work from many points using communication opportunities such as electronic mail and online platforms today. According to Huws (1993), an increasing number of employees work using information technology from different points and maintain their connection with employers from anywhere. Such employees can work in the home environment, travel by train, car, or airplane, and in hotels or places such as customers' offices (Bennett & Moorcroft, 1995). Finally, it is possible to combine and arrange all the aforementioned teleworking methods for an organization. These arrangements are called flexible telework arrangements (Bennett & Moorcroft, 1995; Erdem, 2004). Mobile tele-employees are professionals who use electronic communication opportunities such as connecting with central offices, using electronic mail, and accessing data banks while traveling. The upper-stage managers cover people working in different functions of the public and private sectors, such as sales personnel, health officials, and educational experts (Bennett & Moorcroft, 1995). Based on the nature of the work, teleworking is divided into two, product supply and service suppliers. For example, Tele employee sales personnel or telemarketing person is a product supply-based teleworking (Bennett & Moorcroft, 1995).

Teleworking can reduce air pollution and help prevent congestion during peak traffic hours. In addition, Teleworking can increase productivity and employee morale in an organization and minimize commuting journeys. However, there are also disadvantages related to teleworking. The most important of these problems is the social isolation experienced by people working at home. Some studies argue that this situation can be solved by limiting the number of days of teleworking employees (Moss, 1998).

The benefits for employees are greater flexibility in work times (time flexibility) and reduced time spent on the road to work. The disadvantages of teleworking are access to technology, corporate strategies, corporate culture, and structural integration problems (Carnicer et al., 2000). Some employers are reluctant to let their employees work in a place away from their eyes. It will not be

easy for current managers to adapt to this situation. In addition, companies have to ensure the security and safety of their teleworkers (Milne, 1995).

1.1.5.8. Borrowing Business Relationship

The borrowing business relationship is a legal relationship between the lending employer, the employee, and the employer who borrows the employee (Tuncay, 2003). It is where the employer, who has agreed with the employee in a working relationship consisting of a tripartite structure, temporarily assigns the employee to another workplace (Alpagut, 2008). When the workload decreases, the employer can temporarily give its employee to another business in need instead of dismissing them. Besides, the employer can meet its temporary labor needs by borrowing from other employers, as in seasonal jobs and jobs requiring specialization.

Borrowing business relationships is more common between workplaces working under the same roof. For example, borrowing workers can be transferred between companies during the establishment and growth periods or when a service that requires more expertise outside of routine work needs to be provided. Another situation is that the employees who are thought to be employed in a different position at the workplace in the future are usually temporarily employed in another smaller workplace to gain experience for the new job. Thus, a borrowing business relationship is established (Uşen, 2005).

The temporary employment relationship is where the employee works through private employment offices or in a different workplace affiliated with the same group of companies. A temporary employment relationship can be established for six months and extended twice. The basic requirements in establishing a temporary employment relationship include the employee's military service, the employee's use of maternity leave, the sudden need for production/work in the sector, the work that is not be considered as daily work but to is done periodically,

the seasonal agricultural work, home services, and work that is urgent in terms of occupational safety (Bolat et al., 2006).

There are some situations where the establishment of a temporary employment relationship is prohibited. A temporary employment relationship cannot be re-established with the same employee within six months after the employee's employment contract is terminated. During strikes and lockouts, temporary employment relations cannot be established in public institutions and organizations; work is done in the underground and workplaces where collective workers are recruited (for eight months) (Taşoğlu & Limoncuoğlu, 2010).

In our country, it is necessary to make legal regulations to determine the minimum conditions of the borrowing business relationship. For example, in the Draft Labor Law, there is the statement, "When the employer (the lender) gives a worker to another employer (borrower) temporarily to fulfill his/her job performance by obtaining his/her written consent, a borrowing employment relationship is established" (Ekin, 2002). Furthermore, in the European Union's directives numbered 91/383 and 96/71, it was stated that it would be made in writing for a certain period and that it could be renewed if necessary, and the borrowing business relationship was mentioned by taking these directives into account.

1.1.5.9. Sub-Contracting Relationship

In companies, some jobs are given to the subcontractor so that the subcontractor's workers can be made to do it. In this way, companies avoid paying extra wages by handing over jobs in different fields of expertise to subcontractors. They do not take the risk of accomplishing some jobs that are unfamiliar to them (Yavuz, 1995). Considering the practices, It is possible to encounter situations where some works or services performed in some workplaces are not performed by employees directly affiliated with the employer but are performed by employees working within a company belonging to another employer. This situation is more

commonly referred to as subcontracting. Subcontracting is an application used by many companies (Harrison & Kelley, 1993). Frequently encountered services such as security, assembly, modification, packaging, transportation, logistics, repair service, cleaning, and consultancy can be examples of subcontracting relationships.

In this relationship, the primary employer is responsible for the obligations arising from the Labor Law, the employment contract, or the collective bargaining agreement to which the subcontractor is a party to the subcontractor's workers (TBMM, 2022). Accordingly, for a subcontractor relationship to be established in a workplace, the primary employer must be present, the main job to be done by the subcontractor is a steady job, and the job to be done requires expertise in technological and technical reasons, and the job to be done is done in the field that belongs the primary employer. In addition, some other rules in the labor law regarding the sub-employer relationship can be specified as follows (TBMM, 2022):

- The primary employer is responsible for the labor law, employment contract, and the contract between the employee and the sub-employer, together with the sub-employer,

- The employees' rights cannot be restricted by taking the jobs of the primary employer's employees and employing them within the sub-employer. In addition, a sub-employment relationship cannot be established with a person, who was previously the employee of the primary employer,

- The original work cannot be divided and transferred to a sub-employer.

In recent years for some reasons such as setting regulative restrictions and making it difficult the lay off permanent workers in pandemics, the changing competition conditions with the development of technology, and the changes in the way of doing business, companies tend to use different employment strategies. As a result, employers' preferences for using subcontractors increase, which gives the employer the opportunity to save costs and use capital in other fields. Thus, the employer who survives the high labor cost is protected from competition.

1.1.5.10.Intensified Work

Intensified work is the situation where a job or service that is expected to be completed on a certain day within the average working hours in a business under normal conditions can be concluded in a much shorter time with the application of the workweek intensification (Eyrenci, 1994).

A workweek intensification refers to the distribution of the total weekly work time by compressing it into fewer (for example, 3 or 4) working days rather than classically 5 or 6 working days. It provides the employee with less commuting, more accessible leisure time, and more vocational training. In terms of employers, it gives convenience, such as reducing current expenses and performing maintenance and repair works in the workplace without stopping the work (Göçer, 1994). In this practice, which also has a place in labor law, employers must apply an increased wage policy to their employees in return for their non-working hours. It is a model that can be used in conditions requiring less employee interaction, especially in extraordinary situations. The working arrangement to be applied in cases where it is preferable to work between 07-21 hours for seven days, instead of working between 08-17 for approximately 22 days in a month under normal conditions, can be expressed as intensified work. This flexible working arrangement can be applied when the work performed in the workplace is not required daily. Thanks to the application, workplaces will be able to be located in a smaller space, and the employer will be responsible for much less expense.

1.1.5.11.Overtime Work

Overtime is a working type in Labor Law due to the emergence of the concept of working time and the need to limit it in terms of worker protection. Indeed, where there is no concept of limited working time. Overtime work also called work beyond

normal, is defined as increasing work times for urgent work that cannot fit into regular work hours (Kurucu, 1987).

Considering the purpose of the Labor Law, a working time of 45 hours a week has been determined for all workers in the law, taking into account the health and social life of the worker, with the regulations made in the legislation. Work that exceeds this period is called overtime by law (Şakar, 2006). Overwork is also called “work that exceeds the norm” (Akyiğit, 2005).

Accordingly, situations where the weekly working time exceeds 45 hours are called overtime. In workplaces requiring overtime, the employer must obtain the employee's consent. Even if the wage is paid according to these limitations, the employee cannot work more than 11 hours per day. In addition, the overtime period of an employee during the year cannot exceed 270 hours. In cases of overtime work, the wage is calculated and paid as at least 50% more than the regular working wage. Employees who work overtime or overtime can use this time as free time within six months instead of being paid for their work. At least 90 minutes of free time is entitled to one hour of overtime work and 75 minutes of free time for one hour of overtime work (TBMM, 2022).

1.2. Psychological Well-Being

Like many scientific fields; The science of psychology, which includes the study of the human mind, behavior, emotion, and thought structure, is also the subject of research, and it has been an area of interest by interdisciplinary sciences in terms of examining the biopsychosocial processes of living things. Psychology has questioned individuals' well-being as well. It has been tried to explain and improve the human psyche by finding answers to these questions. Researchers investigating mental disorders in psychology and psychopathology felt the need to express the state of "well-being" in general. However, what is good and what it means to be well should be explained when discussing mental disorders. Removing

"bad" or "disordered" symptoms may not mean that mental well-being has been achieved.

For this reason, explaining "what is good" is essential as explaining "not good." In studies conducted in psychology, the diagnosis and treatment of conditions such as depression, anxiety (anxiety disorder), and unhappiness were often at the forefront. Today, positive cases are also considered and examined, besides the idea that these negative situations are not rejected. Studies should be carried out to prevent the emergence of possible adverse conditions come to the fore (Telef, 2013). Thus, psychological well-being has emerged as a concept expressing the general mental health of the individual. The idea of psychological well-being, history, and theoretical perspectives are given in this part of the study.

1.2.1. Historical Development of Psychological Well-Being

Psychology is used to examine unhealthy emotions, thoughts, and behaviors rather than healthy ones (Akın, 2015; Doğan, 2014). However, its positive aspects have been neglected. Especially in times such as wars and epidemics, how people can stay strong and protect their purpose in life has been a subject of curiosity (Csikszentmihalyi & Seligman, 2000). As psychological health began to be perceived as the absence of pathology, positive functions started to be measured by the lack of unfavorable functions. At the International Health Conference in 1946, the World Health Organization accepted that health is not only pathology and weakness but also a state of physical, mental, and social well-being. This definition became definite and was implemented in 1948 (World Health Organization, 1946). With this definition brought to the literature, well-being has become the focus of many studies (Göcen, 2012). With this definition, due to the disease-based psychology studies in the past, positive and health-centered approaches that were left behind began to come to the fore. The concept of well-being has become one of the most discussed concepts in approaches centered on the health model. The

English concept equivalent is referred to as 'wellbeing' in the literature. The dictionary defines this concept as 'general health and happiness, emotional, physical and psychological well-being' (Hornby, 2015). Another concept that meets the concept of well-being is the concept of 'wellness.' In this concept, it is referred to as 'well-being' in the dictionary (Hornby, 2015). The concept of 'well-being' takes its place in the literature as a measurable, psychologically, and sociologically positive concept (Göcen, 2014).

While the first definitions of well-being were based on illness, problem and pain focus, and existential problems, with the development of a positive perspective in psychology, it evolved into definitions focusing on individual development, the potential, and the strengths of the individual (Göcen, 2014). However, the concept of well-being can be explained with two models: hedonic and eudomonic. This led to the emergence of two concepts and created the concepts of subjective well-being and psychological well-being, two crucial concepts in the well-being literature. According to Gallagher (2009), although studies on well-being are presented alternatively in the literature as hedonic (subjective/emotional) and eudomonic (psychological and social) models emerging from different origins and philosophies, current studies are conducted that these concepts complement each other.

In its historical development, the concept of psychological well-being has progressed with the school of positive psychology. With the attempt to direct the center of psychology to positive functions and the emergence of the current positive psychology, the concept reveals itself more systematically. Along with this new school in psychology, positive concepts such as well-being, psychological well-being, subjective well-being, quality of life, and life satisfaction began to come along with negative concepts such as depression, mental disorders, stress, and anxiety, with disease-oriented approaches. Positive psychology focuses on the individual's positive characteristics, values, virtues, and strengths. It focuses on the positive characteristics of the individual. The development of positive psychology as a systematic approach date back to 1998, when Martin Seligman was president

of the APA (American Psychology Association) (Boniwell & Hefferon, 2018). Accordingly, this field is based on Martin Seligman's critique of psychology's continued focus on psychopathology. Positive functions, which were overshadowed by the unfavorable functions of the individual, began to be emphasized and drawn to the center with this current. This new positive approach is not concerned with the presence or absence of diseases but with the individual's positive characteristics (Akın, 2015). In the study of Csikszentmihalyi & Seligman (2000), attention should be paid to the issue of how good life can be constructed without ignoring how individuals struggle with life and how they make sense of life. In the past, philosophers who considered happiness as pleasure in philosophical approaches tried to explain the question of what a good life is with the hedonic approach. However, thinkers who think happiness is an individual's discovery of their potential and value and taking appropriate actions have also formed the eudomonic approach. While considering these two approaches, subjective well-being can be viewed as the contemporary counterpart of the hedonic approach, and psychological well-being as the current counterpart of the eudomonic approach (Carr, 2016).

With the beginning of the positive psychology movement, positive concepts such as well-being, happiness, quality of life, life satisfaction, positive and negative affect, subjective well-being, and psychological well-being have emerged. According to Akdağ (2014), explaining these concepts and focusing on the aspects that differ from psychological well-being will provide a better understanding of psychological well-being. The different view on human well-being is the Eudomonic (psychological functionality) perspective, which is related to human potential. This perspective started with clinical psychology studies that emphasized the potential and self-acceptance of individuals in the 1980s. Thus the concept of Psychological Well-Being (PIO) emerged in experimental studies (Keyes et al., 2002).

1.2.2. Basic Concepts of Psychological Well-being

The concept of psychological well-being is used to express and measure the mental well-being of individuals. According to Bradburn (1969), an individual's psychological well-being is shaped by the positive and negative emotions they experience. The individual weighs their positive and negative feelings in their mind. Individuals are psychologically "good" if they experience positive feelings more than negative ones (Bradburn, 1969). Although psychological well-being was first brought to the literature by Bradburn, it is seen that the concept of psychological well-being, as Bradburn expresses, is currently used more closely to the idea of "subjective well-being." According to Bradburn, when positive emotions outweigh the negatives, the individual's psychological well-being will be high, and when negative emotions increase, the person's well-being will decrease (Timur, 2008). Later, Multidimensional Psychological Well-Being Theory (Ryff, 1989) and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1994) were defined. On the other hand, according to Diener et al.'s (2010) approaches to psychological well-being, it has been suggested that psychological well-being is a mood beyond not having a mental disorder and generally feeling positive. The systematic basis of the concept of psychological well-being comes from Ryff's (1989) Multidimensional Model of Psychological Well-being.

According to this concept, psychological well-being is a definition that will not only be associated with the individual's happiness but also with a good, productive, life-adding, and humanistic perspective (Ertürk et al., 2016). According to the concept of psychological well-being, the way to make oneself happy is to establish and maintain successful relationships with other people and a thriving social network around them. Therefore, psychological well-being is obtained from the desire to maintain happiness and success (Çardak, 2012).

In light of these new theories, psychological well-being is understood as having a meaning and a goal in an individual's life and spending effort in line with

this goal. Individuals feel “good” as they reach their goals and progress. Again, an individual with high psychological well-being maintains positive relations with their environment, can draw boundaries about their background and essence, protect it and progress towards self-realization (Ryff, 1989; Deci & Ryan, 1994; Diener et al., 2010). They also have an optimistic attitude towards the future (Diener et al. 2010).

1.2.2.1. Subjective Well-Being

Even if psychological and subjective well-being is related, when each is a different aspect of general well-being, subjective well-being can be defined as the subjective side, and psychological well-being can be defined as the objective side (Diener et al., 1998).

The concept is generally defined as experiencing positive emotions more than negative emotions and includes cognitive and emotional evaluations related to an individual's life (Akin, 2015). According to Diener (2009), subjective well-being is how a person sees their own life from their own eyes and is the evaluation independent of how others see it. This phenomenon was defined as subjective well-being. Emotions and thoughts are the basis of the concept of subjective well-being. Everyone has feelings, more or less. Emotions and thoughts also affect each other (Seligman, 2004). When an individual's life evaluation is defined as subjective well-being, these evaluations include emotions. Positive emotions are valued more than negative emotions. This is important in terms of subjective well-being (Diener & Lucas, 2000).

Subjective well-being considered an emotional and mental evaluation of an individual's life, includes positive thoughts more than negative emotions. Psychological well-being, on the other hand, consists of the meaning and purpose of the individual's life, awareness of their potential, the necessary development to reach these potentials, and the quality of their relationships with other individuals

(Özmete, 2016). It is seen that this type of assessment includes an objective manner. These two concepts, which are close to each other, can be separated when subjective well-being focuses on a state or feature and psychological well-being focuses on the process. On the other hand, some researchers working on well-being state that happiness can be determined not by external judgments but by the subjective evaluations of the individual. For this reason, subjective well-being should be defined by evaluations within the framework of the values, goals, and developments of the individual's life rather than objective criteria such as psychological well-being (Yavuz, 2006).

1.2.2.2. Happiness

Happiness has often led to research and questions about its definition from the past to the present. The word happiness is handled together with many different phenomena. First, it is generally expressed with temporary feelings such as pleasure and pleasure, secondly with situations such as life satisfaction and contentment, and finally with facts such as individual development and quality of life (Nettle, 2005; Karlı, 2019). According to Fromm (2013), happiness is the most outstanding achievement of a person; it is the response of their whole personality to the creative orientation towards themselves and the outside world. On the other hand, Seligman thinks that the concept of happiness is not scientific and is ambiguous and uses the idea of a 'good life' instead (Cohen, 2011). According to Goleman (1995), happiness has a feature that prevents the formation of negative emotions by reducing disturbing thoughts in the brain. Besides, this feature can help people achieve their goals and renewal (Coşkun, 2019). In some studies, happiness is conceptualized as subjective well-being and is sometimes used in the same sense. Need and purpose theories related to happiness say that when the needs of the individual are met, happiness can be achieved. From this point of view, happiness can be considered a final goal (Akın, 2015).

1.2.2.3. Life Satisfaction

Another concept used with well-being in the literature is life satisfaction. Satisfaction is defined in the dictionary as the satisfaction of expectations, needs, wishes, and desires. It is expressed as the balance obtained by meeting the individual's physical or psychological needs, such as curiosity, compassion, and closeness (Budak, 2007). The concept is primarily used with the concept of subjective well-being. Subjective well-being has cognitive and emotional components. While looking at the emotional part, positive and negative mood states emerge; on the other side, while looking at the cognitive component, life satisfaction emerges. Life satisfaction refers to the cognitive evaluation of one's life. Suppose the individual finds their life suitable for these criteria as a result of judging the quality of life by evaluating according to the individual's criteria. In that case, it can be considered that life satisfaction is high (Akın, 2015).

Life satisfaction expresses a general evaluation of the past; in this respect, it differs from the positive and negative emotional components of subjective well-being. The concept, which is not an instant assessment of the situation, constitutes the cognitive dimension of subjective well-being rather than the emotional dimension can be attributed to this. Unlike emotional components, life satisfaction is not a hedonic concept based on instant pleasure but constitutes the cognitive dimension of subjective well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2008; Doğan, 2014). In this respect, life satisfaction, which expresses the cognitive dimension of subjective well-being, is closely related to psychological well-being. The difference between the two concepts also includes the concept of life satisfaction. Life satisfaction is a concept closely related to the concept of happiness. The main difference between them is that happiness has a more emotional meaning and a more cognitive meaning. Life satisfaction expresses more concrete and specific issues than happiness. For example, the individual may say they are happy but not satisfied

with some situations. Satisfaction is mainly seen as a cognitive concept related to particular situations in the living conditions of the individual (Gundelach & Kreiner, 2004; Karlı, 2019).

1.2.3. Dimensions of Psychological Well-Being

Multiple factors affect psychological well-being. These are the relations with others, autonomy, social relations, individual development, our purposes in life, self-acceptance, past lives, biological health, socio-economic status, social support, positive affect, negativity in effect, and life satisfaction (Ryff & Singer, 2008).

Lawton (1983) explained psychological well-being with four dimensions. Expressing the concept of psychological well-being as the satisfaction from life, he described it as follows;

1. The individual's ability to cope with negative thoughts learned throughout life,
2. Being aware of the individual's emotions and processing them cognitively,
3. Invoking positive emotions with positive thoughts throughout life,
4. The life satisfaction the individual gets from the situation analysis that they have achieved with the goals set for themselves.

1.2.4. Approaches and Models Related to Psychological Well-Being

1.2.4.1. Hedonic Approach

The hedonic approach is a concept that is based on pleasure. According to the hedonic approach, happiness can be achieved by reaching pleasure and avoiding pain. According to this approach, the purpose of life is pleasure (Bolat, 2013). The

roots of the hedonic approach are based on the Greek philosopher Aristippus, who lived in the 4th century BC (Carr, 2016). According to Epicurus, pleasures are of two kinds: sensual and spiritual. The thinker, who states that people should reach sensual pleasures as much as possible, mainly foresees spiritual pleasures (Elmalı & Özden, 2012). Quantitative hedonism does not distinguish between the type of pleasure in terms of experiencing the moment but looks at the multiplicity of pleasure; Qualitative hedonism is an understanding that values spiritual pleasures more than material pleasures (Cevizci, 1999). Some Epicureans state that pleasure is inherently desirable and pain is inherently undesirable. From the field of psychology, This approach represents a theoretical explanation based on the fact that turning to pleasure and avoiding pain is one of the basic motives of the individual (Budak, 2007). This theory, with some changes, has taken its place in contemporary psychology with the concept of subjective well-being, the most widely used concept in the well-being literature (Göcen, 2014).

1.2.4.2. Eudomonic Approach

The eudomonic approach is built on a person's understanding of how to be well. According to this, a person's happiness and good life express the realization of their full potential and the process of reaching them. In Eudomanism, which started with Socrates and continued by Plato, Aristotle, Stoics, and Epicureans, it is stated that the purpose of moral life or the best for human beings is this ethical understanding. Some philosophers defined this idea as happiness, while others described it as self-actualization or self-satisfaction. Based on the differences in definitions, some thinkers said that it could be achieved by obtaining pleasure to reach eudomania.

In contrast, others stated that the condition of reaching it is virtuous (Cevizci, 1999). The concept of eudomania is first encountered in Democritus. Democritus defined happiness as a faculty of the soul rather than the body. Later, Aristotle

associated happiness with morality by continuing Democritus's spirit-oriented view (Çötök, 2017). Many thinkers discussed the meaning that Aristotle gave to the concept of Eudomania after him. Examples of this are virtue ethics in philosophy and positive psychology current in psychology (Çötök, 2017). According to Aristotle, true happiness satisfies our desires and is morally valuable. Sometimes the pursuit of hedonic happiness seems to provide well-being in the short term, but the long-term result can be harmful. For example, a person may feel happy while using alcohol or drugs. However, in the long run, this habit can cause diseases and detract from well-being. Since the concept of psychological well-being is aimed at the development and potential of the individual, it can be said that the eudomonic approach represents psychological well-being today.

1.2.4.3. Ryff's Multidimensional Model of Psychological Well-Being

Ryff developed one of the most comprehensive models of psychological well-being in the literature. He criticized the hedonic approach that put pleasure based on psychological well-being and did not find it right to see well-being as only life satisfaction or happiness. In addition, he found the subjective well-being approaches based on the balance between positive and negative emotions incomplete and developed his own multidimensional psychological well-being model (Akin, 2008). Psychological well-being; includes the individual's life goals, the state of his potential, and the quality of his interconnectedness with others (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). While working on the Ryff model, he benefited from many theories and theorists. Maslow (1970)'s self-actualization, Erikson's (1968) psychosocial developmental stages, and Rogers's (1961) theories of fully functioning humans can be given as examples. Ryff's model consists of 6 dimensions: self-acceptance, individual development, life purpose, positive relations with others, environmental dominance, and autonomy (Keyes, et al., 2002).

- a) **Purpose in Life:** Individuals have a purpose and emotions that will guide them in their life (Ryff & Essex, 1992). According to Frankl (2007), what makes life meaningful is our spiritual freedom, and he stated that individuals could have different life goals. Even pain can be meaningful for people whose lives are meaningful. This thought is that when people feel sad if they have a certain life goal, these goals will be protective against negative moods.

- b) **Environmental Mastery:** It means the individual's ability to organize and choose their environment according to their wishes, goals, and needs, to adapt to their environment, and to use opportunities. Positive aging also shows how much an individual benefit from an individual's environment. In addition, the dominance of the individual's environment shows that it draws a positive frame for the individual (Ryff 1989).

- c) **Positive Relations With Others:** The dimension of positive relationships with others can be explained as people's positive, compassionate, empathetic, sincere, and trustworthy behaviors in their relations with other people, their ability to love, and being aware of their responsibilities towards others (Keyes, et al., 2002). In addition, these relationships are also a criterion of maturity. An important point here is that positive relationships are not only built with people. It can be established with all living and non-living beings (Ryff & Singer, 2008).

- d) **Autonomy:** It means the ability of a person to make their own decisions, create standards, and organize their life according to these standards. It is accepted that individuals are internally controlled, act liberal, prioritize individuality, and the behavior comes from within (Ryff 1989). As in Maslow's concept of self-actualization,

independent individuals need to react independently and resist the pressure of society (Ryff & Essex, 1992). Jung (1976) sees autonomy as the desire to eliminate the fears in front of people during personality development. According to Rogers (1961), autonomous individuals can make evaluations in line with their own opinions without obtaining external approval.

- e) **Self-Acceptance:** Self-acceptance is the criterion of well-being (Demirci & Şar, 2017). Positive behaviors are essential for psychological functioning (Ryff, 1989). Individuals can evaluate and accept their strengths and weaknesses by developing awareness (Ryff & Singer, 2008). Self-acceptance can be defined as individuals' perspectives on themselves and life (Yılmaz R., 2016). Ryff (1989) stated that this dimension provides the healthy, self-actualized, highest level of functionality and mature individuals.

- f) **Personal Growth:** It is expressed as the development and maintenance of their abilities for the development and maturation of people (Ryff, 1989). This dimension defines people's awareness of their potential, openness to new experiences, and efforts to develop their abilities. Being at the highest level psychologically is about development and growth, and the most critical effort for human life is the effort of self-actualization; this is the highest goal (Maslow, 1943). According to Rogers (1961), Individual development is an internal motivation that is important for the maximum level of psychological functioning of individuals. The psychology of people who improve and change themselves will be more functional (Ryff, et al., 1999).

1.2.4.4. Other Theoretical Models of Psychological Well-Being

Bradburn, one of the first researchers to deal with psychological well-being, considered psychological well-being to have more positive emotions than negative ones. In his article titled "The Structure of Psychological Well-being," Bradburn (1969) brought the mental health of individuals to the literature with the concept of Psychological Well-being and presented the model with two main sub-dimensions. The sub-dimensions of the model are positive feelings and negative feelings. The more positive and negative emotions outweigh, the more "good" a person becomes. The more positive feelings that outweigh the balance, the better the person's well-being. Conversely, when people's negative feelings outweigh their positive feelings, it means he feels "not good." The more negative feelings outweigh, the less well-being they are (Bradburn, 1969; Ryff, 1989; Hamurcu, 2011; Akdağ & Çankaya, 2015).

According to Lawton, another name working on the concept of psychological well-being, psychological well-being consists of four dimensions: The individual's ability to cope with destructive emotions, Happiness, which is defined as an individual's cognitive evaluation of long-term emotions, Emotions, and emotions that enable the individual to have active and positive emotions, The high level of achievement of the individual's life goals. According to Lawton, quality of life is at the center of psychological well-being. Therefore, psychological well-being is a condition that covers the entire life of the individual related to how the individual evaluates themselves and their quality of life (Akin, 2015).

Another name who has studied the subject is Maloney. Maloney has recommended models to explain psychological well-being: negative, regular, and positive. The absence of psychopathology is considered negative psychology. On the other hand, every individual who is not psychotic can be regarded as psychologically healthy. In the positive model, the third model put forward by Maloney in describing psychological well-being, the positive individual, in a

psychologically healthy sense, is an individual with a psychological state beyond the average adjustment to the individual's life (Akin, 2015).

Cowen (1994), another researcher, mentions the importance of focusing on psychological well-being, starting with the fact that the field of psychology focuses on psychopathology, mental disorders, and the repair and improvement of disordered things. Cowen, who developed his theory of psychological well-being after examining the literature, developed a model in which the presence of well-being is emphasized rather than the absence of psychopathology. Cowen mentioned five ways to achieve psychological well-being in his model. The first is the good gains that the individual has achieved in the first years of his life. The second is that the individual reaches the necessary maturity and abilities during development. Third, the individual's in environments that will increase their well-being or create such environments. The fourth is the individual's ability to feel the ability to manage life. Lastly, the individual can cope with stress effectively (Akin, 2015).

Another theory on eudomania and psychological well-being belongs to Ryan and Deci. Self-Determination Theory emphasizes the importance of individuals' behavioral regulation, personal development, and developing internal resources. It is an approach to people's motivation and personality (Ryan et al., 1997). It also examines the basics of individuals' self-motivation and personality, their inherited tendencies to development, and the situations that affect the realization of this positive process. While describing the concept, Ryan and Deci, who work on psychological well-being, identified two basic approaches that put pleasure and happiness in focus and that the individual realizes himself and becomes a fully functional individual. The point criticized by the researchers, who stated that the first approach is necessary for the experience of well-being, is that hedonism is accepted as the only or the most important indicator of happiness (Akin, 2015). Therefore, they think synthesizing these two approaches will create a correct approach. Ryan, Huta, and Deci also propose four concepts. These concepts are referred to as the four motivational concepts discussed in the psychological well-being model. The first is that individuals pursue internal rather than external goals,

and the second is that they have volitional autonomous behaviors rather than controlled behaviors. The third is that they have a sense of awareness and act accordingly. The fourth is that they act following the basic psychological needs required to be autonomous, related, and competent. Researchers say these concepts provide essential satisfaction universally and talk about their positive effects on psychological well-being (Doğan, 2014).

1.3. Work-Family Spillover

Work and family life are the most critical areas of our lives. Many people's lives consist of time spent at work and in the family. For this reason, in this section, the historical development, theoretical approaches, the definition, importance, and dimensions of the work-family spillover concept as the dependent variable of the research are emphasized.

1.3.1. Historical Development of Work-Family Life Interaction

Family, which constitutes a core structure of societies, has preserved its importance as a social institution in every community and every period. Everyone becomes a part of this social institution during the life span from birth to death. Although different value judgments and habits in other family structures differ from period to period, it is impossible to think of individuals independently of their families. Roles such as mother, father, spouse, sibling, and child in the family also affect the individual's life outside the family. On the other hand, the individual establishes relationships with many people, such as friends, relatives, and members of social groups, apart from family members. Throughout life, a person has many roles as a child, student, employee, spouse, and parent at home, school, workplace, and society. These roles co-occur as they go in a specific order (Super, 1980).

Different roles have different powers and responsibilities, and individuals who act in harmony with them sometimes have to deal with problems. This situation sometimes becomes insurmountable, causing various psychological problems such as stress, depression, anxiety, and sometimes even health problems for the individual.

While it was widely thought that business life did not affect family life and family life on business life at first, studies conducted in work and non-work areas over time (Gutek et al., 1991; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hart, 1999; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Swanson & Simpson, 1998) revealed that these two areas are influenced by each other and drawn the attention of researchers to the interaction of work and family life. With the increasing number of individuals with essential duties and responsibilities in family and business life, developments and changes increase the interdependence between family and business life (Adak, 2007). The separation of business life and family life as time and space was realized with the effect of the industrial revolution. These concepts were settled as two opposite areas. In the studies examining work and family life together in the period after the industrial revolution, it is seen that the conflict dimension is mainly discussed. Especially in organizational behavior and human resources management research, the concept of 'work-family conflict' has become to be addressed with its causes and consequences (Marchese et al., 2002).

Individuals in a social structure, Apart from their roles in the family, also have essential roles in business life. Business life is a functional area where economic and social needs are met most of the individual's time. For this reason, roles in business life can put more pressure on the individual. The positive or negative interactions of the roles in the two areas significantly affect the family life and the business life of the individual. Work and family represent important life roles for most working men and women. It is not easy to manage these roles and balance work-family life (Frone & Rice, 1987; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

Roles may not always be compatible; individuals may adopt their roles in harmony with each other; however, the excess of assumed roles may sometimes

prevent individuals from fulfilling roles successfully. In these cases, problems such as role incompatibility, role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict arise. Role conflict is an inter-role conflict that occurs when the expectations of one role do not meet the expectations of the other (Frone & Rice, 1987).

The work-family conflict appears in two dimensions work responsibilities affect the family role (Work-Family Conflict), and family responsibilities affect the job role (Family-Work Conflict), and these two dimensions are interrelated (Haslam et al., 2015; Michel et al., 2009). Family-work conflict is the responsibilities arising from family life that prevent responsibilities at work (Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). On the other hand, work-family conflict is defined as work responsibilities that prevent the family's role and responsibilities (Allen et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Stoeva et al., 2002).

When the individual starts to get angry during a particular event or has problems making a decision, the individual finds themselves in the middle of the conflict (Cüceloğlu, 1999). These conflicts arise from work-related responsibilities, working hours, working hard, traveling for work, and not doing things that need to be done at home (Hennessy, 2005). For example, work-family conflict in the family arises when all roles, such as working, being a parent, and being a spouse, come together. While people fulfill these roles, they also undertake determined obligations. While fulfilling these obligations, people need to spend more time and energy (Kaya, 2003).

Work-family conflict is divided into three categories: time, tension, and behavior-based (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time, tension, and behavior-based work-family conflict types were found to be related to each other (Carlson et al., 2000; Işık, Işık & Hamarta, 2016; Koyuncu, 2009). Time-based conflict is the difficulty in fulfilling the requirements of the other role due to the time and planning that the person spends in their work or family life role. Time-based conflict can appear in two ways: first, time pressure in performing one role makes it impossible to fulfill another role. The second is being mentally busy with another job while trying to fulfill a role due to the pressure one feels (Greenhaus &

Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus et al., 2006). In tension-based conflict, it is defined as the mental, emotional and physical tensions experienced while fulfilling one role and having difficulty fulfilling the requirements of the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Morr Loftus & Droser, 2020). The individual who experiences tension due to the workload carries this tension to the home environment (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Behavior-based conflict describes the situation experienced due to the differentiation of behaviors and attitudes required by work or family life. For example, a person who is a manager in business life should be emotionally consistent and determined, while in family life, they should behave warm, sincere, and affectionate (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Knecht et al., 2011).

Today, examining work and family life together and understanding their relationship is necessary for many reasons. With the entry of women into business life, the number of dual-career families has increased. These societal developments have increased the occupational and family responsibilities of both women and men. While women work as intensely as men and contribute to the family budget, men are now helping their spouses with childcare and housework (Crispell, 1992). In addition, the spread of the nuclear family structure, even with families with only one parent or individuals living alone, has also affected the relationship between work and family life (Vatansever, 2008). This situation has led to a change in the structure of interaction between work and family life and a re-examination of the work and non-work life balance.

Nowadays, women and men have entered their business life more, and their working times have increased compared to the past. Research shows that both men and women spend more time at work. Global outbreaks, disasters, economic crises that shook the whole world, salary rates, ability, and values of labor given to work are variable. In addition to their physical activities in their work, individuals have started to make more effort mentally and emotionally (Geurts et al., 2003). There are negative effects of different studies and business and family life; It has been proven many times that the execution of business and family life causes negative consequences on the individual (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

However, such a focus on the harmful effects of having more than one role causes roles to have positive contributions to each other or neglect the benefit of the individual. Work-Family Conflict focusing only on the negative side of the interaction between the two concepts leads to criticism. Increasing research in positive psychology draws attention to the positive interaction and benefits of having different roles in both business and family life. Thus, it has been recognized that business and family lives can contribute positively, and the concept of “Work-Family Spillover” has emerged. It is thought that it will be helpful to emphasize the positive aspects of the work-family life interaction as well as its negative aspects. Scientists have not focused on expanding the work-family in the 90s (Kirchmeyer, 1992).

1.3.2. Theories of Work and Family Interaction

From psychology to sociology, organizational psychology to human resources, work-family interference is investigated by many different fields. These theories are compensation theory, spillover theory, segmentation theory, conflict theory, role theory, and the conservation of resources theory. Below are these theories about business and family life interaction.

1.3.2.1. The Compensation Theory

According to the theory of compensation, if the wishes of the employees cannot be met in their work or private lives, or what they want occurs badly; To compensate for this dissatisfaction, they are trying to meet their demands and demands in other areas of their lives (Bülbül & Giray, 2012). Therefore, according to the theory of compensation, employees turn to other areas of life to compensate for their dissatisfaction in one of their professional or personal lives, so they

experience conflict between work and family (Efeoğlu & Özgen, 2007). Therefore, according to the compensation theory, the individual goes to compensate for the dissatisfaction in one area by focusing more on the other area or by taking more time in that area (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Thus, individual aims to keep their satisfaction with the satisfaction received from the other area and to keep their satisfaction from life at a certain level.

1.3.2.2. The Spillover Theory

Spillover Theory is related to the transportation of emotions and behaviors from one area to another (Staines, 1980). In this theory, the habits, emotions, interests, and behaviors in business life are moved as a positive or negative transport to the other life than work. (Banner, 1974; Lambert, 1990; Topgül, 2016). Spillover Theory is spreading experiences, behaviors, and attitudes from one field to another, for example, to a business life area (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). According to this theory, the level of expectation experienced in both areas of life and the attitudes that occur due to the realization of relations affect the behavior in the other field in the same direction (Judge & Watanabe, 1994). For example, work-family conflict is accepted as a negative spillover containing the family's emotional and psychological burdens (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Jackson et al., 1985). It was found that the negativities such as fatigue and troubled mood were spreading more than positive emotions (Williams & Alliger, 1994).

1.3.2.3. The Segmentation Theory

The segmentation theory does not recognize the connection between work and personal life. It states that both living spaces are independent of each other. The main feature of this theory is that a person can spend time in his personal life

without being influenced by professional experiences and habits (Gupta & Beehr, 1981). The theory of division argues that a person's experience, happiness, and success in a field are independent of the other, and therefore both areas do not interact in any way (Ballica, 2010). The origin of the theory, one of the oldest theories examining the business-family relationship, extends to the beginning of the 20th century, to the Industrial Revolution. According to the Segmentation Theory, pressures and family pressures or pressure on any role do not put pressure on a role in the other field (Michela & Hargis, 2008). Today, the effect of this theory has decreased and cannot explain the current perspective.

1.3.2.4. The Conflict Theory

The conflict theory is based on the work of Kahn and his friends (Kahn et al., 1964) on inter-roles conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). According to the theory, the person is more self-sacrificing to be satisfied and thrive in a particular field in business or family life and is thought to have an effort. According to conflict theory, achieving success in any field requires sacrifice for another area. The theory describes family conflict as a kind of role conflict between their roles in the individual's work and family lives. Accordingly, the individual is not from the roles it has but because of the mismatch of the authorities and responsibilities he undertakes due to his roles. If the demands for a role in the two circles are not in harmony, stress on the individual emphasizes conflict (Ay, 2010). The factors that cause a person to experience conflict are not roles in family and business life but responsibilities (Efeoğlu, 2006). The person's time and power supplies have a specific limit, and the incompatibility between the limited factors also causes conflict (Karabacak, 2013).

1.3.2.5. The Role Theory

The developers of the concept of role theory, which was first used in the 1950s, were two sociologists, Parsons and Metron (Kinnoin, 2005). This theory is developed to form the theoretical basis of the relationship between work and family life by adapting the theory to business life. Experiencing a conflict or problem in one role will negatively affect other roles in the individual's life. On the other hand, the theory is based on the idea that having more than one role will negatively affect the individual due to the need for time, energy, and commitment to each role and make it challenging to overcome their roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). According to this theory, the more roles an individual has, the more stress and problems he will experience. Therefore, it is essential to provide a balance between work and family life in role theory (Işık, 2015). When a person tries to adapt to a situation and is faced with another, it becomes difficult to act in harmony, or trying to control two or more tasks together creates stress. Accordingly, tension is experienced (Arslaner, 2015).

1.3.2.6. The Conservation of Resources Theory

The conservation of resources theory developed by Hobfoll (1989) was formed by combining many stress theories. In this theory, people in the fields of work and family strive to provide, retain and protect the elements they value. The term resources are used for the elements people attribute value to (Jansen et al., 2003). Resources are personal characteristics, personal energy, and personal conditions. In work and family, people experience psychological tension when they fear that they will not lose their resources or that the resources will not be re-established due to running out of resources. In this theory, work and family conflict emerge as an instinctive reaction to situations when the resources that individuals have in the working area are exhausted or in the family area, or when they are faced

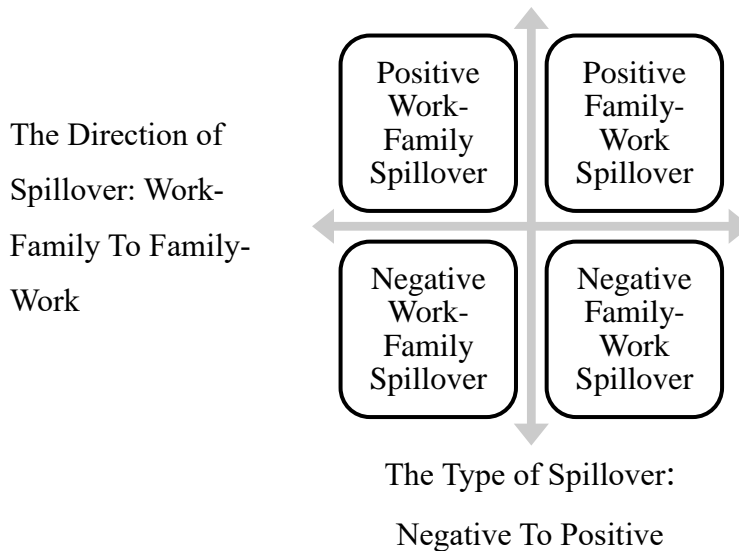
with the threat of termination (Yurtseven, 2008). However, it was determined during the literature review that this approach, which evaluates the interaction between work and family life with an utterly resource-oriented understanding, is not used very often today.

1.3.3. The Concept of Work-Family Spillover and Its Importance

The first research on the work-family spillover is based on Crouter (1984)'s work "Spillover from Family to Work: The Neglected Side of the Work-Family Interface. Crouter's work led to a positive relationship between work and family life in business family interaction and revealed the concept of Work-Family Spillover. Crouter (1984), who put forward the idea, investigated the effect of the roles of the individual outside the business life on business life and stated that the support, skills, and attitudes obtained from family relations in positive interaction between work and family. Many recent research studies have been conducted, especially in foreign literature. However, in the literature examination, the studies on the concept of work-family spillover in our country are scarce.

Grzywacz and Marks (2000) proposed a multidimensional work-family spillover model to best describe the interaction between work-family spillover and individuals' work-family spillover. Brisbois and Richard (2002) showed this multidimensional work-family spillover model as Figure 1.1. shows:

Figure 1.1. Multidimensional Work-Family Spillover Model



Note. The work-family spillover has its positive and negative dimensions from the direction of family-work and work-family. From “A Multidimensional Assessment of Work-Family Spillover,” by Brisbois and Richard, 2002, Carleton University, Canada (Unpublished master’s dissertation), p. 10.

As shown in Figure 1.1., the positive or negative experiences of the individual can be reflected in other areas. Moreover, people can use their experiences in the continuation of their lives and other areas as well. For this reason, experiences inevitably affect each other with their positive and negative aspects.

Work-family spillover is when what happens in business life affects family life. On the other hand, family-work spillover is the effect of family life on business life. In most studies, the existence of family-work spillover has been accepted (Kirchmeyer, 1993). However, studies on family-work spillover are few. In studies on family-work spillover, it is stated that work-family spillover is more common than family-work spillover (Bartolome & Evans, 1980; Delong & Delong, 2011). This situation causes the spillover of family work to remain in the background.

On the other hand, both aspects of work-family spillover are essential in terms of individual, organizational and familial aspects.

Employees have different individual characteristics from each other. When increasing positive work-family spillover, it is essential to consider the individual characteristics of employees in their recruitment and/or promotion. It may be beneficial to implement supportive policies (providing nurseries for the children of the employees, applying flexible working hours for employees, etc.), create psychological support programs in the workplace, and organize programs and trainings related to personal development (Polatçı, 2011). Factors such as organizational managers being aware of the individual differences of their employees and reflecting that they value these differences and organizational culture are also important in terms of work-family diffusion. In organizations where flexible working practices are supported and family-friendly policies are implemented instead of long working hours, employees are much more likely to experience a positive type of work-family spillover (Polatçı, 2011).

The most important effect of family life on business life is seen as the social support provided by family members to the individual. Therefore, the individual needs to have a supportive spouse and the opportunity to talk about the problems he encounters at work with his spouse to eliminate the harmful effects of a tiring and stressful work day (Repetti, 1989). According to the study by Grzywacz and Marks (2000), a supportive spouse's presence decreases negative family-work spillover and increases positive family-work spillover. Similarly, when the number of children the individual has is analyzed in terms of work-family spillover, it has been seen that the number of children affects the work-family spillover levels of individuals and has a significant relationship (Polatçı, 2011).

The Relational Framework of Hypothesis Development

1.3.4. The Relation Between Flexible Working and Work-Family Spillover

The relationship between work-family / family-work spillover and flexible working arrangements is investigated in studies. For example, in a study showing the relationship between family-friendly corporate policies, workplace culture, and positive family-to-work spillover of family roles, data were collected from 104 couples with children. Family role quality was significantly associated with positive family-to-work spillover for men and women. In addition, it was found that the family-work spillover of women working in flexible working arrangements to take care of children was positively affected. These findings are examined regarding gender theory, family roles, and culturally traditionally structured companies (Pedersen et al., 2009).

Another study investigates the effects of flexible working time arrangements on cognitive work-to-home spillover for women and men in Germany. The relationship between employer-oriented flexible programs and work-to-home spillover was examined. Multivariate analyzes based on the German Socio-Economic Panel Study in 2011 and 2012 showed that flexible working-time autonomy is related to a higher cognitive spillover from work to home. However, this is mostly true for women, meaning that only women are likely to experience cognitive spillover with employer-oriented flexible programs. Moreover, women have been found to benefit more positively from working with flexible time than men. This study provides evidence to show how different flexible working time arrangements contribute to work-to-home spillover and reinforce gender inequality (Lott, 2018).

Semi-structured interviews with 55 employees, both at work and at home, in a field study conducted at a large manufacturing facility, revealed that most

employees realized that their family life affects them at the workplace. Analyzes of variance examining positive and negative spillover from home to work revealed that women with young children at home are likely to report higher spillover levels than mothers of older children and fathers, regardless of their position in the family life cycle (Crouter, 1984). These results also indicate that the work-family / family-work spillover regarding parenting and children's age may differ.

Hyland & Prottas (2017) investigated the flexibility over work-family / family work spillover. They examined how flexibility and permeability surrounding work and home spheres affect work-to-home and home-to-work spillover. The 362 people surveyed showed that providing flexibility reduces the negative spillover of time and strain from work to home and from home to work. On the other hand, permeability was positively associated with time-based spillover from work to home and from home to work. The results also supported the idea of asymmetric permeability, such that the relationships between work boundary permeability and work-family spillover were more substantial than the relationships between house boundary permeability and family-work spillover. This research has been one of the limited studies that dealt with work-family interaction from its dual aspect.

On the other hand, irregular working hours that disrupt the work-life balance negatively affect family happiness (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). In cases where the balance between the work-family transitions is disturbed, stress increases, and satisfaction with life decreases. As a result, the family lives of individuals are negatively affected, and their satisfaction with marriage and family life decreases (Vatansever, 2008). The people who cannot provide the necessary positive interaction in the institution where they work and in their home environment and who constantly experience negative experiences with their private jobs at home may carry this negative atmosphere on them (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). This situation can result in a work-family / family-work negative spillover effect.

Kim et al. (2019) highlighted that employees in managerial roles in the company are increasingly adopting flexible working options to help address negative work-family / family-work spillovers (inter-roles conflicts between work

and family roles). Accordingly, the relationship between the negative work-family/family-work spillover of parenting and gender and the demand for flexible working options was investigated. As a result of research with 1577 executives from South Korean companies shows a positive correlation between the negative work-family/family-work spillover of parenting and the demand for flexible working options regardless of gender.

The research conducted by Bayazıt & Bayazıt (2019) with 227 white-collar employees in the private sector shows that employees experience conflict from work to family rather than conflict from family to work. Accordingly, the general health of the participants stated that they spent an average of 50 hours a week at their workplaces; It has been determined that there is a negative correlation with the time they spend at work. However, it is stated that it has a positive relationship with work participation and conflict from work to family. In addition, a remarkable finding is; Although the women participating in the research spend less time at work than the male participants, they reported that their workplaces are less supportive of the family (Bayazıt & Bayazıt, 2019).

The study, which evaluates gender roles, flexible working, and work-life balance, shows that women who do not work flexibly complain about the different responsibilities placed on them when they work from home. Accordingly, flexible working women experience more work-family conflict, while men experience it less when working flexibly. On the other hand, it has been stated that the conflict between work and family will decrease thanks to flexible working practices, and employees will be healthier and more productive (Radcliffe & Cassell, 2015).

This study not only addresses the relationship between flexible working and work-family/family-work spillover, but also expresses the demand for flexible working options.

1.3.5. The Mediating Role of Psychological Well-Being on the Relation of Flexible Working and Work-Family Spillover

Some studies examine the relationship between psychological well-being, which was chosen to investigate the role of the mediator variable in this thesis study, with both flexible working arrangements and work-family / family-work spillover.

It has been stated that flexible working practices have a positive and significant effect on the psychological well-being of employees (Wahab & Tatoğlu, 2019).

In the study, which deals with the effects of employer-oriented flexible working time arrangement and psychological well-being from a longitudinal perspective, it was investigated which of the three well-being models (stability, recovery, or chronic strain / long-term recovery) is associated with these transitions. Analyzes have shown that individuals who switch to employer-oriented flexible time arrangements follow a chronic strain model (women) or adaptation model (men) in their psychological well-being. Under the influence of the transition to an employee-oriented flexible time arrangement, women appear to be profiting in the long term in terms of increased satisfaction in this arrangement. At the same time, men experience dissatisfaction with leisure time and then experience adaptation (Uglanova & Dettmers, 2018).

Reuschke (2019) examined the effect of work-oriented changes (reconstruction of spatial separation and the relationship between workplace and place of residence) on work-life balance and job satisfaction by assessing working at home as a type of flexible work. Through work at home, it was examined how the changing work environment affects the employees' satisfaction in various aspects of their lives. The study's findings in the UK revealed that employees' satisfaction with their job, income, and leisure time is significantly shaped by working at home. Furthermore, working at home is about psychological well-being and is positively associated with the leisure time satisfaction of women and men.

Future policies and research on the psychological well-being of employees highlight people's continuing trends towards individualized work in their own homes.

Gröpel & Kuhl (2009) examined the relationship between work-life balance (perceived adequacy of current time for work and social life) and psychological well-being. Accordingly, the hypothesis was tested that a sufficient amount of available time increases psychological well-being as it facilitates meeting personal needs. Using two separate samples (students and employees), the mediating role of meeting the needs in the relationship between work-life balance and psychological well-being was supported. The results show that the perceived adequacy of the time available for work and social life predicts the psychological well-being level if the needs of the individual are met at that time.

In a study investigating the factors affecting the psychological well-being of the employees, it was determined that the family was an essential factor. Relationships with the family play a role in the psychological well-being of both male and female employees. When it comes to bad experiences at work, it has been determined that employees with happy family life and good relations with family members are less affected by negativities than other employees (Barnett et al., 1992).

The roles that an individual has in business and family life have a significant impact on their psychological state. While it was argued that this effect was negative in the past, nowadays, it is thought that having more than one role provides psychological support and strength to the person. It can be said that this belief affected the emergence of the concept of work-family spillover. Studies have also found that high levels of psychological well-being cause positive results in terms of work-family relationships. In summary, it can be mentioned that there is a reciprocal relationship between work, family expansion, and psychological well-being (Polatçı, 2011).

There are also studies in the literature that directly examine the relationship between psychological well-being and work-family spillover. For example, in the study in which work-family spillover with its four dimensions was examined on 202 employees, significant relationships with lower effect sizes were found between psychological well-being and negative work-family/negative family-work spillover. On the other hand, a positive relationship was found between positive work-family spillover and psychological well-being. It was revealed that positive family-work spillover was not directly related to psychological well-being (Kinnunen et al., 2006).

Additionally, in a project supported by TÜBİTAK to establish a flexible working management system standard, the aspect of flexible working that supports psychological well-being was emphasized. In the qualitative phase of the project, which was carried out with the cooperation of 81 private and public institutions, 53 interviews were held with senior managers from 27 institutions; In the quantitative phase, 1854 people were reached from 66 institutions. When the two-phase findings are evaluated together, it has been seen that the digital infrastructure, human resources practices, employee needs during the transition to flexible working, and the managers' perspective are essential in flexible working practices. As a result of the project, a draft standard, titled "Flexible Work Management System - Requirements for Time and/or Space Flexibility," was created to form the basis of a national management standard. In this context, a guiding guide has been presented by describing the standard steps that should be applied in the transition to flexible working systems focused on psychological well-being in business life, based on business continuity and sustainability (Işık, Yenisey & Kantur, 2020).

Flexible working models that are not designed per the individual needs of the employees create negative effects. For example, suppose flexible working is not designed well. In that case, it causes adverse effects such as chronic fatigue, insomnia, depressive mood, insecurity caused by loss of income, and feeling of isolation (Torlak, 2018).

Nowadays, especially with the COVID-19 pandemic, work-family life has become a combination for many of us, rather than being an element of balance or conflict. Instead, this situation has become work-life integration/work-life spillover. Unfortunately, there are limited studies that can address the duality of work-family spillover. It is also limited research on the relationship between the spillover effect and flexible working layout modeling and the role of psychological well-being.

1.4. The Model and the Hypotheses of Research

In light of the previous studies mentioned above in the literature, the current research aims to understand the relationship between flexible work arrangements and work-family spillover and the mediating role of an individual's psychological well-being in this relationship.

The model to be tested is whether psychological well-being has a mediating effect on the relationship between attitudes towards flexible working options and work-family spillover (Figure 1.2.).

Figure 1.2. The Research Model

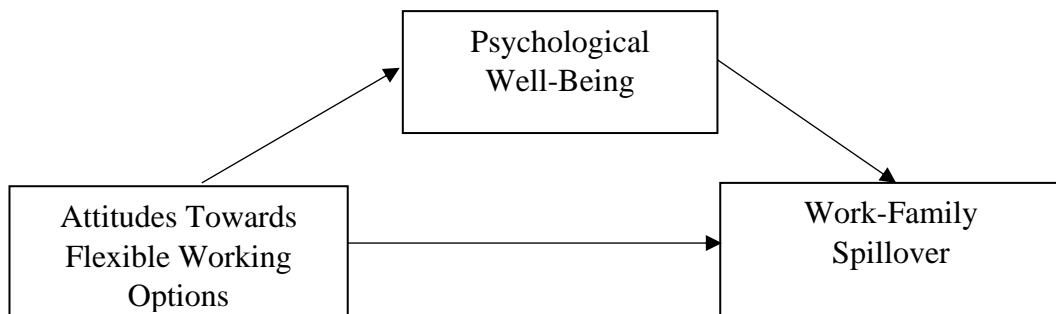
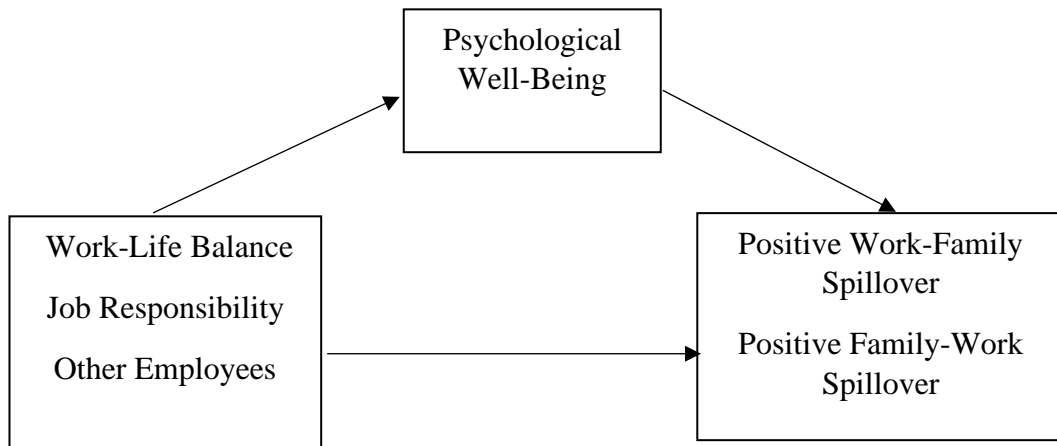


Figure 1.3. The Subdimensions of The Research Model



Accordingly, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H1: There is a significant difference between the work-family spillover mean scores of flexible and non-flexible workers.

H1.A: Positive work-family spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.

H1.B: Positive family-work spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.

H1.C: Negative work-family spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.

H1.D: Negative family-work spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.

H2: Attitudes towards flexible working options significantly affect work-family spillover.

H2.A: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects positive work-family spillover.

H2.B: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects positive work-family.

H2.C: Other-employees dimension significantly affects positive work-family.

H2.D: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects positive family-work spillover.

H2.E: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects positive family-work spillover.

H2.F: Other-employees dimension significantly affects the positive family-work spillover.

H2.G: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects the negative work-family spillover.

H2.H: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects the negative work-family spillover.

H2.I: Other-employees dimension significantly affects the negative work-family spillover.

H2.J: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects the negative family-work spillover.

H2.K: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects the negative family-work spillover.

H2.L: Other-employees dimension significantly affects the negative family-work spillover.

H3: Psychological well-being has a mediating role in the relationship between attitudes towards flexible working options and work-family spillover.

H3.A: Psychological well-being increases the positive effect of attitudes towards flexible working options on positive work-family spillover.

H3.B: Psychological well-being increases the positive effect of attitudes towards flexible working options on positive family-work spillover.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

This part of the study explains the research sample, data collection tools, process, and data analysis.

2.1. Participants

The study sample consists of 338 employees. They were invited to participate in this research, and after that, they were asked to fill out the surveys they wished to send to their respective parties. Within the scope of this research, the sample is full-time employees working in corporate life. This was mentioned at the beginning of the form. Nine participants could not start the survey because they did not meet the criteria.

The primary sampling technique is convenience sampling. Participants were required to work in the private sector as full-time employees from all areas of Turkey. For recruiting participants, an invitation ad has been announced via social media and e-mail, and participants will be invited. Thus, participation was completely voluntary. The researcher also searched for every participant from her social network who met the requirements and asked them to participate in the study.

2.2. Measures

In this study, the primary data collection method, the questionnaire method, will be used to find the original data. The study consists of one form with four sections.

Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ): The scale developed by Majella J. Albion to measure their attitudes towards flexible working hours regulations was used. It is seen that Çamlı (2010), Şahin (2014), and Başdoğan (2015) used the scale in their master thesis studies. While using the Çamlı scale, she used Majella J. Albion's article "A Measure of Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options," published in the Australian Journal of Management.

The scale developed by Albion (2004) was translated into Turkish by Çamlı (2010). There are a total of 12 items on the scale. Scale substances are measured by the 5 -point Likert system. Articles 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 11, and 12 indicate negativity. Therefore, these substances were reversed during the analysis process. Albion (2004) stated that these substances form the dimension of Barriers (Barriers) and that the positive articles 1, 5, 6, 7, and 8, which are positive, form the size of the work-life balance (Work-Family Balance).

As a result of the first-factor analysis by Çamlı (2010) for the validity reliability study of Turkish, four sub-factors were determined without the need to remove any substances. However, in the reliability analysis, these items were removed from the evaluation of the factor of the 2nd and 4th articles that the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was 0,5284 (less than 0.6). It was seen that the KMO ratio comparing the size of the observed correlation coefficients and the size of partial correlation coefficients increased from 0.713 to 0.724 after the 2nd and 4th article was issued. Since this value is above the acceptable lower limit (0.50), the sample size is suitable and sufficient for the selected analysis. Three sub-factors were obtained from the ten items included in the analysis, and these factors explain 72,996 % of the total variance.

Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the factors are determined as follows according to the reliability analysis conducted to measure the internal consistency of the expressions that make up the factors; 1st Factor: 0.8691; 2nd factor: 0.7634; 3rd factor: 0,8772. As a result of factor analysis and reliability analysis, the three sub-factors, which are thought to create their attitudes towards flexible work arrangements of employees, emerged as follows:

- a. **Work-Life Balance (1st Factor):** It measures employees' perceived effect in ensuring work-life balance.
- b. **Job Responsibility (2nd Factor):** It measures the level of flexible working regulations as an obstacle to fulfilling an employee's job responsibilities. Although flexible work arrangements do not affect their business responsibility, it is the idea that other employees may harm their job responsibilities.
- c. **Other Employees (3rd Factor):** It measures the attitude of the employees who benefit from flexible work regulations on the level of the negative reaction by their managers and colleagues. With this factor, it is possible to comment on whether the employee feels the support of other employees to benefit from flexible work arrangements.

The scale used in this study is the 6-point Likert-type response scale (1 = Totally disagree, six = Totally agree). The English and Turkish versions of the scale are located in Appendix A and Appendix B.

Work-Family Spillover Scale: The 16-statement work-family spillover scale developed by Grzywacz and Marks was used to measure work-family spillover. When the distribution of four dimensions of work-family spillover in the scale is examined, it is seen that each dimension is represented by the scale with four expressions. The first four statements refer to negative work-family spillover; negative family-work spillover of 5, 6, 7, and 8 statements; positive family-work spillover of statements 9, 10, 11, and 12; statements 13, 14, 15, and 16 measure positive work-family spillover (Polatçı, 2011). Polatçı (2011) translated the scale into Turkish during the doctoral study. After the articles were translated into Turkish, reliability and validity analyses were performed over two samples ($n = 150$, $n = 320$). As a result of the factor analysis, the Turkish scale substances were reduced to 12 (Polatçı, 2014). This version was used in this study. The participants rated the scale on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being all the time and five being never. The Cronbach alpha values for each direction are 0.81 for negative work-family spillover, 0.59 for negative family-work spillover, 0.64 for positive family-

work spillover, and 0.79 for positive work-family spillover. On the other hand, no other concept or scale considers both positive and negative aspects of work-family life (Kinnunen et al., 2006). The scale used in this study is the 6-point Likert-type response scale (1 = Totally disagree, 6 = Totally agree). The English and Turkish versions of the scale are located in Appendix C and Appendix D.

Psychological Well-Being Scale: This scale was developed by Diener et al. (2010) and adapted into Turkish by Telef (2013). As a result of the factor analysis conducted to test the structural validity, it was seen that the factor loads in the scale measured only one variable, and the variance explaining the psychological well-being was obtained as 58.36%. The scale consists of 8 statements and includes positive feelings such as positive relationships, a sense of competence, and having a meaningful and purposeful life. In addition, Telef (2013) determined the internal consistency coefficient Cronbach Alpha value as 0.870 as a result of the reliability test for the whole scale. This value for the scale, which is stated to be composed of a single factor, shows that the scale is reliable enough to be used in scientific research. The scale used in this study is the 6-point Likert-type response scale (1 = I absolutely disagree, six = absolutely agree). The English and Turkish versions of the scale are located in Appendix E and Appendix F.

Demographic Data Form: The first form (Appendix G and Appendix H) consists of questions that determine the demographic characteristics of participants.

2.3. Procedure

After approving the Ethical Form of the Istanbul Bilgi University Ethics Committee (Appendix J), the researcher opened the questionnaire form to collect and analyze data from full-time employees in the private sector. The employees reached by the researcher through the social network were informed about filling the scales if they had suitable time. Survey forms and scales were presented on Google Forms. To ensure the group was determined as sampling, participants who

declared that they worked in the private sector in the form could continue to fill out the questionnaire. Before the scales were presented in the online environment, the informed consent form was submitted to the participants who participated in the research, and approval was obtained. While sharing the forms, it was stated that this was a scientific study and that participation was voluntary. In addition, the conditions of participation (to be a full-time employee in companies in the private sector) were mentioned. No identity information was requested in this study, so the study is entirely anonymous. The research continued with volunteer participants who wanted to participate in the research.

The scales were placed in the attitude scale for flexible arrangements, work-family spillover scale, psychological well-being, and other pages of the form as demographic form. Filling the forms took an average of 5-7 minutes, but this time varied based on participants' focus level and reading speed.

2.4. Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis was performed with SPSS 25 software program on anonymous data. The researcher entered and analyzed all data of 338 participants who participated in the study in the SPSS program. Since the researcher informed the participants in all data collection processes and formed the form structure in line with this information, missing data was not observed in the data set. Therefore, no data has been removed from the data set.

According to the Central Limit Theorem, if the analysis has a large group of samples, the normality assumption is acceptable. If the number of participants is 100 and above, the data set was considered normal distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Descriptive, factor, and reliability analyses were performed. Then, multiple regression analysis was performed to see the relationships between the variables before the model test.

The model test of the study was performed using the 4th model of Process Macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2017). It has been examined with the mediation analysis model in Model 4 of the Process Macro whether the psychological well-being scores have a mediator effect between attitude scores for flexible arrangements and work-family spillover scores.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

In this part, findings related to the demographic characteristics of the participants are included.

Table 3.1. Demographic Characteristics

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Gender	338			
Female	234	69,2	1,31	.462
Male	104	30,8		
Age				
18-25	43	12,7		
26-30	143	42,3		
31-35	76	22,5	2,64	1,138
36-40	46	13,6		
41 And More	30	8,9		
Marital Status				
Single	184	54,4		
Married	140	41,4	1,5	.578
Divorced	14	4,1		
Number of Children				
None	256	75,7		
1 Child	56	16,6	.32	.610
2 And More	26	7,7		

Table 3.2. Demographic Characteristics (Cont.)

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Youngest Child Age				
None	255	75,4		
0-6	55	16,3	.34	0,653
7-12	25	7,4		
12 And Above	3	0,9		
Dependent Household				
Yes	66	19,5	1,8	0,397
No	272	80,5		
Education				
High School	8	2,4		
College	13	3,8		
B.Sc.	172	50,9	3,36	0,702
M.Sc.	138	40,8		
PhD	7	2,1		
Job Level				
Entry	163	48,2		
Senior	48	14,2		
Supervisor	53	15,7	2,17	1,342
Mid-Level	53	15,7		
Top-Level	21	6,2		
Length of Employment				
0-2 Years	195	57,7		
3-4 Years	46	13,6		
5-6 Years	40	11,8	1,96	1,326
7-10 Years	31	9,2		
11-More Years	26	7,7		

Table 3.3. Demographic Characteristics (Cont.)

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Total Job Experience				
0-2 Years	55	16,3		
3-4 Years	43	12,7		
5-6 Years	55	16,3	3,4	1,442
7-10 Years	83	24,6		
11 And More Years	102	30,2		
Flexible Working				
Yes	217	64,2	0,64	0,48
No	121	35,8		
Weekly Working Hour				
0-40	103	30,5		
41-50	222	65,7	1,73	0,523
51 And More	13	3,8		
Perceived Working Hour				
0-40	96	28,4		
41-50	163	48,2	1,95	0,719
51 And More	79	23,4		
Overtime Work				
Yes	48	14,2	1,86	0,35
No	290	85,8		

Considering the demographic characteristics, 69.2% of the participants are female, and 30.8% are male. The majority of the participants are single (54.4%), and the rate of those who are married is 41.4%. Considering the age distribution, it is seen that the majority are between the ages of 26-30 (42.3%). The youngest person participating in the study is 22 years old, and the oldest person is 57 years old. Therefore, the average age was determined as 31. In addition, 50.9% of the participants have undergraduate, 40.8% graduate, and 2.1% doctorate education. When the distribution of working time in the profession is examined, 30.2% are 11

years and above, 24.6% are between 7-10 years, 16.3% are 5-6 years and 0-2 years, and 12% .7 of them have been in business for 3-4 years. Most participants stated between 41-50 hours, legally (65.7%) and actual working time (48.2%). While the majority of the participants do not have children (75.7%), some participants have one child (16.6%) and have two or more children (7.7%).

3.1.1. Factor Analyses of the Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ)

Factor analysis was applied to the scales used in the research to determine the factor structures, and the validity of the structure was revealed. Factor analysis is a multi-variable statistical analysis to obtain significant variables from a large number of variables that measure the same structure. This method is recommended in analyzes based on the idea that factors are related to each other (Büyüköztürk, 2011). In this respect, the basic components and Direct Oblimin methods were used. In addition, reliability analysis was performed, and Cronbach's Alpha reliability values were calculated for general reliability and the reliability of the sub-dimensions to determine whether the scales have internal consistency.

The correlation matrix, Barlett test, and Kaiser-Meyer Olkin test are used to assess whether the data set is suitable for factor analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient and Barlett Sphericity test were applied to understand whether the data were suitable for factor analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2003). The aim of obtaining factors is to get a small number of factors representing the highest relationship between variables. There are different criteria for determining the number of factors. One of these criteria is the statistics of eigenvalues. Factors greater than one according to the criterion of essence statistics are considered significant. It is examined how much the factor, which is larger than 1st statistics, explains the total variance of the total variance (together with all factors if there is more than one factor). The rotation of factors aims to obtain meaningfully and interpreted

significant factors. Direct Oblimin is one of the most commonly used methods for rotating factors. The advantage of this method is that it provides convenience in interpreting and meaning. After the data were found suitable for factor analysis, the maximum similarity method (Maximum Likelihood Method) and direct oblimin rotation technique were used to examine the scale's construct validity and factor structure.

The correlation coefficients between the correlation matrix and the variables are examined. The high correlation between the variables indicates that variables can form common factors and the correlation coefficients are greater than 30 %. The possibility of a high correlation rate between at least some of the variables in the correlation matrix is tested with Bartlett (Turanlı et al., 2012). If the P-value of the Barlett test is $p < 0.05$, it is supported that there is a relationship between the variables (Büyüköztürk, 2011). KMO sampling adequacy also tests the compliance of inter-variable correlations for factor analysis, and the lowest limit is 0.50. The generally supported KMO values and comments are as follows: (0.5 -weak, 0.6-middle, 0.7-good, 0.8-very good, 0.9-perfect)

In Tables 3.2 the validity and reliability findings of the scales used in the research are presented.

Table 3.4. Factor Analysis of Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ)

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach 's Alpha
Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ) Total			70.853	.693
Factor I: Work-Life Balance (5 Items)		3.729	37.289	.884
Flexible working arrangements are necessary for me to fulfill my other interests and responsibilities outside of work.	.902			

Flexible working arrangements are necessary for me to manage variability in workload and responsibilities.	.901		
Working with more flexible hours is effective in fulfilling family responsibilities.	.856		
Flexible working arrangements help me organize my life responsibilities.	.764		
Flexible working arrangements allow me to concentrate better on my work in the workplace.	.698		
Factor 2: Job Responsibility (3 Items)		2.172	21.718 .680
People using flexible working arrangements miss important events such as staff meetings, training sessions.	.783		
People using flexible working arrangements are often less committed to the job role.	.780		
Flexible working options do not suit me as it creates a feeling of losing contact with the workplace.	.760		
Factor 3: Other Employees (2 Items)		1.185	11.846 .832
Workers in the workplace react negatively to people who benefit from flexible working arrangements.	.907		
Managers in the workplace react negatively to people who benefit from flexible working arrangements.	.903		
KMO: 0,788; Chi-Square: 1564,596; sd: 45; Sig.: 0,000			

3.1.2. Factor Analyses of the Work-Family Spillover Scale

In Tables 3.3, the validity and reliability findings of the scales used in the research are presented, respectively.

Table 5.3. Factor Analysis of Work-Family Spillover Scale

	Factor Loading	Eigen Values	Total Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Work-Family Spillover Scale Total			80.182	.869
Factor 1: Negative Work-Family Spillover (4 Items)		4.967	41.392	.904
At work, because I am so tired, I cannot focus on the things I should focus on at home.	.900			
Because of my job, I spend less energy on my home activities.	.887			
The stress I am burdened with at work makes me angry at home.	.861			
Problems and troubles at work keep me busy when I am at home.	.839			
Factor 2: Positive Work-Family Spillover (3 Items)		2.393	19.940	.858
The skills I use at work are useful to me in my home life.	.906			
What I do here gives me a better position at home.	.902			
My experience at work helps me with matters related to home life.	.791			
Factor 3: Positive Family-Work Spillover (3 Items)		1.304	10.865	.859
Talking to someone from home makes it easier for me to deal with problems at work.	-.890			
Home life relaxes me and makes me feel ready for the next work day.	-.876			
The love and respect I get at home makes me feel confident at work.	-.832			
Factor 4: Negative Family-Work Spillover (2 Items)		.958	7.985	.864
The stress I burden at home makes me nervous at work.	.949			

My personal or family problems keep me
preoccupied while at work. .900

KMO: 0,837; Chi-Square: 2420,565; sd: 66; Sig.: 0,000

3.2. Findings Related To The Correlation Analysis

This section presents the findings of the correlation analysis to determine the relationships between the factors that emerged as a result of validity and reliability analyses. Pearson correlation analysis was performed to examine the relationships between the variables. The results of the correlation analysis are reflected in Table 3.4. The table also contains average and standard deviation scores of variables. Here, the correlation coefficient is less than 0.3, low/weak relationship level; The fact that it is between 0.3 and 0.7 shows a moderate relationship, and greater than 0.7 shows a high level of relationship. Both negative and positive relationships between the variables and strong relationships were found. The most powerful positive relationship is between the total score of FWOs and the WLB scores ($r = .792, p = .00$); between the SP scores and the NWFS scores ($r=.785, p=.00$); and between the SP scores and the PFWS scores ($r=.728, p=.00$). However, there no significant relationship between the FWOs scores and the NWFS scores ($r = .092, p = .091$), NFWS scores and FWOs scores ($r = .007, p = .905$), the JR scores and SP scores ($r= -.095, p= .08$), NWFS scores ($r= -.098, p= .07$), PFWS scores ($r= .067, p= .220$), PWFS scores ($r= -.078, p= .153$), PWB scores ($r= .030, p= .579$). There is no significant relationship between the OE scores and the PWFS scores ($r= -.057, p= .296$) and the PWB scores ($r= .001, p= .983$). Additionally, between the NWFS scores and the PWB scores, there is no significant relationship as well ($r = .030, p = .588$).

Table 3.6. Correlation Analyses

Pearson Correlations

	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Flexible Working Options	4,62	0,76	1	,792**	,616**	,261**	,189**	0,092	0,007	,269**	,159**	,272**
2. Work-Life Balance	4,61	1,25		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,091	0,905	0,000	0,003	0,000
3. Job Responsibility	5,04	0,99		1	,177**	-,258**	,406**	,323**	,195**	,355**	,257**	,315**
4. Other Employees	4,02	1,50			0,001	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
5. Work-Family Spillover	3,98	0,97			1	,191**	-0,095	-0,098	-,177**	0,067	-0,078	0,030
6. Negative Work-Family Spillover	4,18	1,38				0,000	0,083	0,071	0,001	0,220	0,153	0,579
7. Negative Family Work Spillover	2,99	1,41				1	-,274**	-,341**	-,213**	-,126*	-0,057	0,001
8. Positive Family Work Spillover	4,68	1,27					0,000	0,000	0,000	0,021	0,296	0,983
9. Positive Work-Family Spillover	3,68	1,36					1	,785**	,658**	,728**	,663**	,185**
10. Psychological Well Being	4,46	1,13						0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,001
								1	,515**	,361**	,199**	0,030
									0,000	0,000	0,000	0,588
									1	,254**	,255**	-,130*
										0,000	0,000	0,017
										1	,482**	,382**
											0,000	0,000
											1	,221**
												0,000
												1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

3.3. Hypothesis Tests

In this part of the study, findings emerged as a result of testing hypotheses determined within the framework of the research model are included. Independent T-Test, Multiple Linear Regression Analyzes, and Mediation Analysis were performed to test these hypotheses within the model's scope.

3.3.1. Independent Samples T-Test Findings on the Comparison of Flexible Working Based on Work-Family Spillover

In Table 3.5., flexible working was compared with the work-family spillover. Independent Samples T Test was used as a method.

Table 3.7. Comparison of Flexible Working Based on Work-Family Spillover

	Independent Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Positive Work Family Spillover	Flexible Working	217	3.65	1.433	.477	.633
	Not-Flexible Working	121	3.72	1.221		
Positive Family Work Spillover	Flexible Working	217	4.70	1.304	-.377	.706
	Not-Flexible Working	121	4.65	1.223		
Negative Work Family Spillover	Flexible Working	217	4.35	1.384	-3.018	.003
	Not-Flexible Working	121	3.88	1.326		
Negative Family Work Spillover	Flexible Working	217	3.08	1.454	-1.561	.119
	Not-Flexible Working	121	2.83	1.326		

Dependent Variable: Work-Family Spillover

In this context, people who use at least one of the flextime or flexplace applications in the sociodemographic form are determined as doing flexible work, and those who do not benefit from either of these are defined as not doing flexible work and are divided into two groups.

As the first of the H1 sub-hypotheses, "H1.A: The positive work-family spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees." was tested and not supported ($t=.477$; $p=.633$).

The second of the H1 sub-hypotheses, "H1B: The positive family-work spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees." was tested and not supported ($t= -.377$; $p=.706$).

The third of the H1 sub-hypotheses, "H1C: The negative work-family spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees." was tested and supported ($t= -3.018$; $p=.003$). *Cohen's d* score was found as 0.034. This effect size refers to a small effect. Participants working flexible reported higher scores than those of non-flexible workers based on the negative work-family spillover.

The fourth, the last of the H1 sub-hypotheses, "H1D: The negative family-work spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees." was tested and not supported ($t= -1.561$; $p=.119$).

3.3.2. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Results on the Effect of Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options on Work-Family Spillover

The effect of attitudes towards flexible work options on work-family spillover was tested, and the multiple linear regression analysis findings were shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.8. Multiple linear regression analysis results on the Effect of Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options on Work-Family Spillover

	Independent Variable	B	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>R2</i>
Positive Work Family Spillover	Constant	2.994	6.471	.000			
	Work-Life Balance	.320	5.259	.000	10.182	.000	.076
	Job Responsibility	-.190	-2.522	.012			
	Other Employees	.041	.808	.419			
Positive Family Work Spillover	Constant	3.120	7.374	.000			
	Work-Life Balance	.349	6.280	.000	16.267	.000	.120
	Job Responsibility	.018	.263	.793			
	Other Employees	-.034	-.740	.460			
Negative Work Family Spillover	Constant	4.397	9.928	.000			
	Work-Life Balance	.305	5.240	.000	25.201	.000	.177
	Job Responsibility	-.138	-1.914	.056			
	Other Employees	-.230	-4.755	.000			
Negative Family Work Spillover	Constant	3.786	7.938	.000			
	Work-Life Balance	.221	3.526	.000	12.086	.000	.090
	Job Responsibility	-.266	-3.429	.001			
	Other Employees	-.119	-2.276	.023			

Dependent Variable: Work-Family Spillover

The effect of the sub-dimensions of flexible working (work-life balance, job responsibility, and other employees) on positive work-family spillover was examined. The stepwise technique was used as a method. As shown in the table, the F-value of the model and the Sigma value was significant (F=10,182; p=0,000). In addition, as shown in the table, according to the adjusted R2 on its value, independent variables explain 7.6% of the dependent variable positive work-family spillover. The result of the Durbin-Watson statistics indicates whether there is autocorrelation between the error terms. The fact that the Durbin-Watson value,

which was determined as 2,072, is between 1.5 and 2.5, states that regression analysis can be performed within the model's scope. Tolerance and VIF values indicate whether there are multiple correlative problems between independent variables. The fact that the tolerance values are greater than 0,100 and the VIF values are less than 10 shows that there are no multiple correlative problems between the independent variables in the model.

H2A: The work-life balance dimension has a positive and significant effect on positive work-family spillover ($\beta=.320$; $p=.000$, Tolerance 0.880, VIF 1,136). This dimension of the independent variable explains 32% of the effect on the dependent variable.

H2B: The job responsibility dimension negatively and significantly affects positive work-family spillover ($\beta=-.190$; $p=.000$, Tolerance 0.909, VIF 1,101). This dimension of the independent variable explains 19% of the effect on the dependent variable.

H2C: The other-employees dimension has no significant effect on positive work-family spillover ($\beta=.041$; $p=.419$, Tolerance 0.876, VIF 1,142).

Secondly, the effect of the sub-dimensions of flexible working (work-life balance, job responsibility, and other employees) on positive family-work spillover was examined. The Durbin-Watson value, which was determined as 1.988, is between 1.5 and 2.5, indicating that regression analysis can be done within the model's scope. The tolerance values greater than 0.100 and the VIF values less than 10 indicate that there is no multicollinearity problem between the independent variables in the model.

H2D: The work-life balance dimension positively and significantly affects positive family-work spillover ($\beta=.349$; $p=.000$, Tolerance 0.880 VIF 1.136). This dimension of the independent variable explains 34% of the effect on the dependent variable.

H2E: The job responsibility dimension has no significant effect on positive family-work spillover ($\beta=.018$; $p=.793$, Tolerance 0.909 VIF 1.101).

H2F: The other-employees dimension has no significant effect on positive family-work spillover ($\beta = -.034$; $p = .460$, Tolerance 0.876 VIF 1.142).

The effect of the sub-dimensions of flexible working (work-life balance, job responsibility, and other employees) on negative work-family spillover was examined. The Durbin-Watson value of 1.941 is between 1.5 and 2.5, and greater than 0.100 tolerance values, the VIF values less than 10 indicate compliance in terms of regression analysis.

H2G: The work-life balance dimension positively and significantly affects negative work-family spillover ($\beta = .305$; $p = .000$, Tolerance 0.880 VIF 1.136). This dimension of the independent variable explains 30% of the effect on the dependent variable.

H2H: The job responsibility dimension has no significant effect on negative work-family spillover ($\beta = -.138$; $p = .056$, Tolerance 0.909 VIF 1.101).

H2I: The other-employees dimension negatively and significantly affects negative work-family spillover ($\beta = -.230$; $p = .000$, Tolerance 0.876 VIF 1.142). This dimension of the independent variable explains 23% of the effect on the dependent variable.

Lastly, the effect of the sub-dimensions of flexible working (work-life balance, job responsibility, and other employees) on negative family-work spillover was examined. The Durbin-Watson value of 2.136 is between 1.5 and 2.5, and greater than 0.100 tolerance values, the VIF values less than 10 indicate compliance in terms of regression analysis.

H2J: The work-life balance dimension positively and significantly affects negative family-work spillover ($\beta = .221$; $p = .000$, Tolerance 0.880 VIF 1.136). This dimension of the independent variable explains 22% of the effect on the dependent variable.

H2K: The job responsibility dimension negatively and significantly affects negative family-work spillover ($\beta = -.266$; $p = .001$, Tolerance 0.909 VIF 1.101). This

dimension of the independent variable explains 26% of the effect on the dependent variable.

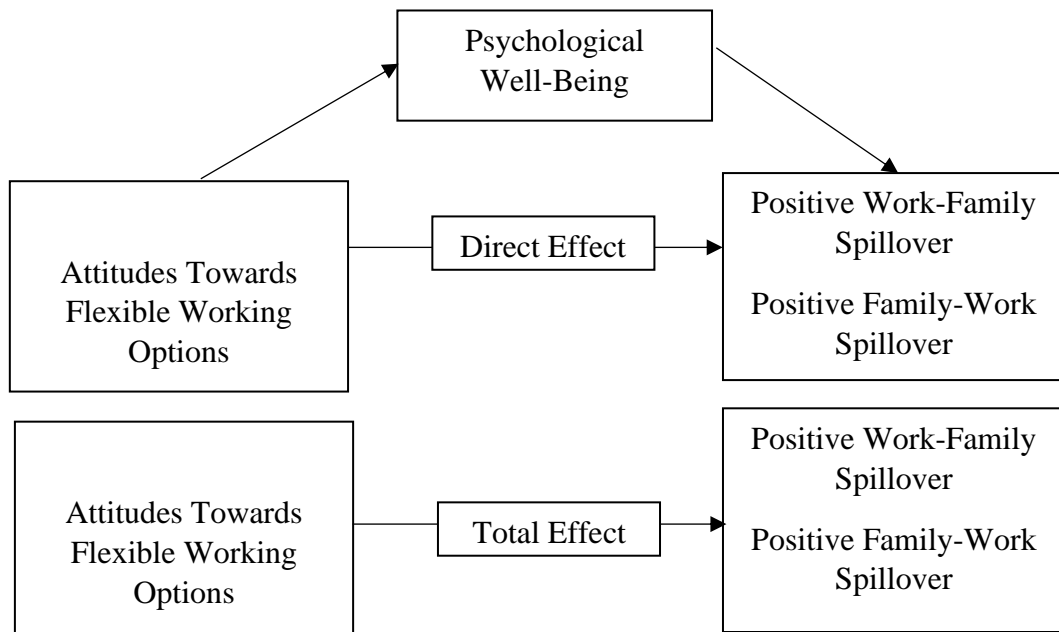
H2L: The other-employees dimension negatively and significantly affects negative family-work spillover ($\beta = -.119$; $p = .05$, Tolerance 0.876 VIF 1.142). This dimension of the independent variable explains 11% of the effect on the dependent variable.

3.3.3. The Mediating Effect of Psychological Well-Being on the Relationship Between Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options and Work-Family Spillover

"H3: Psychological well-being has a mediating role in the relationship between attitudes towards flexible working options and work-family spillover." Findings are presented in Figure 3.2., Table 3.7., Figure 3.3. and Table 3.8. The mediator analysis was used as a method. In Process Macro software, the role of intermediary was tested using Model 4 (Hayes, 2013). Process Macro, developed by Hayes (2013), is software added to the SPSS program that tests intermediary and regulatory effects by making multiple regressions.

As a result of the literature research, the research model based on the envisaged hypotheses was created, as shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1. Mediation Analysis Research Model



To test the H3A hypothesis; “Psychological well-being mediates the relationship between attitudes towards flexible working options and positive work-family spillover.” scores of the FWOs as an independent variable, psychological well-being as a mediator and positive work-family sub-dimension scores as a dependent variable were included in the mediation analysis.

Figure 3.2. The Mediator Effect of PWB on The Relationship Between FWOs and PWFS

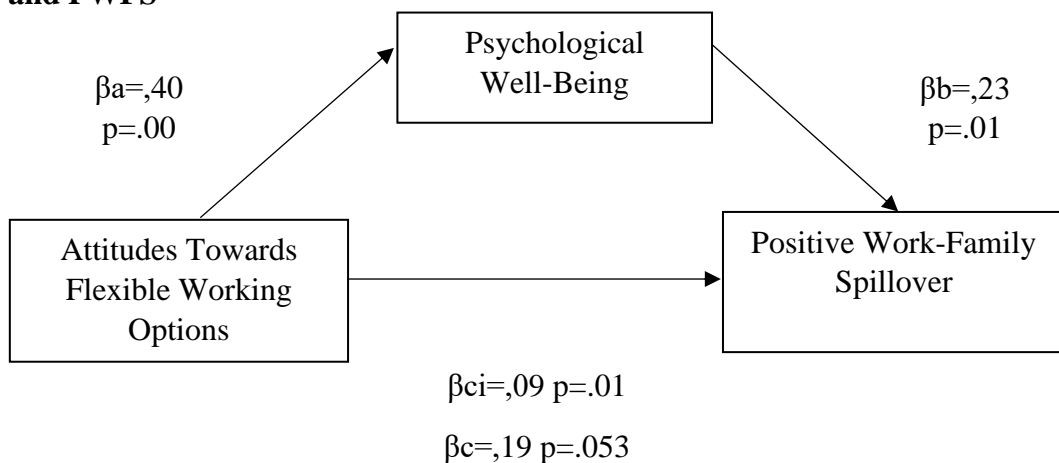


Table 3.9. The Mediator Effect of PWB on The Relationship Between FWOs and PWFS

Total Effects of FWOs on PWFS			Unstand.	SE	LLCI	ULCI
			0,2858	0,0969	0,0952	0,4763
Direct Effects of FWOs on PWFS						
			0,1916	0,099	-0,0032	0,3864
Indirect Effects of FWOs on PWFS via PWB						
Independent FWOs	Mediator > PWB	Dependent > PWFS	Unstand.	SE	LLCI	ULCI
			0,0942	0,0372	0,0299	0,1753

*FWOs= Attitudes Towards Flexible Working Options, PWB= Psychological Well-Being, PWFS= Positive Work-Family Spillover

In the first line of the table, there are total effect analysis results. It shows that FWOs have a statistically significant effect on PWFS. (B=.2858, $p=.003$, $p<.01$). However, there is no significant direct effect of FWOs on PWFS (B= .1916, $p=.053$).

The study examined the indirect effect in the 95% confidence interval with the Bootstrap technique (5000 samples). Since the Bootstrap confidence interval does not contain the highest and lowest values, the mediator effect was statistically significant. As shown in Table 3.7. and Figure 3.2, the indirect effect of the intermediary variable on the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is partially significant. While the direct effect is 0.1916, the indirect effect is 0.0942. The total effect is 0.2858.

As a result, in the absence of the mediator variable in the relationship between FWOs and PWFS, there is no significant direct effect, whereas there is a total effect between variables. The mediator variable alone affects this relationship by 8%. Therefore, the H3A hypothesis was supported.

To test the H3B hypothesis, FWOs' scores were used as independent variable, psychological well-being was used as a mediator, and positive family-work sub-dimension scores were used as the dependent variable. They were included in the mediation analysis.

Figure 3.3. The Mediator Effect of PWB on The Relationship Between FWOs and PFWS

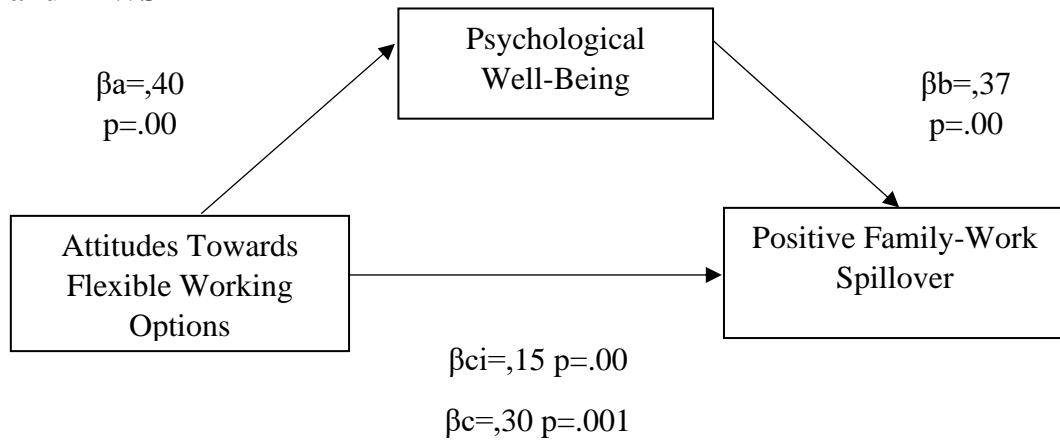


Table 3.10. The Mediator Effect of PWB on The Relationship Between FWOs and PFWS

Total Effects of FWOs on PFWS	Unstand.	SE	LLCI	ULCI	
	0,4534	0,0885	0,2793	0,6276	
Direct Effects of FWOs on PFWS					
	0,3003	0,0869	0,1294	0,4712	
Indirect Effects of FWOs on PFWS via PWB					
Independent Mediator	Dependent	Unstand.	SE	LLCI	ULCI
FWOs > PWB	> PFWS	0,1531	0,0481	0,0715	0,2562

*FWOs= Attitudes Towards Flexible Working Options, PWB= Psychological Well-Being, PFWS= Positive Family-Work Spillover

In the first line of the table, there are total effect analysis results. It shows that attitudes towards flexible working options have a statistically significant effect on positive family-work spillover (B=.4534, p=.000, p<.001).

The indirect effect was examined in the 95% confidence interval with the Bootstrap technique (5000 samples). Since the Bootstrap confidence interval does not contain the highest and lowest values, the mediator effect was statistically significant. As shown in Table 3.8. and Figure 3.3, the indirect effect of the mediator variable between the independent variable and dependent variable is

highly significant. While the direct effect is 0.3003, the indirect effect is 0.1531. The total effect is 0.4534. As a result, even in the absence of the mediator variable in the relationship between FWOs and PFWS, the relationship was significant between variables. The mediator variable alone affects the relationship by 15%. The mediator variable shows the effect of a full mediator role in the relationship between variables. Therefore, H3B hypothesis was supported.

3.3.4. Test Results of Hypothesis of the Research

The Table 3.9 provides the summary if the hypothesis are supported or not.

Table 3.11. Test Results of Hypotheses of the Research

Hypothesis	Result
H1: There is a significant difference between the work-family spillover mean scores of flexible and non-flexible workers.	Partially Supported
H1.A: Positive work-family spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.	Not Supported
H1.B: Positive family-work spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.	Not Supported
H1.C: Negative work-family spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.	Supported
H1.D: Negative family-work spillover mean scores of flexible employees differ significantly from those of non-flexible employees.	Not Supported
H2: Attitudes towards flexible working options significantly affect work-family spillover.	Partially Supported
H2.A: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects positive work-family spillover.	Supported
H2.B: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects positive work-family.	Supported
H2.C: Other-employees dimension significantly affects positive work-family.	Not Supported
H2.D: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects positive family-work spillover.	Supported

H2.E: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects positive family-work spillover.	Not Supported
H2.F: Other-employees dimension significantly affects positive family-work spillover.	Not Supported
H2.G: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects negative work-family spillover.	Supported
H2.H: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects negative work-family spillover.	Not Supported
H2.I: Other-employees dimension significantly affects negative work-family spillover.	Supported
H2.J: Work-life balance dimension significantly affects negative family-work spillover.	Supported
H2.K: Job responsibility dimension significantly affects negative family-work spillover.	Supported
H2.L: Other-employees dimension significantly affects negative family-work spillover.	Supported
H3: Psychological well-being has a mediating role in the relationship between attitudes towards flexible working options and work-family spillover.	Supported
H3.A: Psychological well-being increases the positive effect of attitudes towards flexible working options on positive work-family spillover.	Supported
H3.B: Psychological well-being increases the positive effect of attitudes towards flexible working options on positive family-work spillover.	Supported

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Today, flexibility, used in almost every field, has become a key concept. The concept of flexibility has started appearing in applications in business life in recent years, and these applications have increased with the Covid-19 pandemic. While flexible working models are firmly embedded in business life, it has already signaled that the concept of the future workforce and basic parameters such as where, when, and how work will be done will change and transform.

Companies offer their employees options for work-life balance to maintain a leading position in the rapidly changing workforce competition, attract the right talent to the company, adapt to market dynamics, and foster employee motivation and loyalty. It is essential that this option is given to the employee by the employer and that flexible working arrangements are implemented in business life.

In addition, it is thought that psychological well-being, defined as individuals' ability to use their full potential, will also affect their experiences in work and family life. For this reason, the mediating effect of psychological well-being, the attitude towards flexible working options and the variables of work-family spillover were examined in the thesis study. In addition, two groups were formed according to whether the person benefited from flextime/flexplace applications, which expresses whether they work flexibly or not. It was aimed to examine whether the work-family spillover mean scores of these two groups differed significantly. In summary, the concept of flexible working was evaluated together with positive and/or negative factors in work-family spillover. In addition, it was aimed to examine whether there is a mediating effect on psychological well-being among the variables.

4.1. Implications of the Study

When the studies in the literature are examined, it is seen that the concept of work-family conflict is used more frequently. Studies that can be supported by findings parallel to negative work-family / family-work spillover focused on experiencing less or more conflict are also supported in this research. The effect of the family-to-work direction is more overshadowed than the work-to-family direction. It has been emphasized that work-family spillover is more common than family-work spillover (Bartolome & Evans, 1980; Delong & Delong, 2011). This situation has caused the family-work spillover to overshadow the work-family spillover. Both aspects of work and family spillover have essential consequences for organizations, individuals, and families (Polatçı, 2011).

It has been found in the literature that there are significant effects between the concept of flexible working and work-family spillover as dependent and independent variables of the research, and it is in line with the significant findings obtained in this study (Pedersen et al., 2009; Lott, 2018; Hyland & Prottas, 2017; Tausig). & Fenwick, 2001; Kim et al., 2019; Bayazıt & Bayazıt, 2019; Radcliffe & Cassell, 2015)

As found in the mediator analysis in this thesis, attitudes towards flexible working options positively affect the psychological well-being of the employees; the literature supports this result (Wahab & Tatoğlu, 2019; Uglanova ve Dettmers, 2018; Reuschke, 2019; Gröpel & Kuhl, 2009; Işık et al., 2020). Furthermore, it was found that there is a relationship between psychological well-being and positive spillover of family-work / work-family. Therefore, psychological well-being positively affects the spillover of family-work / work-family, contrary to the findings of Kinnunen et al. (2006). This result provides a different contribution to the literature.

In the study conducted by Eroğlu (2004), it was found that employees who benefit from flexible working hours (flextime) have fewer work-family and family-

work conflicts. This result does not show parallelism with the finding of this thesis study. The fact that flexible workers are primarily found in the home environment causes an increase in the negative spillover from work to family.

In the study by Yavuz & Doğan (2018), the effect of work stress on the dimensions of a work-life balance was examined. Accordingly, in enterprises with flexible working practices, the tension in business affects the family life of employees. It has been determined that the effect of work on family life will increase as the tension increases. In addition, it has been concluded that the impact of the family on business life will increase when there is pressure on employees in businesses with flexible working practices. It is seen here that; It is thought that the tension at work spreads more to the home environment because the employees who do flexible work are more in the home environment. This finding showed that flexible workers' negative work-to-family/family-to-work spillover was significantly higher. This study is similar to the result that flexible workers have significantly higher negative work-family spillover mean scores than non-flexible workers. On the other hand, this significance was not found in negative family-work spillover.

In the study conducted by Turgut (2011), it was found that due to the workload, the work responsibilities of individuals naturally cause more time-based work-family conflict. In addition, it was stated that the negative emotions experienced due to the demanding work carried into family life, causing emotion-based work-family conflict. It shows parallelism with the finding of this study and can be explained more thanks to the concept of 'spillover.'

In this study, the job responsibility dimension of flexible working options showed negative significance to the positive work-family spillover of individuals. On the other hand, the dimension of job responsibility showed negative significance for family-work spillover. Therefore, with the increase in work responsibility, the person believes that the negativity that will spread from family to work will decrease.

In addition to the literature, the findings in this study; if the person has an attitude that their job responsibilities will increase with flexible working, they move away from work to spread positive effects on their home life. Because as work responsibility increases, there may be effects such as work stress related to workload. In this way, they can move away from work to spread positive effects on family life. However, it also spreads negative effects from family to business life less. Because the individual is busy with their job and they own their job. The high level of job ownership reflects the negativities in home life less on business life.

İpek (2020) showed that work-family conflict affects and increases individuals' burnout levels. Similarly, this result is frequently revealed in the literature (e.g., Maslach & Jackson, 1981). The support people get from family life can help them cope with their problems. However, the negativities in family life spillover to other areas of their lives and create an emotional burden. All these results show that any tension at work or in the family is transferred to other areas and negatively affects the well-being of people (İpek, 2020).

This thesis study, carried out in addition to the findings, showed that factors such as work-life balance and other employees in the attitude toward flexible working were positively and negatively influential in the work-family spillover. This research contributed to the findings in other studies more broadly.

Moreover, the concept of 'spillover,' which refers to the integration of work-family life, in which both the dimensions of balance and conflict can be addressed simultaneously, is relatively new, and more studies are needed in this area.

Lastly, this research offers a different perspective in evaluating the positive and negative effects of flexible working practices on the spillover of work-family life together. The results obtained from the current research can contribute to the organizational psychology literature, as well as an essential contribution for organizations and managers who want to get an idea about how flexible working practices affect employees' work and family lives.

For this reason, we can say that the current study has a scope and methodology that can guide people/institutions who will be interested in empirical results in these years when the workforce structure is rapidly changing and transforming. New working models are starting to enter our lives more.

4.2. Limitations of The Study

Several limitations may affect the interpretation of the results of this study.

- a) The research is limited to 2022.
- b) The study's findings are limited to the study group represented by the determined sample. It is a study done in Turkey.
- c) The data used in the research were collected at a single time. In other words, research data is in the form of cross-sectional data. This type of data does not allow a precise generalization of the causal relationships between the variables used in the study.
- d) Since the people in the research sample group were reached with the online form, a convenient sample method, it has a limitation in terms of generalization.
- e) Participation is voluntary. Voluntary participation in research may reveal response bias. This error limits the generalizability of the findings.
- f) Participants from different age ranges could be more involved. Likewise, if the variety of titles could be increased, more diverse scenarios could be produced.
- g) The impossibility of reaching the entire universe regarding the number of completed questionnaires is another study limitation.
- h) Although it is a good situation for the participants to complete without creating a missing value, Since the nine people sent the questionnaire

did not meet the criteria of being a full-time employee in the private sector, the questionnaire was finalized and could not be completed.

- i) The results obtained in the research are limited to the qualities measured by the Demographic Form, Attitudes towards Flexible Working Arrangements Scale, Work-Family Spillover Scale, and Psychological Well-Being Scale.

4.3. Further Studies

When the studies are examined, it generally shows the need for flexible working arrangements in work-family conflict. Research shows that some aspects of work and family life can contain negative aspects; however, positive aspects are not frequently encountered. The conflict between work and family is handled; or through the concept of work-life balance. However, these two concepts are integrated, especially in recent years; the diversity and flexibility of working times and places, and the ability to work in different places other than the workplace, have strengthened the spillover between work and family.

It is recommended to carry out more studies on work-family spillover, which shows the balance and conflict elements together as negative and positive spillover and work-family integration.

In future studies, it can be examined whether the responses of individuals between the dimensions of work-family spillover differ significantly according to their demographic data. In addition, different hypothetical evaluations can be measured, such as looking at the work-family spillover of the flexible worker or the differences between parent workers and single workers, depending on whether there is a dependent at home.

Workplace characteristics affect when, where, and how long work-related tasks are performed. While it is crucial to enact formal flexible working policies to enhance workplace flexibility (for example, flexible working time, location

flexibility, leave, and reduced working hours options), they are not sufficient on their own. There are widespread perceptions that workplace flexibility is associated with negative sanctions, so to truly achieve workplace flexibility, the organizational culture should explicitly support the use of flexible options (Voydanoff, 2008). In addition, it is essential to have an organizational culture that values all employees rather than simply "results". Thus, organizational support can be fostered.

With the increasing participation of women in the labor market and the transformation in the labor market, the work-family life balance has brought more policies and practices to ensure this balance. Accordingly, discussions on flexibility started, and flexible working and parental leave and childcare policies became one of the essential regulations of work-life balance policies. To increase the work-family spillover of people who are parents and are in business life, employers can also work on this issue. In terms of literature, research can be conducted to examine whether there is a significant difference between participants who state that they benefit from such practices in their companies and the samples of participants who say that they do not.

Additional actions should be developed by considering such negativities that may be experienced in practice. For example, it is essential to establish meeting-free hours to highlight the employee's work-life balance benefits. Online or face-to-face chat meetings may increase employee motivation and engagement. Employees' support with various practices such as different trainings for development and hobby clubs may provide employee socializing. In addition, trust and transparency should be served in the performance management in compensation. It is also vital to ensure employees will not have negative experiences while communicating with managers and internal/external stakeholders. Various additional applications can be developed to strengthen the digitalization infrastructure that will ensure the continuity of communication, to ensure the physical environment is suitable for work, and continue to make the employees feel the organizational culture and values.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ) (Turkish)

Aşağıda yer alan ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı 6'lı ölçek üzerinden işaretleyiniz.

		1 - Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2	3	4	5	6 - Kesinlikle katılıyorum
	Size uygun seçeneği X O √ ile işaretleyiniz.						
1	Esnek çalışma modelleri, iş dışındaki sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmemde yardımcı olur.						
2	Esnek çalışma modelleri, işyeri ile irtibatımı kaybetme hissi yarattığı için bana uygun değildir.						
3	Esnek saatlerde çalışmak ailevi sorumluluklarımı yerine getirebilmem için gereklidir.						
4	Esnek çalışma, iş dışındaki diğer ilgi ve sorumluluklarımı yerine getirebilmem için gereklidir.						
5	Esnek çalışma, iş yükü ve sorumluluklarımın değişkenliğini yönetebilmem için gereklidir.						
6	Esnek çalışma modelleri, işyerinde olduğum zamanda işime daha iyi odaklanmamı sağlar.						
7	İşyerindeki yöneticiler esnek çalışmadan faydalanan çalışanlara olumsuz tepki gösterirler.						
8	İşyerindeki çalışanlar esnek çalışmadan faydalanan çalışanlara olumsuz tepki gösterirler.						
9	Esnek çalışanlar, işlerindeki rol ve sorumluluklarını daha az sahiplenirler.						

- | | |
|----|--|
| 10 | Esnek çalışanlar, toplantılar, eğitimler ve duyurular gibi işleriyle ilgili önemli olayları ve iletişimlerini kaçırmazlar. |
|----|--|

Appendix B: Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ) (English)

Please mark on the 6-point scale to what extent you agree with the statements below.

Mark the option that suits you with an X O √.		1-Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6- Strongly agree
1	Flexible working models help me fulfill my responsibilities outside of work.						
2	Flexible working models do not suit me as it creates a feeling of losing contact with the workplace.						
3	Working with flexible hours is necessary for me to fulfill my family responsibilities.						
4	Flexible working is necessary for me to fulfill my other interests and responsibilities outside of work.						
5	Flexible working is necessary to manage the variability of my workload and responsibilities.						
6	Flexible working models allow me to better focus on my work when I am at work.						
7	Managers in the workplace react negatively to employees who benefit from flexible working.						
8	Employees in the workplace react negatively to employees who benefit from flexible working.						

9	Flexible workers take less ownership of their roles and responsibilities in their jobs.
10	Flexible workers miss important business events and communications, such as meetings, training, and announcements.

Appendix C: Work-Family Spillover Scale (Turkish)

Aşağıda yer alan ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı 6'lı ölçek üzerinden işaretleyiniz.

Size uygun seçeneği X O √ ile işaretleyiniz.		1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2	3	4	5	6-Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	İşte çok yorulduğumdan dolayı, evde odaklanmam gereken işlere odaklanamam.						
2	İşte yüklendiğim stres, evde sinirli olmama neden olur.						
3	İşteki problem ve sıkıntılar, evdeyken kafamı meşgul eder.						
4	İşim nedeniyle, evdeki faaliyetlerime daha az enerji harcamaktayım.						
5	Kişisel veya ailevi problemlerim, işteyken kafamı meşgul eder.						
6	Evde yüklendiğim stres, işte sinirli olmama neden olur.						
7	Evde gördüğüm sevgi ve saygı, işte kendime güvenmemi sağlar.						

8	Ev hayatı beni rahatlatır ve kendimi bir sonraki iş gününe hazır hissetmemi sağlar.
9	Evden birileri ile konuşmak, işteki problemler ile başa çıkmamı kolaylaştırır.
10	İşteki deneyimlerim, ev hayatı ile ilgili konularda bana yardımcı olur.
11	İşte yaptıklarım, evde bana daha iyi bir konum sağlar.
12	İşte kullandığım becerilerim, ev hayatımda bana faydalı olur.

Appendix D: Work-Family Spillover Scale (English)

Please mark on the 6-point scale to what extent you agree with the statements below.

Mark the option that suits you with an X O √.		1-Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6-Strongly agree
1	Because I'm so tired at work, I can't focus on the things I need to focus on at home.						
2	Stress at work makes me nervous at home.						
3	Problems and troubles at work occupy my mind when I am at home.						
4	Because of my job, I spend less energy on my activities at home.						
5	Personal or family problems preoccupy me at work.						
6	Stress at home makes me angry at work.						

7	The love and respect I get at home gives me confidence at work.
8	Home life relaxes me and makes me feel ready for the next working day.
9	Talking to someone at home makes it easier for me to deal with problems at work.
10	My experience at work helps me with matters related to home life.
11	What I do at work gives me a better position at home.
12	The skills I use at work will help me in my home life.

Appendix E: Psychological Well-Being Scale (Turkish)

Aşağıda yer alan ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı 6'lı ölçek üzerinden işaretleyiniz.

Size uygun seçeneği X O √ ile işaretleyiniz.		1 - Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2	3	4	5	6 - Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1	Amaçlı ve anlamlı bir yaşam sürdürüyorum						
2	Sosyal ilişkilerim destekleyici ve mutluluk verici.						
3	Günlük aktivitelerimle meşgul oluyorum ve onlara ilgi duyuyorum.						
4	Diğer insanların mutluluklarına ve iyi olmalarına aktif biçimde katkıda bulunuyorum.						
5	Benim için önemli olan aktivitelerde yeterli ve yetenekliyim.						
6	İyi bir insanım ve iyi bir yaşam sürüyorum.						

7	Geleceğim hakkında iyimserim.
8	İnsanlar bana saygı gösterir.

Appendix F: Psychological Well-Being Scale (English)

Please mark on the 6-point scale to what extent you agree with the statements below.

Mark the option that suits you with an X O √.		1-Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6-Strongly agree
1	I live a purposeful and meaningful life.						
2	My social relationships are supportive and happy.						
3	I am busy with my daily activities and I am interested in them.						
4	I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of other people.						
5	I am competent and talented in activities that are important to me.						
6	I am a good person and live a good life.						
7	I am optimistic about my future.						
8	People respect me.						

Appendix G: Demographic Data Form (Turkish)

1. Çalışma şekliniz hangisidir?:

() Özel Sektör - Tam Zamanlı Çalışan

() Diğer (Bu araştırma kapsamında; katılımcıların kurumsal hayatta çalışan tam zamanlı çalışanlar olması beklenmektedir. Bu seçeneği işaretlemeniz hâlinde, anket formu sonlanacaktır.)

- 2. Çalışma saati esnekliği (Flextime) düzenlemelerinden faydalaniyor musunuz? (Flextime : İşe başlama ve bitirme saatlerini belirleyebilme):**
() Evet () Hayır
- 3. Çalışma yeri esnekliği (Flexplace) düzenlemelerinden faydalaniyor musunuz? (Flexplace : Haftanın belirli günleri ya da her günü iş yeri dışında farklı bir lokasyondan çalışabilme):** () Evet () Hayır
- 4. İş sözleşmesine göre, çalışma süreniz haftada toplam kaç saattir?:**
.....
- 5. İş yükünüz açısından bakıldığında, haftada toplam kaç saat çalışıyorsunuz?:**
- 6. Fazla mesai alıyor musunuz?:** () Evet () Hayır
- 7. Cinsiyetiniz:** ()Kadın ()Erkek ()Diğer
- 8. Yaşınız:**
- 9. Medeni durumunuz:** () Evli () Bekâr () Boşanmış () Dul
- 10. Varsa çocuk sayınız?:** () 1 () 2 () 3 ve üzeri () Çocuğum yok
- 11. Varsa en küçük çocuğunuzun yaşı:** ()0-6 yaş ()7-12 yaş ()12-18 yaş ()19 yaş ve üzeri () Çocuğum yok
- 12. Aynı evde bakmakla yükümlü olduğunuz aile bireyleri (anne, baba, büyükanne veya büyükbaba vb.) var mı?:** ()Hayır ()Evet
- 13. Eğitim durumunuz:** ()İlkokul ()Ortaokul ()Lise ()Önlisans ()Lisans ()Yüksek Lisans ()Doktora
- 14. Mesleğiniz:**
- 15. İş yerindeki mevcut pozisyonunuz (Diğer ise lütfen belirtiniz):**
() Uzman Yardımcısı () Uzman () Kıdemli Uzman
() İlk kademe yönetici () Orta kademe yönetici () Üst kademe yönetici
() Diğer
- 16. Çalışmakta olduğunuz mevcut kurumunuzdaki çalışma süreniz:**
- 17. İş yaşamınızdaki toplam deneyim süreniz:**

Anket formu sona ermiştir. Değerli zamanınızı ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Appendix H: Demographic Data Form (English)

1. Which is your type of work?:

- Private Sector - Full-Time Employee
 Other (*Within the scope of this research, the participants are expected to be full-time employees working in corporate life. If you select this option, the survey form will end.*)

2. Do you benefit from Flextime arrangements? (Flextime: Ability to set start and end working times): Yes No

3. Do you benefit from Flexplace arrangements? (Flexplace: Ability to work on certain days of the week or every day from a different location outside the workplace): Yes No

4. According to the employment contract, how many hours per week do you work in total?:

5. In terms of your workload, how many hours do you work in total per week?:

6. Do you get overtime?: Yes No

7. Gender: Female Male Other

8. Age:

9. Marital status: Married Single Divorced Widowed

10. If yes, the number of children: 1 2 3 and above I have no children

11. Age of your youngest child, if any: 0-6 years old 7-12 years old 12-18 years old 19 years and over I have no children

12. Do you have any family members (mother, father, grandparent, etc.) to look after in the same house?: No Yes

13. Educational Status: Primary school Middle school High school (Associate Bachelor Master PhD

14. Profession:

15. Your current position at work (If other, please specify):

- Assistant Expert Expert Senior Expert First-level manager Middle-level manager Top-level manager Other

16. Length of employment in the company you work for:

17. Total experience in business life:

The survey form has ended. Thank you for your valuable time.

Appendix I: Informed Consent Form

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket formları İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Programlar Enstitüsü Endüstriyel/Örgütsel Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı'nda Danışman Doç. Dr. İdil Işık ve öğrencisi Yağmur Gezmiş tarafından yürütülmekte olan esnek çalışma, iş-aile yaşamı ve psikolojik iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkilerin incelendiği tez çalışmasına veri toplamak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz tüm bilgiler gizli tutulacak, hiçbir kimse ve/veya kuruluş ile paylaşılmayacak olup bilimsel araştırma için kullanılacaktır. Sorulara yanıt verirken objektif, samimi, gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtanız araştırmanın amacına ulaşması için önemlidir.

Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen isteğe bağlı olup katılımınız halinde ‘Yukarıdaki çalışmanın amacını ve içeriğini belirten bildiriye okudum, anladım ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.’ kısmı açılacaktır. O kısma ‘Evet’ diyerek çalışmaya başlayabilirsiniz. Başladıktan sonra dilediğiniz zaman mazeret bildirmeden vazgeçebilir veya yanıtlamak istemediğiniz soruyu cevapsız bırakabilirsiniz. Yarım bırakılmış soru formları veri tabanına dahil edilmeyecektir.

Anketlere ayıracağınız zaman ve göstereceğiniz özenden dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

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Yukarıdaki çalışmanın amacını ve içeriğini belirten bildiriye okudum, anladım ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Appendix J: Result of Evaluation by Ethics Committee

HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS SUB-COMMITTEE

EVALUATION OUTCOME

Dear Reviewer,

Please indicate the result of your review by first marking one of the following three choices. If you mark option two (“Revision is Needed”) or option three (“Reject”), please provide explanations for your decision.

Date of evaluation:

Signature:


Ryan Macey Wise


Gergely Czukor

1.	No revision is required. Data collection can be started <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
2.	Revision is needed _____ Comments:
3.	Rejected _____ Comments: