THRIVING AT WORK:

THE ROLE OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

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DECLERATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Thriving at Work: The Role of Work-Life Balance and Psychological Capital

The growing dynamism of the change in social, economic, and political conditions, influences work environments and thus, employees' work-life balance. In order to have a sustainable organizational performance, the need for a workforce constantly developing and feeling vital, namely thriving, is gaining importance. One of the purposes of organizational scholarship is to examine the impact of individual and collective outcomes on overall organizational performance, and for this purpose, it is emphasized that thriving is a critical stimulus to increase employee well-being and provides an understanding of organizational capabilities to achieve long-term adaptability. Therefore, organizational scholarship which focus on the understanding of the positive functioning' components in normal and adverse conditions can be enhanced in conjunction with further examination in thriving at work. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between thriving at work and work-life balance with the mediator role of psychological capital. For this aim, data were collected from 240 employees from various industries and occupational groups, using a one-phase questionnaire. According to the results of the study, it was evidenced that work-life balance and psychological capital have significant effects on thriving. Moreover, it was also observed that psychological capital has partially mediated the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work. The results support the significance of questioning the relationship between thriving at work, work-life balance and further individual or organizational variables for future research by considering uncertain and changing working condition.

ÖZET

İşte Kendini Yetiştirme: İş Yaşam Dengesi ve Psikolojik Sermayenin Rolü

Sosyal, ekonomik ve politik koşullardaki değişimin artan dinamizmi, çalışma ortamlarını ve dolayısıyla çalışanların iş yaşam dengesini etkilemektedir. Sürdürülebilir bir örgütsel performansa sahip olmak için sürekli gelişen ve canlı hisseden, yani işte kendini yetiştiren iş gücüne duyulan ihtiyaç önem kazanmaktadır. Örgütsel bilimin amaçlarından biri, bireysel ve kolektif sonuçların örgütsel performans üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir ve bu amaçla, işte kendini yetiştirmenin çalışanların refahını artırmak için kritik bir destekleyici olduğu ve uzun vadeli uyum sağlamak için örgütsel yeteneklerin anlaşılmasını sağladığı vurgulanmaktadır. Bu sebeple, olağan ve olumsuz koşullarda pozitif işleyiş bileşenlerinin anlaşılmasına odaklanan örgütsel bilim, işte kendini yetiştirme alanında yapılacak daha yoğun inceleme ile birlikte geliştirilebilir. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, işte kendini yetiştirme ile iş yaşam dengesi arasındaki ilişkiyi psikolojik sermayenin aracı rolü ile incelemektir. Bu amaçla, çeşitli sektör ve meslek gruplarından 240 çalışandan tek aşamalı anket yöntemiyle veri toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, iş yaşam dengesi ve psikolojik sermayenin işte kendini yetiştirme üzerinde önemli etkileri olduğu kanıtlanmıştır. Ayrıca, psikolojik sermayenin, iş yaşam dengesi ve işte kendini yetiştirme arasındaki ilişkide kısmi aracı rolünün olduğu görülmüştür. Araştırmanın sonuçları, gelecekteki araştırmalar için işte kendini yetiştirme ile iş yaşam dengesi ve diğer bireysel veya örgütsel değişkenler arasındaki ilişkinin, belirsiz ve değişen çalışma koşulları dikkate alınarak sorgulanmasının önemini desteklemektedir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Economic, social, climate or political changes taking place in today's world cause an extraordinary dynamism both in domestic and global working environments. There is a huge transition in working conditions particularly with the development of technology, close interaction between countries, and individuals being in continuous communication with each other through online social networks. After the Covid-19 pandemic, which is seen as one of the biggest pillars of this change, with new regulations such as remote or hybrid working in the workplace environment, the boundaries between work and home life is getting blurred day by day (Knight, Parker, & Keller, 2020). On the other hand, employees who participate in this new and dynamic world of business life remotely, feel strained between the changing work systems and home life (Shao, Fang, Wang, Chang, & Wang, 2021; Yuan, Ye, & Zhong, 2021). These shifts in working models shed light on the researches of related concepts which are work-life balance referring the balance between emotional, behavioral and time demands in work, personal and family life (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001) and thriving at work that is a psychological state that one experience sense of learning and sense of vitality at work (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005, p. 538).

According to the job demands-resources model, in these periods when work and non-work life are intertwined, organizational, work, home and personal demands and the resources to meet these demands are more and more interdependent to each other (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022, p. 12). Therefore, organizations more than ever need a workforce that perpetually feels vital and develops in variable working

conditions for a more sustainable performance (Prem, Ohly, Kubicek, & Korunka, 2017; Spreitzer, Porath, & Gibson, 2012). Since individuals starting to devote most of their time to their work (Schor, 1993) and since employees from younger generation now wish to work in jobs where they can use their skills and continuously develop themselves (Islam, Cheong, & Desa, 2011) the thriving at work field has started to become one of the focal issue for employees too. In the organizational behavior scholarship, both psychological capital and thriving are described as positive psychological states and the development of both is discussed in the workplace context (Luthans, 2002; Spreitzer et al., 2005). The personal resource of psychological capital, which is the cumulation of four positive psychological states, namely hope, self-efficacy, optimism and resilience, is evidenced to be another concept that has a positive relationship between work-life balance (Samroodh et al., 2023) because psychological capital is seen as a substantial personal resource that enables the creation of beneficial capabilities to deal with job pressures and work stress (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Previously in the literature, thriving at work is found to have links with individual characteristics such as psychological capital and work engagement, and employee outcomes such as burnouts (Kleine, Rudolph, & Zacher, 2019). Additionally, work-life balance is found to support the positive energy of the employee (Marcello Russo, Shteigman, Carmeli, Hapoalim, & Aviv, 2015) and thus contributing thriving. However, more studies are needed to understand the concept of thriving at work which has a growing significance in improving and motivating the workforce of organizations by recognizing the fact that most of the employees are now in more interconnected work and non-work lives (Porath, Gibson, & Spreitzer, 2022). In line with these circumstances, this study primarily aims to examine the role of divergent antecedents

on employees' thriving at work through investigating the relationship between thriving at work, work-life balance, and psychological capital. Furthermore, the study focuses on the importance and mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work and moderator roles of gender and work type in the model.

CHAPTER 2

THRIVING AT WORK

Due to changing economic, political, and social circumstances, organizations experience an extraordinarily dynamic domestic and global environment. As a result, their need for a workforce that is constantly developing and feeling energized that is maintaining thriving, is gaining significance to have a sustainable and better performance (Prem et al., 2017; Spreitzer et al., 2012). It is mentioned that organizational scholarship tends to examine the impact of individual and collective outcomes on overall organizational performance and thriving is an important stimulator to boost employee health and well-being and provides an understanding of organizational capabilities for long term adaptability. Therefore, research on thriving may enhance development in organizational scholarship that aims to figure out the components of positive functioning not only in adverse conditions but also in ordinary conditions (G. M. Spreitzer & Sutcliffe, 2007).

In the early literature, the word “thriving” is used in different fields especially such medicine as failure to thrive and it is used specifically to point out poor health, so the ability to thrive is associated with positive health. The concept is firstly discussed in detailed in psychology discipline as “thriving paradigm” and the reason for the emergence of it was desiring to move away from the dominant psychology approaches of not being able to fight, being weak and incapable, to focus more on the power and ability of an individual in the face of adversity (O’Leary & Ickovicis, 1995). Thriving at work is discussed for the first time by Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein and Grant (2005) and in this study, the concept is explained as follows: "psychological state in which individuals experience both a sense of vitality and a

sense of learning at work" (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005, p. 538). In this definition, vitality refers to the feeling of aliveness, alert, and energy while learning is explained as the acquirement and application of knowledge and skills. It is stated that thriving, which is a psychological state, is more temporary and can change according to the conditions that individuals have and the three definitions (thriving, vitality, learning) are connected as follows; while individuals thrive, they feel momentum and forward moment with the sense of vitality (aliveness) and sense of learning (greater understanding and knowledge) (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Therefore, it is highlighted that in order to thrive at work experiencing both vitality and learning is necessary. If a person feels energetic and alive at work but does not improve through his work, he feels stagnated. Likewise if an individual is working in a job that he knows has developed and acquired new skills but is not full of excitement and energy towards his work, in this case he tends to feel exhausted over time (Spreitzer et al., 2012). Spreitzer (2005) emphasizes that there are three major reasons for using the joint sense of vitality and learning in the definition of thriving at work. First, subjective development contains both cognitive (learning) and sentimental (vitality) dimensions of psychological experience. Second, psychological development and progression encompasses both constructs reflecting hedonic and eudaimonic approaches. In other words, according to the hedonic approach, individuals seek jobs or experiences that they can enjoy, and this aspect represents vitality. On the other hand, in the eudaimonic perspective, people aim to become the best they can be, to discover their full potential, and this is represented by learning dimension (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Spreitzer et al., 2005; Waterman, 1993). Third, individuals consider both vitality and learning elements are essential for their sustainable, forward-looking development. In order to clarify the concept, thriving has been examined in which

aspects the concept differs when compared to similar notions. For instance, when resilience and thriving are compared, it is seen that the concept of resilience refers to a behavioral way of coping with adversity, challenges and threats, on the contrary, thriving is a psychological experience that can proceed in both positive and negative situations (Masten & Reed, 2002; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Additionally, although thriving and flourishing, a positive mental state, has similarities from the focus on positive human functioning, flourishing may occur without learning experience while thriving cannot (Spreitzer et al., 2005). As thriving refers to a state rather than a propensity, people's thriving states can change over time or in a daily basis. The environment, situation and responsibilities in which a person embedded in, influence the thriving experience (Spreitzer et al., 2005). In addition, the concepts of vitality and learning that make up the definition of thriving are based on a subjective experience, and individuals can experience thriving at different levels, including with people in the same groups (Sonenshein, Dutton, Grant, Spreitzer, & Sutcliffe, 2013; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Examining thriving allows individuals to understand their mental strength in the short term and their resilience and skills in the long term at work, and enables people to gage their own sense of progress (Porath, Spreitzer, & Garnett, 2012). It is declared that investigating thriving as a field and with her model socially embedded model of thriving at work, brings a new perspective to the existing self-adaptation literature which is individuals' ability to self-adapt in organizations based more on formal mechanisms such as feedback. Understanding the thriving at work and the social embeddedness model let individuals direct their self-assessments with the awareness of their learning and vitality capabilities and their own psychological states (Spreitzer et al., 2005). This model and its dimensions are discussed in the next sections.

2.1 Self-determination theory

Before moving on to the socially embedded model of thriving, the brief introduction about the self-determination theory, which is mentioned as one of the guidance of socially embedded model of thriving, is valuable in order to understand the model and apprehend what the model is built on. Self-determination theory explains that people are more motivated and have better well-being in work environments where they experience psychological need satisfaction. According to this theory, organizations that have contextual features enhancing satisfaction of the three universal psychological needs, support work engagement and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000): (1) competence that corresponds to the sense of efficacy in handling the environment (Bandura, 1977) and using surrounding resources effectively (Ryff, 1989), (2) autonomy which refers to the feeling that their behavior emerges and is implemented of their own will, and (3) relatedness that is the sentiment of belongingness to the related network (Bowlby, 1979). In accordance with self-determination theory, individuals are open to feeling more vital and developing under supporting work context features in their works where they make decisions with their own will and act accordingly (Richard M. Ryan & Deci, 2000; G. Spreitzer et al., 2005). The socially embedded model of thriving specifically defines the contextual features and focus on the resources created as a result of the features.

2.2 Socially embedded model of thriving at work

The “Socially Embedded Model of Thriving” (SEMT) is developed by Spreitzer (2005) and basically proposes the statement that thriving is socially embedded at work with two main reasons. First, the two elements of thriving, vitality, and learning, are based on social networks and people shape their self-development

through reciprocal interaction. Secondly, learning is not a process that the individual progresses alone, on the contrary, individuals determine their own learning path with all their observations and interactions that they establish with related social networks (G. Spreitzer et al., 2005). The main argument of the model is people's ability to thrive depends on the work context they are attached to. In other words, the relationship is likened to a process as follows, certain work contexts in which individuals are involved trigger their agentic behavior, and agentic behaviors seen as "engine of thriving" provide the thriving experience (G. Spreitzer et al., 2005). In this model (as shown in Figure 1), two aspects of work contexts are examined: "the social structural features of the focal work unit context and resources produced in the doing of work" (G. Spreitzer et al., 2005, p. 504). First of all, when individuals are embedded in decision-making discretion, broad information sharing, and a climate of trust and respect unit contexts, their tendency to exhibit agentic behavior increases and this results in higher thriving experience. The second is that people with agentic behavior generate a set of resources (knowledge, positive meaning, positive affect, and relational resources) as a result of their work, which will in turn facilitate agentic behavior (G. Spreitzer et al., 2005). It is also stated that thriving also stimulate agentic behavior with the belief of sustaining success and satisfaction over time. In other words, almost all aspects in this model exhibit a spiral or recursive process interacting each other (Fredrickson, 2003; Goh et al., 2021) .

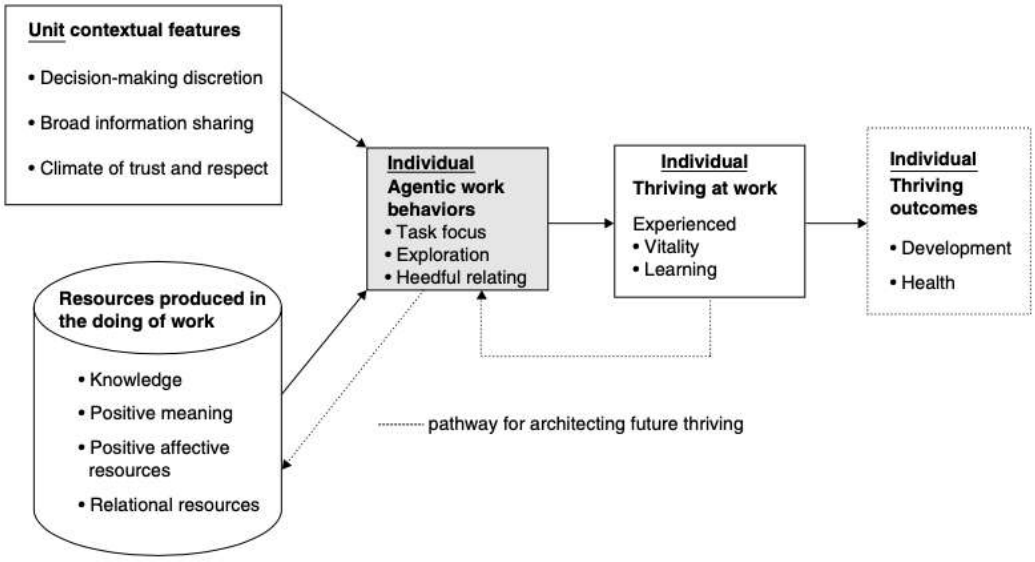


Figure 1. The social embeddedness of thriving at work (G. Spreitzer et al., 2005)

People act agentically when they are active and working towards a goal and in this model three main agentic behaviors boosting thriving at work: task focus, exploration and heedful relating (Bandura, 2001; G. Spreitzer et al., 2005). Task focus expresses the level of focus on one's behavior while fulfilling one's responsibilities and increases the thriving experience by impacting vitality and learning states in various ways. People who are better focused on the task feel more energetic, that is, more vital, with their immersion in their work and therewithal the satisfaction of the work successfully completed (Deci et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Moreover, when people are focused on their tasks, they tend to work more effectively by developing new routines and plans, which supports learning. On the contrary, if the requirements of the task are not fulfilled and the sense of achievement is not achieved, there will be a feeling of incompetence, and this brings with it a feeling of not learning. Furthermore, exploration, another psychological need, increases both vitality in terms of increasing curiosity, excitement and therefore energy in people, and learning with ready-to-apply knowledge and skills

brought by newly explored areas (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Finally, when individuals are heedful in their relations with others, they act according to this relationship, knowing their own job responsibilities and the job responsibilities of others and how those responsibilities interact with each other. This behavior supports both vitality as it increases social support and cooperation, and learning through observation of the working systems and perspectives of the social connections (Spreitzer et al., 2005).

The unit contextual features are referred to as social structural enablers of thriving. When work contexts include discretion, information sharing, and a climate of trust and respect, this promotes agentic behaviors to enhance their tendency to have higher influence upon thriving (Spreitzer et al., 2005). First, decision-making discretion refers to an individual's ability to make their own decisions and according to Spreitzer, if a person works in a work context that supports decision-making discretion, it stimulates that person's sense of autonomy, which facilitates exhibiting agentic behavior (Lawler III, 1992; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Decision-making discretion primarily encourages task focus, with own free thinking and a sense of having their own areas of control over the tasks, without the pressure and coercion of others (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Second, the decision-making discretion feature allow the individual to have a word in organizational decisions and to take more initiative by acquiring new skills and information, which increases exploration (Spreitzer, 1996). Third, with more involvement in organizational process, individual's interaction with others rise and this results is more heedful individuals in relations (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Furthermore, broad information sharing is associated with knowledge acquired to make better decisions and results in feeling of confidence (Spreitzer, 1996). The knowledge gained improves problem-

solving skills, especially in uncertain and challenging processes, thus giving the person competence, which in turn increases exploration (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002). In addition, individuals with a broader knowledge network develop their ability to see the "big picture", which enables them to develop ideas that can contribute not only to the individual but also to the organization, so they can communicate more heedfully with those at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005; Weick & Roberts, 1993). In the climates of trust and respect, people have a tendency to feel autonomous, efficacious, and competent on handling job demands and since especially the trust makes people feel safe in the work environment, it also enables exploration (Spreitzer, 1995; Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002). Additionally, individuals feel more valued because of feelings of trust and respect, which in turn stimulates more collaboration with others at work and thus fosters more heedful relations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

While individuals act agentically, they produce resources in doing their works. These resources are produced endogenously and may be both individual with one's own effort or collective creation by means of interaction with other people in the work environment. They differ from other resources in that they are rebuildable or renewable and are more ephemeral resources (Feldman, 2004; Worline, Dutton, Frost, Lilius, & Kanov, 2004). The SEMT suggests that a type of positive spiral exists between agentic work behaviors and the resources created in the doing of work. The resources promoted by agentic work behaviors serve to further fuel the agentic work behaviors, and thus support maintaining thriving (Fredrickson, 2003; Spreitzer et al., 2005). The resources in the SEMT is headlined as agentic enablers of thriving and they contains knowledge, positive meaning, positive affective resources, and relational resources (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Knowledge resources is

understanding how things are done and includes knowing the source and the person responsible for the information (Moreland & Argote, 2003; Orlikowski, 2002). The effort of individuals to learn something new and their tendency to explore, namely exploration, increases the knowledge resource. In addition, the connections that individuals interact with during exploration also support knowledge resource. Apart from this, in works that go beyond their own work scope, individuals know that they are dependent on other people for the solution of that work, and this brings about acting more heedfully in relations (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Moreover, positive meaning includes the inherent purpose and value of the work, and it boosts all agentic behaviors highlighted in the model. Having the agentic behavior of task focus in a challenging task provides intrinsic motivation, and positive meaning is created with this motivation caused by task focus (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Also, exploration may results in positive meaning by adding new perspectives on comprehending the significance and meaning of their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Furthermore, positive affective resources are the feelings such as joy, gratitude, hope, peace and contentment that individuals gain in doing of work (Fredrickson, 2003; Roberts, Dutton, Spreitzer, Heaphy, & Quinn, 2005). Individuals with task focus agentic behavior are more likely to experience positive emotion, as they have a higher tendency to be successful in their tasks (Brown & Ryan, 2003). In addition, when something new is explored, positive emotions such as the joy and excitement of finding something new occur. Finally, environments with more heedful relationships allow for the creation of positive affective resources, as employees feel that they receive fair treatment from their environment and that their well-being is valued in general (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Relational resources represent high-quality connections between individuals and are gained through

bilateral or collective relationships. (Dutton, 2003; Roberts et al., 2005). In cases where the task focus is not individually or collectively, tasks may fail and this will cause conflict between connections, and in this respect, task focus supports relational resources (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). In addition, connections that are more heedful and thoughtful in their relationships create positive relational resources (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003).

In the other part of the spiral relationship of the model mentioned above, it is posited that the resources produced by the agentic behavior fuels back the agentic behavior (Spreitzer et al., 2005). People who have access to information can easily use this information in their tasks, thus providing task focus. Additionally, individuals who interact with more people can experience and recombine the different information they have gained from them with new perspectives in their current work, that is, exploration is enabled. Individuals tend to relate more heedfully as they combine new information with existing ones and see how their work fits into the more general picture (Spreitzer et al., 2005). First, through positive meaning, tasks that are seen as more meaningful are prioritized by individuals and with a positive approach, they are seen as an opportunity to be developed even in the most difficult conditions, which promotes task focus (Davis, Nolen-Hoeksema, & Larson, 1998; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Besides, positive meaning stimulates individuals to increase exploration to find solutions for most works that they acknowledge as more crucial. And finally, positive meaning is built up through relationships with others. As they feel more interdependent to each other, it enables everyone to interact with a more heedful relation (Spreitzer et al., 2005). Individuals with positive affective resources have a quick recovery against deprecating emotions and challenges thanks to their positive mindset and feelings, and they can continue their

task focus in this way (Fredrickson, 1998). Secondly, it creates exploration as positive feelings increase the capacity of thought and perception. Finally, people with increased perceptual capacity also pay more attention to their relationships, and their heedfully relational tendency increases (Fredrickson, 1998). Individuals with quality connections are very open to adding creative perspectives to the vision and discovering new things, as they can create a wide emotional space with those in this bond (Losada & Heaphy, 2004). Since strong connections create psychological safety in the person, individuals are open to exploration in order to find new ways of working (Edmondson, 1999) Thus, relational resources encourages exploration. Having positive connections creates a desire to add to these connections new ones, accordingly supports heedfully relational with others (Miller & Stiven, 1997).

Recently, Porath, Gibson and Spreitzer (2022) stated that beyond the work contexts (the unit contextual features and resources of doing of work) shaped by the organization which are also accepted as the antecedents of thriving in the SEMT, there are also different strategies that can be employed by individuals to stimulate their own thriving and thus they expanded the SEMT by adding new "extended antecedents" of thriving (Porath et al., 2022). The extension in the model is explained by the fact that each individuals experience the work environment in a different ways, and also that the undeniable size of the workforce is now working independently or remotely (Ashford, Caza, & Reid, 2018; Porath et al., 2022). This more independent way of working is specifically named in the literature as "gig economy", which is associated with work, career and financial insecurity, disconnection with colleagues and increased autonomy, argues that a person is only responsible for himself, here in this world, the gig workers mostly work independently outside organizations in this economy (Ashford et al., 2018; Fleming,

2017). According to the extended version of SEMT, besides the prior antecedents in the model, there are 3 other ways individuals can create and maintain their own thriving which are selfcare, relationships and community (Porath et al., 2022). The first pathway, self-care, is especially valuable for employees who are physically and psychologically distant from each other in new working conditions, to understand how to prioritize self-care that will increase their own thriving (Porath et al., 2022; Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). Recovery is essential for thriving as it provides a more sustained performance over time, and thriving can be improved by providing the required energy (vitality) with adequate sleep (Porath et al., 2022; Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). Energy management tactics such as renewing mental energy with routines, exercises, long breaks on holidays and weekends, namely breaks and crafting meaningful work via job crafting also boost individuals energy providing recovery and thus facilitate thriving experience (Porath, 2022; Porath et al., 2022; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). The last form of self-care is through non-work activities. It has been observed that thriving outside of work also increases the thriving experience at work, that is, thriving experiences shift between work and home contexts (Porath et al., 2022; Porath et al., 2012). The second pathway, relationships is seen as a significant way to sustain thriving as thriving is deepened in social systems (Spreitzer et al., 2005, p. 539), and having good connection is ensured by respect, helping others and play (Porath et al., 2022). These relationships can be with a leader, coworker, or anyone else at work, and helping others and creating playful activities within the organization build relationships. In addition, people who care and respect by listening to and paying attention to the people around them develop their relationships regardless of where they are working, namely remotely or in-office (Porath et al., 2022). Third pathway, thriving takes place when individuals

engage in communities outside of their work including, the communities collaborated with own organization, local neighborhood, communities of practice and online communities (Porath et al., 2022). It is emphasized that collaborations with external communities connected to the organization they work with improve the strategic resources of employees and organizations (Gibson, Gibson, & Webster, 2021) and collaborations in which employees are involved voluntarily improve both their own thriving and the organization's thriving (Porath et al., 2022; Rodgers, Choy, & Guiral, 2013). Being a part of neighborhood communities that are established outside of work in the local environment, can strengthen non-work relationships such as family and friendship relations (Gonzalez, Ragins, Ehrhardt, & Singh, 2018) and this results in constitution of psychological, social and physical resources (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Porath et al., 2022). In addition, these non-work connections help offset the stress of work domain' demands (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). Finally, with the transition to more technology-based, remote and independent working methods, while existing ties with organizations are weakening, ties to practice-based and online communities are developing, which provides sustainment in thriving by changing the way people manage themselves and their communities (Porath et al., 2022).

2.3 Antecedents of thriving at work

There are studies proving that task focus, heedful relation, and exploration, which are given as agentic behaviors, are antecedents of thriving, as suggested by the socially embedded model of thriving (Goh et al., 2021; Sia & Duari, 2018) For instance, supervisor support and psychological capital's effect on thriving is examined by Paterson (2014) and heedful relating and task focus is found to be the mediators in

this hypothesized model (Paterson, Luthans, & Jeung, 2013). Also, in another study, which is conducted in a daily basis, it is also found that task focus and exploration (agentic behaviors) conveyed the impact of positive meaning (resource) on thriving (Niessen, Sonnentag, & Sach, 2012). Furthermore, the connection between proactive personality or proactivity which briefly refers to the tendency to initiate a change in challenging and different situations, and thriving has investigated by various researches and a positive relationship is found repeatedly (Jiang, 2017; Kleine et al., 2019). Job demands and job resources both have an impact on thriving. Prem, Ohly, Kubicek and Korunka 's (2017) study showed that time pressure and learning demands had a positive effect on thriving because it is perceived as a challenge for the individual to develop self, but on the contrary, if this is perceived as a restrictive and stressful experience, it may negatively affect thriving (Prem et al., 2017). Role ambiguity and overload which are accepted as high job demands are found to have a detrimental effect on thriving (Gkorezis, 2016) and ambiguity (Jiang, Jiang, & Nielsen, 2019). On the contrary, job resources has positive effects that promote thriving (Kleine et al., 2019). Moreover, the relationship between the field of support and thriving has been examined in the literature. Similar to the significance of relation as a resource on agentic behaviors and thus indirectly on thriving, employees are constantly interacting with each other, and having this interaction built on supportive relationships can enable one to thrive at work. In line with this argument, perceived organizational support (Paterson et al., 2013), workplace support (Zhai, Wang, & Weadon, 2020) and supportive coworker behavior (Frazier & Tupper, 2016) are proven to be related to thriving in a positive way. Besides, the focus on unit contextual features and social connections in the socially embedded model of thriving has been the starting point for understanding how leadership affects thriving

(Goh et al., 2021). According to Li, Liu, Han and Zhang (2016), empowering leadership enables thriving at work (Li, Liu, Han, & Zhang, 2016). It is also acknowledged that authentic leaders supported the thriving of followers with the mediator role of psychological safety climate (Xu, Zhao, Li, & Lin, 2017) positive leader–member exchange and empathy (Mortier, Vlerick, & Clays, 2016) Additionally, servant leadership and thriving has a positive relationship as well (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2017). In the thriving at work antecedents literature, it has also been identified that perceived stress and thriving at work have a negative relationship (Cullen, Gerbasi, & Chrobot-Mason, 2015) while there is a positive relationship between work engagement and thriving (Kleine et al., 2019).

2.4 Outcomes of thriving at work

Thriving at work's outcomes are relatively less studied in the literature compared to the other popular research areas. In particular, the consequences of thriving at work on other fields are examined with the hypotheses given based on the effects of learning and vitality, which constitute the thriving experience. Firstly, both vitality and learning make an individual to acquire energy and knowledge to cope with challenging work related stressors and demands which is presumed to act as a counter in the increase in burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Kleine et al., 2019; Spreitzer et al., 2012). Considering this statement, it is found that thriving and burnout has a negative relationship (Niessen, Mäder, Stride, & Jimmieson, 2017). Moreover, according to socially embedded model, thriving promotes better mental and physical health since the feeling of vitality and learning diminishes psychological distress signs such as fatigue (Porath et al., 2012; Ryan & Frederick, 1997; Walumbwa, Muchiri, Misati, Wu, & Meiliani, 2018). In line with

this, thriving at work is demonstrated as having a positive relationship with subjective health. It has been observed that positive states such as vitality stimulate the resources that support task performance (Fredrickson, 2001). In addition, individuals expand their knowledge thanks to their learning capabilities, thus improving their performance (Rose, Kumar, & Pak, 2009). Accordingly, it has been proven that there is a positive relationship between thriving at work and task performance. (Frazier & Tupper, 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2018). Furthermore, since people who are more alive in their work feel more encouraged and motivated, they are more likely to take further initiatives that will affect both themselves and the organization, and in parallel with this view, a positive relationship has been reached between thriving at work and organizational citizenship behavior (Kabat- Farr & Cortina, 2017). Individuals with new knowledge and skills as a result of enhanced learning and energy achieve more innovative and creative results as they reach an inspired and motivated mindset that develops tasks they are responsible from. Based on this argument, it was found that thriving at work positively affects creativity, innovation and creative performance (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, & Smith, 2016). Learning is a significant resource to achieve work-related individual or organizational goals. As a result of the learning that creates new skills and knowledge, and the vitality that creates a positive feeling and satisfaction, these goals are achieved and accordingly, individuals can observe changes in their job attitude (Kleine et al., 2019). In Goh et al.'s (2021) review (Goh et al., 2021), the areas where thriving at work is positively or negatively related are summarized as follows: it is positively related to affective organizational commitment (Walumbwa et al., 2018), work engagement (Ren, Yunlu, Shaffer, &

Fodchuk, 2015) and job satisfaction (Jiang, Di Milia, Jiang, & Jiang, 2020) and negatively related to turnover intention (W. Chang, Busser, & Liu, 2020).

CHAPTER 3

WORK-LIFE BALANCE

Today's working conditions have come to a certainly competitive point compared to the past, especially due to the change and development of technology, dynamic interaction between countries, social networks that is supporting reciprocal influence such as LinkedIn, consumption preferences and work styles. Changes affecting the workplace environment, such as the flexible working conditions and remote working system brought by the Covid-19 pandemic, blur the boundaries between work and home life day by day (Knight et al., 2020). Work life has so suppressed non-work life that employees do not have time to spare for a vacation, and even if they do, they continue to follow their business even on vacation, thanks to the expanded mobile networks (Budhiraja & Kant, 2020). In parallel with these alteration in working conditions, studies conducted has reached that the work-family balance of the employees is affected by the shift in work and non-work models, which in turn impacts work outcomes such as job satisfaction and performance (Burk, Mausolf, & Oakleaf, 2021; Carillo, Cachat-Rosset, Marsan, Saba, & Klarsfeld., 2021; Shirmohammadi, Au, & Beigi, 2022). In organizational scholarship, there is a growing interest to scrutinize the influence of the work-life balance on related work outcomes in these new conditions.

Work-life balance as a research field, which has an increasing significance for individuals, society and organizations, has started to be scrutinized with the increase in dual-career couples and single-parent households, that is, shift in the traditional family structure and accordingly with the reality of that work, home and child responsibilities are no longer limited to traditional gender roles (Byron, 2005).

Employees struggling in the interrelationship between work and private life have begun to experience dilemma to balance both sides, so that work-life or work-family balance became a research and theory in order to better examine these issues (Kossek, Noe, & DeMarr, 1999). There are various meanings attached to work-life balance, so that the concept is referred as multidimensional (Frone, Quick, & Tetrick., 2003). One definition of work-life balance based on the multiple roles of individuals have emerged with the observation that the demands of the employees outside of work (such as family demands) can be reflected in their work, and so that it can negatively affect job performance and tire the individual mentally (Kalliath & Brough, 2008). It has been explained that the transfer of these work and non-work demands is bidirectional, that is, both from home to work and from work to home, and with this bidirectional multiple role interaction, work-life balance is explained as follows: "work–family balance reflects an individual's orientation across different life roles, an inter role phenomenon" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). In line with this definition of role balance, Kirchmeyer (2000) stated that a balanced life means having satisfying experiences in all life domains and that personal resources such as energy and time must be allocated among these different domains in order to achieve it (Kirchmeyer, 2000). Another definition of work-life balance is appertaining to conflict or interference. This conflict-based definition, which was dominant in the literature in the past, has a more negative approach than the concept of balance and focus mostly on the unbalanced outcomes of work and non-work activities' combination (Chang, Mcdonald, & Burton, 2010). When role pressures in work and family areas are not mutually compatible, contention between roles occurs, which is called work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Clark (2000) has also defined work-family

balance as being able to do a satisfactory functioning both at work and at home with minimal role conflict (Clark, 2000). In other words, balance is seen as a composition obtained by subtracting work-family conflict from work-family facilitation and family-work conflict from family-work facilitation (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Here, work-family facilitation is expressed such that work and family have an intercourse that complements and influences each other and thus both work-family conflict and work-family facilitation have two distinct domains (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). In Sirgy and Lee's integrative review of work-life balance (2018), it is mentioned that many researches combine two perspective and summarize work- life balance as "the interaction not only of high levels of role engagement in work and nonwork domains but also minimal conflict between work-related roles and other social roles in non-work life" (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). Later, a more positive approach was adopted and the definition of work-life balance has generated with the enrichment approach (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The concept of work-family enrichment examines how the experience of an individual in a role in any life domain affects his performance in other roles and what kind of positive effects they have in these roles, and thus how those distinct roles mutually increase general well-being (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Consistent with these conflict and enrichment definitions, most work-life or work-family balance researchers have defined work-family balance as low work-family conflict and enhanced work-family enrichment (Frone et al., 2003). In order to include people who are not parents but devote time to many different activities in their private life, this area, which was previously called work-family balance in the literature, has become work-life balance with a more inclusive expression and it is described as the harmonious work and non-work activities that boosts individual's growth pursuant to current life priorities (Kalliath & Brough, 2008).

In the next sections, several meanings of work-life balance and its relatedness to other variables are explained with the main theories of work-life balance.

3.1 Conflict theory

In parallel with conflict theory, work-family conflict is described as an interrole conflict that occurs as a result of the incompatibility of responsibilities and role pressures in two different domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), there are three main work-family conflict forms. First, time-based conflict occurs when the time required to meet the demands of one domain begin to deplete the other domains' time needed correspond to its demands. Second, strain-based conflict arises when strains caused by work or non-work stressors such as stress, ambiguity, fatigue and dissatisfaction brought about by the role in one domain impact carrying out the demands in the other domain. Third, behavior-based conflict appears when the behavior shown in one domain does not comply with the role expectations of the other domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In order to ensure work-life balance with the conflict approach, role conflict must be managed effectively. Moreover, the reason for the occurrence of the role conflict is explained as the fact that the demand required by the role of the person is not met due to limited or threatened resources, based on Hobfoll's conservation of resources model (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009; Hobfoll, 1989; Sirgy & Lee, 2018). That is work-life balance can be achieved by an effective use of one's time, energy and other personal resources which results in minimum to no conflict (Kirchmeyer, 2000).

3.2 Border theory

Border theory emerged to explain how individuals manage work and non-work spheres and how they can determine the boundary between these areas to reach balance (Clark, 2000). In this theory, it is posited that work and non-work spheres are distinct with different contents and cultures, but these are the domains that interact with each other. Clark (2000) stated that there are 3 boundaries in a person's life that separate work and life: physical boundaries such as walls or workplace, temporal boundaries that is time spent at different spheres corresponding to related area and lastly, psychological boundaries which refers to feelings, behaviors or attitudes changing from one domain to another. The border and balance relationship is briefly expressed in this theory as follows: work and private life are closely related and cannot be separated from each other, but the individual who wants to have a balanced work-life should avoid conflict, that is, minimize it by maintaining certain borders between work and non-work spaces (Clark, 2000). However, the classic and certain boundaries between work and non-work domains are changed with the remote working (Allen, Merlo, Lawrence, Slutsky, & Gray, 2021). To balance the impact of the changes brought by covid-19, four categories of boundary management tactics are defined as follows: first, behavioral tactics, such as getting help from the environment, second, temporal tactics, clarifying non-work and work times, third, physical tactics, such as changing the working location and fourth, communication tactics, for example, communicating clearly with people who neglect their boundaries (Allen et al., 2021).

3.3 Spillover theory

One of the frequently used theory in work-life balance scholar is spillover theory. Spillover took place when an individuals' actions in one sphere influence the experiences of others (Hart, 1999). In spillover theory, it is expounded that although there are some boundaries between work and life domains, feelings, attitudes and behaviors move from one domain of life to another due to similarities between work and life domains (Clark, 2000; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Every person has specific tasks and responsibilities that must be accomplished both in work and non-work life, and each of these responsibilities needs to be fulfilled via individual's allocation of time, energy, and exertions. As a result of these demands such as energy and time being at a very high level, these demands that should be in one domain (work or life) jump to the other (life or work) and the equilibrium situation is collapsed and thus the other domain is negatively affected (Lambert, 1990). Contrary to this negative interaction, if a success or any positive feelings or abilities is achieved in one domain, the motivation arising from this positive feeling can also be the source of the work to be completed in the other domain, and the two domains are seen as having adjunctive and similar relationship (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Spillover, which has common assumptions with the conflict theory, is separated from conflict theory with its focus on positive complementary effects between different domains.

3.4 Compensation theory

It is stated that the compensation theory is the complement of the spillover theory and the theory is defined such that when an individual lacks of something in one domain, she leans across other domains in order to compensate what is lacked (Clark, 2000). In other words, if a person feels dissatisfied or unhappy at one sphere

of life, he seeks to find out felicity in other spheres, or vice versa. Two compensation theories are discussed in the work-life balance literature. When an individual experience an unfavorable event at one domain and in return look for alternative in the other it is called as reactive compensation. When a person realizes that the internal and external awards in one sphere are not sufficient, she tries to make up for the lack of reward in the other sphere (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

3.5 Segmentation theory

Segmentation theory, called the "compartmentalization" of work and private life, is an approach that explains that work and non-work life do not impact one another since they are completely separated or segmented from each other, and that any experience or emotion experienced in one domain remains in that domain and is not transferred to another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hart, 1999). When this approach is compared with the spillover theory, it is seen that they have completely opposite defenses.

3.6 Antecedents of work-life balance

While listing the antecedents of this multidimensional concept, it is seen that studies are conducted with different approaches such as conflict, balance, and enrichment in the literature. In Sirgy and Lee's review (2018), there is an integrative perspective on work-life balance and the antecedents of work-life balance are explained by dividing into two main groups: personal or individual and organizational predictors of work-life balance (Sirgy & Lee, 2018).

Individual characteristics and cultural values are discussed as the two factors that constitutes the personal antecedents of work-life balance. One of the individual

characteristics job and role involvement is found to increase work-life balance (Bulger & Fisher, 2012). According to Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003), having multiple roles is effective in protecting the person from the negative effects that they may encounter in a single role. Likewise, people with balanced work and family (life) role involvement have less work-family conflicts (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Moreover, job importance is also acknowledged to have a positive impact on work-life balance via increased work-life engagement (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). Job satisfaction and job commitment are also have a positive relationship with work-life balance (Aruldoss, Kowalski, & Parayitam, 2021). Higher level of time management skills reduce conflicts in work and non-work spheres and increases engagement in both domains and thus result in higher level of work-life balance (Byron, 2005). Furthermore, self-efficacy is a significant predictor on work-life balance since it enhances their belief of capability to establish balanced orders in both domains so it also boosts work-life balance (Chan et al., 2016; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). The effects of conscientiousness and neuroticism, which are two of the big five personality traits, on work-life balance are also examined among the individual characteristics. According to these studies, people who have higher level conscientiousness which is depicted as dependable, determined and organized (Stoeber, Otto, & Dalbert, 2009), experience higher work-life balance as the role conflict in the work and non-work spheres is reduced (Bulger & Fisher, 2012). On the contrary, the person with a high tendency to neuroticism, that is, agitated, emotionally unstable and insecure (Stoeber et al., 2009), will negatively affect the work-life balance due to higher level of the role conflict (Bulger & Fisher, 2012) In addition, Brough (2020) emphasized that family-based antecedents (which are also evaluated under individual or personal antecedents) are relatively less mentioned in

the literature because their relationship with work-life balance is weaker than, for instance, work-related antecedents (Brough, Timms, Chan, Hawkes, & Rasmussen, 2020). Some family related resources and demands found in the literature can be listed as follows: spending quality time with family members (Milkie, Kendig, Nomaguchi, & Denny, 2010), family support (Russo, Shteigman, & Carmeli, 2016) and partner's satisfaction on work-life balance (Stock, Bauer, & Bieling, 2014).

Organizational predictors include job characteristics and support. There is often an inverse relationship between job demands and work-life balance. In the literature, job demands are categorized as time-based demands (e.g., extra work hours) , cognitive demands (e.g., task difficulty), emotional demands and physical demands (Brough & Biggs, 2015). With the increase in job demands, individuals may experience deterioration in their work-life balance, resulting in the inability to fulfill their responsibilities and expectations in non-work life. For instance, time pressure at work as a time-based demand reduces work-life balance as it creates pressure on the schedule that an individual plans to fulfill expectations in work and non-work life (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Syrek, Apostel, & Antoni, 2013). Additionally, role ambiguity decreases the work-life balance as a result of higher level of uncertainty both in work and non-work domains (Bulger & Fisher, 2012). Moreover, job resources are the other job characteristics that have a positive influence on work-life balance. Job resources are all the resources that enable to achieve the goals at work and can have many aspects such as psychological, physical, or social. Employees are eager to develop job resources in order to deal with job demands and the demands conflicts created by these (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). For example, with scheduling flexibility, one of the time-based resources, persons can create a work plan in which they work

at the most proper time, that diminishes conflict in different roles and thus provides improved work-life balance (Byron, 2005). Finally, organizational support programs such as flexible work arrangement (Allen, 2001), employee health and wellness programs (Beauregard & Henry, 2009), supervisor support (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012), coworker support (Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska, & Whitten, 2012) have positive relationship with work-life balance too.

3.7 Outcomes of work-life balance

The consequences of work-life balance were also examined with different approaches, and in Allen's study (2000), the employee outcomes of the work-life balance are listed as follows: work-related, nonwork related and stress related consequences (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000).

When the consequences of work-life balance are examined, it is seen that most studies are carried out on work-related outcomes. Job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Fisher et al., 2009) and organizational commitment (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) are among the most studied areas related to work-life balance, and work-life balance is found to have a positive relationship with both. The other one, job performance has also a positive interaction with work-life balance (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). It is one of the other highlighted issues where these outcomes also have high interaction with each other. For instance, in the study of (Talukder, Vickers, & Khan, 2018), it is seen that work-life balance has a positive effect on job commitment and job satisfaction, and this positive relationship further improves the job performance of employees. Likewise, people with high work-family conflict tend to experience both job satisfaction and organizational commitment at lower levels (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). On the contrary, turnover

intention (Batt & Valcour, 2003) and absenteeism (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) are outcomes that have an inverse relationship with work-life balance For instance, it is demonstrated that a negative relation among work-life balance and turnover intentions exists and the magnitude of relationship between work-life balance and turnover intentions varies across nations (Spector et al., 2007). Furthermore, job burnout which refers to prolonged reaction to long-standing emotional and social stressors encountered at work is proved as having a negative relationship with work-life balance via alienation from work (Allen et al., 2000; Haar, Daellenbach, O'Kane, Ruckstuhl, & Davenport, 2021). Finally, career success which refers to the meaning of a success displaying individual's values, behaviors and motivations associated with work and life (Derr, 1986) and career development both have a positive interrelationship between work-life balance (Sirgy & Lee, 2018).

Non-work-related outcomes focus on how the individual's general life outside of work, family, parenting, and spare time are affected by work-life balance. Among non-work related consequences, one of the most discussed relationships is work-life balance and life satisfaction. Many scholars have investigated the relationship between work-life balance and life satisfaction by adding new dimensions to further develop the literature. For instance, Haar, Russo, Suñe and Ollier-Malaterre (2014) reached that in individualistic cultures, where individuals feel more independent and see their own decisions and aims as superior to the aims of the surrounding groups, the magnitude of the positive relationship between work-life balance and life satisfaction is higher than collectivistic cultures where people prefer to act accordingly with related groups' common goals (Haar, Russo, Suñe, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014). Additionally, more specific satisfaction types such as marital satisfaction, family satisfaction and parental satisfaction has also reviewed and

researchers concluded that they all achieve a positive relationship with work-life balance (Sirgy & Lee, 2018). Perceived quality of life has also evidenced as being influenced by balanced work and non-work domains and the relationship is explained such that individuals who are satisfied with fulfilling their work and non-work roles experience greater well-being than those who are dissatisfied with at least one of their roles, resulting in improved quality of life and overall life satisfaction (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Stress is considered as a key approach or concept in most studies in order to comprehend its effects on employee health and well-being (Gaines & Jermier, 1983). Stress related outcomes appear both in work and non-work domains and include family, psychological, family and job stress. Evidences from various researchers suggest that when work-life balance decreases depression, anxiety, somatic complaints such as fatigue, general life stress and family-related stress increases (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Sirgy & Lee, 2018). Work-life balance is also found as having a mediator relationship between job stress and anxiety (Timms et al., 2015). Furthermore, emotional exhaustion which is defined as the depletion of resources and the sense of losing excitement and interest, mentally being unable to devote work (Gaines & Jermier, 1983) is observed being negative relationship with work-life balance (Haar, 2013). In brief, it can be said that if individuals feel a satisfactory level of participation in a role in their work and non-work life, they reach an acceptable level of work-life balance as well and thus positive consequences are achieved in both work and non-work domains.

CHAPTER 4

PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Years ago when Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi (2002) radically initiated positive psychology movement, they had mentioned that behavioral and social sciences have a crucial position in times when social, political and economic issues that ignore human needs are the biggest focus in countries (M. E. Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In such periods when climate crises, global warming, post-pandemic economic crises, political wars and social issues are discussed and human needs are continuously neglected in almost every region of the world, the importance of positive psychology, which aims to build positive qualities for human being (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), is increasing. The purpose of the introduction of positive psychology was mainly to structure an understanding to find and support related factors that improve individuals, societies or organizations (Luthans & Church, 2002). Positive psychology concerns with three interrelated topics: positive subjective experiences (e.g., happiness, pleasure, gratification, fulfillment, well-being), positive individual traits (e.g., character, talents, interests, values) that facilitates positive experiences and positive institutions (e.g. schools, families, businesses, communities, societies) that facilitates both positive individual traits and positive experiences (Peterson & Park, 2003). Alongside positive psychology, two broad research fields both concentrate on the creation of positive individual and organizational outcomes has emerged: positive organizational behavior and positive organizational scholarship (Meyers, Woerkom, & Bakker, 2013). These two concepts are sometimes used one another, positive organizational scholarship (POS) is concerned mainly with the study of positive consequences, processes, and

characteristics of organizations (Cameron & Dutton, 2003) and positive organizational behavior is more particular under the umbrella concept of POS (Luthans & Youssef-morgan, 2017). Considering the positive psychology movement, Fred Luthans figured that this approach could be integrated into workplace so that he had defined positive organizational behavior (POB) as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace." (Luthans, 2002, p. 486). In order to be included in POB, any psychological construct should meet these mentioned criteria in POB definition. In detailed, first criteria emphasizes that one psychological construct should be theory or evidence based so that it contributes to scientific study (Luthans & Youssef-morgan, 2017). Furthermore, it's orientation must be positive to be in line with positive psychology and related positive concepts (Luthans & Youssef-morgan, 2017) . It must be reliably and validly measurable to create an accurate bases for scientific studies (Luthans & Church, 2002). Finally, it must be open to development (should be state-like rather than trait-like which is stationary) and management and it must be in consistent with the aimed job attitudes, behaviors, and performance criterion (Luthans & Youssef-morgan, 2017) The examination of psychological capacities of hope, self-efficacy, optimism, and resilience that meet all of these criteria together is identified as psychological capital (PsyCap) (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). PsyCap is also explained as individuals' positive psychological state of development and is defined by: having self-confidence (self-efficacy) to take arduous tasks on and put the required effort to be successful on it, having a positive attitude and thinking (optimism) about being successful in the present and future, be persistent toward goals and, when needed, redirecting routes to

goals (hope) to succeeded in, and lastly, in order to reach success, maintaining determined mindset (resilience) and even push the limits for further when encountered any difficulties (Luthans et al., 2007; Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014). Since the concept of psychological capital and its sub-constructs are clearly defined, research has been carried out on how individual psychological capital should be examined in an organizational context (Wu & Nguyen, 2019). Avey, Reichard, Luthans and Mhatre, conducted a research and reached significant relationship between PsyCap and desirable and undesirable employee attitudes which in turn affects organizational performance (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). The relationship regarding the effect of PsyCap on employee attitudes has been explained as follows: Those with higher PsyCap expect good things to happen in their jobs (optimism), believe they are the ones creating their success (self-efficacy and hope), and are more resistant to challenges than those with less PsyCap (resilience) (Avey et al., 2011). Employees with higher PsyCap shows improved job performance which in turn results in high job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

PsyCap is interpreted as a multidimensional construct which means PsyCap does not represent a single dimension, it is the common variance of all four constructs (Avey, 2014; Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998) . According to psychological resource theories (Hobfoll, 2002) and Banduras' agentic perspective (Bendura, 2008), hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism have reciprocal connections and they have synergetic interactions between them and together forming the core concept of psychological capital (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010). These four dimensions of PsyCap and related theories demonstrating the link between PsyCap and other organizational concepts are explained in the next sections.

4.1 Hope

Hope has relatively significant theoretical improvement and support in the literature (Luthans et al., 2010). The dimension hope is defined by Snyder as “empowering way of thinking” (Snyder, 1994). According to Snyder’s hope theory, there are two components composing hope: agency (willpower) and pathways (waypower) (Snyder, 2000; Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). Agency represents the willpower necessary to execute a given route to reach goal effectively, pathways on the other hand is the ability to build those routes (Snyder, 1994, 2000; Snyder et al., 2002). Employees with the psychological state of hope have a good job performance with their will and perseverance (S. J. Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Employees’ hope can be developed by enriching its three key elements agency, goal and pathways and this is possible by setting realistic, measurable, specific, challenging and manageable goals supporting with empowerment and delegation (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

4.2 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as one's self confidence in managing own motivation, psychological resources and behaviors in order to obtain better performance (Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). The impact of self-efficacy on performance has been observed in various researches such as one in Gardner and Pierce's study which shows that self-efficacy fosters employee job performance by supporting higher levels of organization-based self-esteem (Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Newman et al., 2014). In addition, high self-efficacy not only affects individual performance, but also transfers via crossover and thus influences those around the individual such as team or organization members (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018; Neff, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Unger, 2012). Two key approaches to

develop self-efficacy is firstly, through experiencing the success in difficult but realistic, specific, and proximate objectives and secondly, via vicarious learning which means enhancing by drawing on the experiences of role models, and by the imagined successful self. The second approach is seen as significant especially in situations where it is difficult to have successful experiences (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

4.3 Optimism

Optimism is seen as an attributional style that perceives positive incidents through internal, persistent, and common reasons and negative incidents with external, temporary, and in particular ones (Seligman, Abramson, Semmel, & Von Bayer, 1998) (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). It is also expressed as positive expectations about the future outcomes (Luthans et al., 2010). Optimism is associated with both non-work related positive outcomes such as psychological health, recovery, coping and well-being (Peterson, 1999; Scheier & Carver, 1987; Scheier et al., 1989; Scheier & Carver, 1992; Seligman, 2002) and work related positive outcomes such as higher performance (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005) (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Different approaches have been proposed in order to improve the optimism one has in business life. The three approaches are as follows: the “leniency for the past” which refers to how to learn from one's past irreversible mistakes and move on by forgiving oneself, "appreciation for the present" which means being thankful for all the positive things in one's life that can or cannot be under control and "opportunity-seeking for the future" which basically points out that all uncertainties that one may encounter in the future are an opportunity for improvement and should be met with self-confidence and a positive attitude (Schneider, 2001).

4.4 Resilience

Resilience is the capability to overcome difficulties, uncertainty or even positive changes that cause a person to feel suffocated (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). People with high resilience return not to their original state, but to even higher levels of performance, and in the process they discover meaning in their lives and the magnitude of the performance is even higher when opposed to negative events (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). As mentioned in the literature, hope, efficacy, resilience and optimism shares many aspects in common. For instance, hope and resilience shares a process orientation, and in this process ways connecting that person to the desired outcomes are so crucial to succeeded in (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010). In addition, self-efficacy and resilience have a determination component that motivates endurance when difficulties are encountered (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010). The development of resiliency built upon three strategies which are asset-focused strategies referring to focusing on improving own resources despite the risky conditions and thus increasing the probability of achieving a positive outcome in the long run, risk-focused meaning to diminish stressors and risks, and finally, process-focused strategies inferring as the utilization of one’s inventory of assets and resources to cope with challenges (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

4.5 Broaden and build theory

The broaden and build theory argues that, although certain positive emotions (e.g. joy, interest, love) may differ according to human's own experience, these certain emotions all provide the ability to broaden individual's instant "thought-action repertoires" and the ability to create long-term personal resources including physical,

cognitive, social, and psychological resources (Fredrickson, 2001, p. 218). In this perspective, which emerges from positive psychology, it is stated that positive emotions stimulate various thought and action movements, while negative emotions narrow the mind's ability to think and direct its focus to rapid or instantaneous reactions (Fredrickson, 1998). These resources are functioned as reserves to be used when necessary in order to successfully achieve goals in various fields and increase the probability of survival, which supports the feature of having a durable resources (Fredrickson, 2004). Through the agency of positive emotions, individuals can make themselves more creative, more resilient, more socially and physically and mentally healthier (Fredrickson, 2004). In other words, positive emotions can reinforce the four psychological resources of PsyCap, namely hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience (Siu, Cheung, & Lui, 2015). One evidence supporting this argument shows that positive emotions experienced in a daily basis are positively related to self-efficacy and optimism (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2012). An increasing number of psychological capital studies are using this theory to elucidate the relationship between diverse work outcomes and PsyCap (Abbas & Raja, 2015).

4.6 Psychological resource theory

Before understanding the psychological resource theory, resources are defined as: Resources refers to the entities that individuals have and value on its own such as well-being, self-esteem and the tools that individuals use to reach targeted valuable outcomes such as welfare, money or support (Hobfoll, 2002). Psychological capital is a second-order factor consisting of four constructs that are hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007), and PsyCap executes mechanisms that combine these separate constructs in common (Avey et al., 2011). In order to better

understand the psychological capital and its working mechanism, the psychological resources theory developed by Hobfoll (2002) is practiced in the literature (Avey et al., 2011). According to this theory, although each construct has been validated separately in empirical and theoretical studies, these psychological constructs or resources are seen as useful in explaining broader principal factors (Avey et al., 2011; Hobfoll, 2002). Furthermore, these four constructs also shares a joint connection linking them together which is called as a higher-order core factor (Luthans et al., 2007). This connection refers to the process directing motivation and behaviors (Luthans et al., 2007). In Hobfoll's (2002) illustration of "resource caravans", it is underlined that psychological resources can affect or form the basis of concepts or variables belonging to different contexts (e.g. work context) over time with their synergetic interaction with each other (Hobfoll, 2002).

4.7 Job demands-resources theory

The job demands-resources model developed by Demerouti and Bakker (2001) emerged with the following argument: Even if people experience different work environments in different organizations, the current work environment can be evaluated over two categories in all organizations: job demand and job resources and by considering these two categories, an overarching model can be applied in various occupations (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003). The central assumption in this model is that when there is a high job demands corresponding to a limited job resources, this results in job strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In the model, it is emphasized that sustained effort is necessary to meet job demands so it is associated with physiological and psychological costs like fatigue, high work pressure, job resources, on the contrary, encourage factors such as personal

development, learning and motivational attributes (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Job resources can have physical, psychological, social and organizational dimensions and are used to reach goals, decrease job demand and its related costs, and promote personal growth and development (Bakker et al., 2003). The job demands-resources model highlights that two psychological processes are effective in the development of job strain and motivation (Demerouti et al., 2001). The first process is called the health impairment process and indicates that negative work conditions and ongoing excessive job demands (e.g. workload) can impact the psychological and physical resources of the employee, and as a result, the energy of the employee may decrease or deplete (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The second psychological process is about motivation. Job resources both motivates intrinsically as they stimulate individuals' learning and development and extrinsically since they are used to succeeded in work related goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In briefly, job and personal resources enhance employee's self-evaluation and ability to handle demanding situations together with their learning experience and this in turn creates a more resourceful work environment and work engagement (Kohn & Schooler, 1982; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

The new working conditions caused by the Covid-19 pandemic brought developments in the job demands-resources model, as in most sub-areas in the field of organizational behavior. Demerouti and Bakker (2022), extends the job demands-resources model by focusing on the relationships inside and outside of work, the new organizational processes and employee' actions in order to navigate the issue of diminished health and motivation for researchers, leaders, or practitioners (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022). It is stated that the importance of job resources rises with the increase in job demands such as loss of working routine, work pressure or

uncertainty, especially for people who switch to remote working (Brooks et al., 2020; Demerouti & Bakker, 2022). The arguments of the job demands-resources model explaining the basic relationship between job demands and job resources with job characteristics are seen to be insufficient in the face of this extraordinary situation, namely the crisis (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022). Therefore, in the broadened job demands-resources model, with the power of crisis management perspective, it primarily takes attention the excess interaction between different domains causes reciprocal influences both for job demands and for job resources. For instance, one proposition in the expanded model posits that the effect of a resource belongs to one domain (e.g. work domain) on motivational outcomes might be buffered by the other domain's resource or demand situation (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022). It is also recommended that in addition to the focus of individual-oriented job demands and resources, new regulatory strategies designed for individuals, family, leader and organization to boost resources and balance demands in more than one demand, as opposed to the basic job demands-resources model, should be considered in future research (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022).

4.8 Antecedents of psychological capital

In order to better understand and model psychological capital and its development, it is essential to examine the antecedents and consequences of psychological capital but, apart from acknowledging that most states and state-like resources have a trait inception, research on the antecedents of PsyCap has been limited (Luthans & Youssef-morgan, 2017). In prior meta-analysis, job characteristics, personality traits, supportive organizational climate, and leadership style are empirically investigated and counted as the antecedents of PsyCap (Avey, 2014; Luthans & Youssef-morgan,

2017). Furthermore, there is growing empirical studies that enhancing workplace support reinforce employees' PsyCap since it provides greater hope to look up new pathways in order to accomplish their goals (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; Newman et al., 2014). Additionally, Liu (2013) found that high supervisor support in the workplace generates a feeling of unity with a shared goal commitment, which results in vitality among employees and act as a supporting mechanism towards challenges in the success pathway (Y. Liu, 2013; Nolzen, 2018).

In recent years, psychological capital studies investigate the relationship between psychological capital and individual attitudes and behaviors. Siu, Cheung and Lui (2015) emphasized that positive emotions have a positive relationship with psychological capital and stated that these emotions are not only the power behind a person's recovery after adversity, but also the sources of people's positive remarks about their future achievements (Nolzen, 2018; Siu et al., 2015). Likewise, Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman and Harms (2013) proved a positive relationship between overall well-being and PsyCap and explained such that well-being exhibits the necessary vivacity and motivation to aspire and achieve goals which in turn results in high level of PsyCap (Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman, & Harms, 2013). Besides people who are in a more stressful workplace and have high work family conflict in their life have a lower level of psychological capital than people who have a less stressful life or experience (L. Liu, Chang, Fu, Wang, & Wang, 2012; Newman et al., 2014).

Another antecedent which is relatively more reviewed is leadership. The mediator role of PsyCap in the relationship of leadership behaviors such as transformational and authentic leadership with individual, team and organizational level outcomes and the effects of leadership directly on PsyCap have been perused by various scholars such as Wooley, Caza and Levy (2011) who found the positive connection of PsyCap

and authentic leadership and McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros and Islam (2010) who observed the positive relationship between transactional and transformational leadership and psychological capital (McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros, & Islam, 2010; Newman et al., 2014; Wooley, Caza, & Levy, 2011). In addition, the effects of demographic characteristics such as age, gender, work experience on psychological capital were examined (Avey, 2014). For instance, gender orientations such as being more masculine or feminine affect the psychological capital levels of employees (Ngo, Foley, Ji, & Loi, 2014; Nolzen, 2018) . Understanding the antecedents of PsyCap can be a guideline for organizations develop programs to which aims to support individual PsyCap through the design of workplace structures, namely support instruments and leadership initiatives (Newman et al., 2014).

4.9 Outcomes of psychological capital

Many studies have been conducted showing the effect of PsyCap on work outcomes, and as a result of the studies, it has been found that PsyCap is the predictor of positive employee attitudes, positive employee behavior, and many other positive outcomes (Avey et al., 2011; Nolzen, 2018). Studies reflecting the outcomes of PsyCap have generally examined the relationship under three headings as PsyCap's employee attitude, employee behavior and other outcomes (Avey et al., 2011; Nolzen, 2018; Wu & Nguyen, 2019). While examining the relationship between employee attitudes and PsyCap, basically the following process is explained: Compared to one's with lower PsyCap, employees with higher PsyCap expect good things in their work and goals (optimism), they know that their achievements is their own creation (hope and self-efficacy) and they are more invulnerable (resilience) against complexities throughout the process. (Avey et al., 2011). All positive

psychological states of these employees with high PsyCap increase their work motivation, enhance greater effort and performance, and as a result, their job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007) and their commitment to organizations (Luthans et al., 2008) scale up (Avey et al., 2011). Furthermore, feeling of empowerment and intrinsic motivation are found to be positive outcomes of having higher PsyCap (Avey, Hughes, Luthans, & Norman, 2008; Kim & Noh, 2016; Nolzen, 2018). It has been stated that while PsyCap is positively related to desirable employee attitudes, it is also negatively related to undesirable attitudes such as job burnout, cynicism toward change and turnover intention (Ali & Ali, 2014; Avey et al., 2011). More specifically, Avey, Hughes, Norman and Luthans's (2008) finding demonstrates that high level of PsyCap brings the feeling of empowerment which in turn leads to lower intention of turnover (Avey et al., 2008; Newman et al., 2014). When it comes to employee behavior outcomes that PsyCap affects, it is seen that considerable amount of research has been done on performance, especially in the literature. Creative performance (Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, & Luthans, 2011), creativity (Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Pina, 2012), problem solving and innovation (Luthans, Youssef, & Rawski, 2011) are some of the outcomes that have been associated with PsyCap and inspected as having a positive relationship with it (Avey et al., 2011; Newman et al., 2014; Nolzen, 2018). Newman in his meta-analysis (2014) adds new dimension to meta analytic review of PsyCap outcomes and suggests more study investigating performance not only at individual level but also at team and organizational level performance For instance, high level of employee PsyCap is associated with team level organizational citizenship behaviors (Newman et al., 2014; Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010). Additionally, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs, referred to desirable employee behaviors in the related studies) has

been considered as having a positive relationship with PsyCap and in contrary, counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs, often named as deviance, termed as undesirable employee behaviors) as having a negative link between PsyCap (Avey et al., 2011; Norman, Avey, Nimnicht, & Pigeon, 2010). Moreover, employees' positive perception and resilience to adversity makes high PsyCap individuals to cope with stress better than the one's having lower PsyCap. In other words, there is an inverse relationship between PsyCap and stress level (Abbas & Raja, 2015; Siu et al., 2015). Additionally, well-being has also been seen as a significant outcome of PsyCap over time (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010). While there is not much study investigating the relationship between PsyCap and work-life balance a recent study of Vaziri et al. (2022) addresses that PsyCap is related to WLB in a way that PsyCap improves employee's WLB (Samroodh et al., 2023; Vaziri et al., 2022). On the other hand, Paterson (2013) examined the relationship between success in the workplace and PsyCap for the first time in the literature, which still has not been studied much, and it has been found that PsyCap markedly supports agentic work behavior and thus contributes to thriving at work (Paterson et al., 2013).

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

The research model in this thesis has been developed considering the hypotheses presented as a result of detailed investigation in the literature focusing mostly on the fields of thriving at work, psychological capital and work-life balance and related theoretical frameworks. The SEMT, job demands-resources model and broaden and build model are the main theories employed to investigate the relationship between work-life balance, PsyCap and thriving at work. This thesis' conceptual model can be seen from Figure 2.

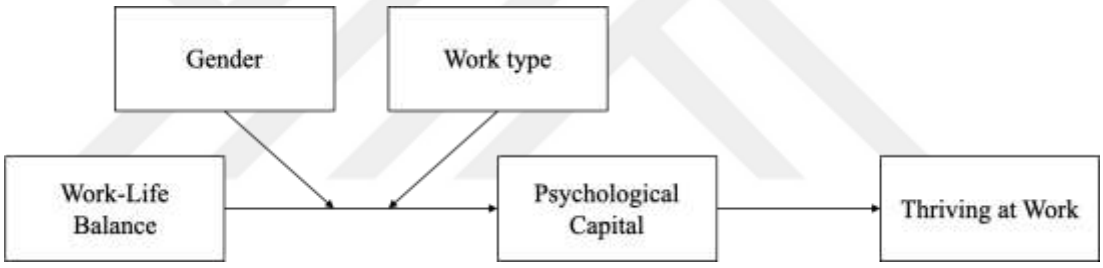


Figure 2. Conceptual model

5.1 Conceptual model: Work-life balance, PsyCap and thriving at work

In this thesis, the relationship between PsyCap and thriving at work is theoretically examined by job demands-resources model and broaden and build theory.

According to broaden and build theory, positive emotions broaden thought-action repertoires, enabling individuals to create enduring physical, social, intellectual and psychological resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Positive emotions also extends individual's attention and focus and enhance the "explanatory behaviors" of creativity and flexibility (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012, p. 491) in thinking, over time

builds personal resources such as psychological resilience (Aspinwall, 1998; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Fredrickson, 2001; Isen, 2000; Kahn & Isen, 1993). Resilient individuals tend to approach the life as a whole in an optimistic and energetic way and eager to attend new experiences with curiosity (Block & Kremen, 1996; Klohnen, 1996). The curiosity and being open to new experiences may stimulate the agentic behavior of "exploration" which in turn boosts vitality via curiosity and learning via openness to new experiences together constitutes to thriving (Button et al., 1996). In short, based on the arguments of broaden and build theory and evidence explaining the relationship between PsyCap and thriving, it can be concluded that positive emotions create various psychological resources (e.g., resilience) together with the development of human thought-action reservoir, and that these resources support learning and vitality in the individual, namely thriving, by stimulating agentic behaviors such as exploration.

The relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work is investigated by SEMT.

The SEMT posits that since thriving elements of vitality and learning is formed via interaction with social network and an individuals' learning is further developed by the observations of people around them, thriving is socially embedded at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005). The model briefly explains the thriving mechanism as: Certain work context which consists of two aspects, both first the unit contextual features (decision-making discretion, broad information sharing and climate of trust and respect) and second, resources produced as a result of work (knowledge, positive meaning, positive affect, and relational resources) stimulates agentic behaviors which are heedful relating, exploration and task focus and these three agentic behaviors are seen as the main boosters of thriving experience (Spreitzer et al.,

2005). Additionally, it is also emphasized that the agentic behaviors facilitated by resources created by doing of work also generate set of resources, which in turn activate agentic behaviors and therefore, this process in the model, which continues to affect each other, is called as the "positive spirals process" (Goh et al., 2021; Niessen et al., 2012; Spreitzer et al., 2005). The SEMT is extended since the experience of work environment is different for each employees, and an increasing number of employees now work more remotely and more independent (Ashford et al., 2018; Porath et al., 2022). In the extended version of SEMT, three additional paths, namely selfcare, relationships and community, are posited as strategies to be employed by individuals to sustain their own thriving either via connected to or independent to organizations (Porath et al., 2022). In previous studies it is evidenced that there is a positive spillover effect and positive relationship between thriving at work and thriving at home and further, an individual can experience thriving at different levels in two different domains at the same time period (Porath et al., 2012). There is a popular discussion that especially after the Covid-19 pandemic, in working conditions where work and home life are intertwined, the level of thriving at work may make it difficult to meet the role expectations of non-work domain, that is, it may adversely affect the family or the community (C. L. Porath et al., 2022). In particular, two of the newly added antecedents, relationships, and communities, emphasize the aim of observing how relationships established outside of work can sustain both work and non-work thriving. For instance, if an individual focuses completely on his tasks at work time and has rest or has a pleasant dinner with his family or friends in the remaining time outside of work (both activities point out recovery outside of work), that is, if he fulfills his role expectations for both work and non-work life, his work-life balance is ensured. Work-life balance, which is

positively affected by non-work activities and the recovery process (Molino, Cortese, Bakker, & Ghislieri, 2015), can increase energy and productivity in the following days, thus enhancing thriving at work (Perlow, 2012). On the contrary, if an employee experiences a work-life imbalance, it might leads to increase in perceived stress cross domains which also facilitates detrimental effects on thriving at work (Cullen et al., 2015). The argument is also reinforced in the self-determination theory, that is one of the main theories used in developing, such that when the workplace conditions are fostered well at work and employees feel as autonomous in the workplace, this will results in employee thriving and satisfaction and further provides complementary benefits for organizations (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan, 2017). In addition, previously, it has been demonstrated that thriving at work has an association with work non-work balance as a predictor (Di Milia & Jiang, 2022), which may support the examination of a relationship between work-life balance as an antecedent of thriving at work. Porath et. al. (2022) supports researches examining the balance between non-work and work thriving and the fields related to this balance as a future direction (C. L. Porath et al., 2022). Also, Zhang, Yu and Marin (2021), propose to explore the ways in which how leaders can assist employees in managing the work-life boundaries and thus how they can sustain thriving, particularly in the context of remote work (Zhang, Yu, & Marin, 2021). In the light of the new perspectives adjoined to the model and future directions, the hypothesis is developed as follows:

H1: Work-life balance is positively related to thriving at work

On the basis of the job demand-resources theory, job strain emerges in an environment where job resource is limited, and job demand is high (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The job resources might have physical, social and psychological

aspects and used to reduces job demands, foster personal growth and development and achieve goals (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). According to the theory, two psychological processes determine the workload and motivation (Demerouti et al., 2001). The first process, called the health impaired process, explains that the negative working conditions (e.g. exhaustion) caused by excessive job demand reduce the energy of the employee, and the second process, called the motivational process, states that job resources motivate the individual both internally to improve their learning and growth and externally to achieve goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). A high job resource may activate the "affective experiences of interest and motivation" of the employee and thus their daily personal resources can also be positively affected (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012, p. 493). The global personal resource of PsyCap (Grover, Teo, Pick, Roche, & Newton, 2018, p. 969) consists of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience enables more favorable approaching of work environment (Avey et al., 2011). In accordance with the job demands-resources model presumptions, the more positive outlook of job demands and resources as a result of PsyCap directly end up with more positive individual or work consequences (Grover et al., 2018; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). By addressing the job demands-resources model arguments and previous studies, the connection between PsyCap and thriving can be explained as: Job demands affect thriving negatively by decreasing the energy, namely vitality while job resources positively affect thriving by increasing learning and development and by decreasing the detrimental effects of job demands, thus increasing energy (Goh et al., 2021). Since PsyCap directly influence employees' perception of job demands and resources positively (Grover et al., 2018), it also impacts the level of thriving at work positively. The corresponding hypothesis for this relationship is as follows:

H2: Psychological capital is positively related to thriving at work

The relationship between work-life balance and PsyCap is theoretically investigated by job demands-resources model.

As stated in the literature review, the job demands and resources altered for various occupations due to Covid-19 pandemic (Kniffin et al., 2021). More specifically, the job demands (e.g. role ambiguity) are increased and as a result the importance of job resources are also raised to compensate or balance excess job demands (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022). After this process, companies that shifted to remote working as the new working type in their organizational culture, and the work and home demands of individuals, therefore, their different life domains have become intertwined because of the blurred the boundaries between work and nonwork life (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022). According to the new proposals in the extended job demands-resources model, organizational, work, home and personal resources and demands are in connection with each other, and the effect of a resource in one domain may be stronger with the influence of a resource in another domain (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022, p. 12). This proposition is also supported by the arguments in ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1989) that individuals participate in many different domains that interact with each other and that this participation of those domains contains resource drain, resource generation, and positive and negative spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). For instance, one who has succeeded in a realistic and important task in work life is expected to develop self-efficacy (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Individuals with high self-efficacy believe that balanced systems can be established in different areas, and this belief improves work-life balance (Chan et al., 2016; Mauno et al., 2007). Better work-life balance first positively affects the individual's

psychological well-being (Fotiadis, Abdulrahman, & Spyridou, 2019), which may results in higher levels of PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2013). Moreover, putting the phone away and being fully present for the family while eating at family dinner which can be counted as a tiny movement in positively affecting work-life balance, have a potential effect on increasing stamina and self-confidence (Anderson, 2020). The antecedents of PsyCap have still not been researched much in the literature (Kleine et al., 2019) therefore, the hypothesis about the relationship between work-life balance and PsyCap, is based on the findings of previous research and the arguments of the related theory. Thus, the hypothesis for the relationship between work-life balance and PsyCap is as follows:

H3: Work-life balance is positively related to psychological capital

Individuals with high PsyCap expect good things to happen at work (optimism), consider that they can build their own success (self-efficacy and hope), and are more resistant to difficulties (resilience) (Avey et al., 2011). Along with this argument, the relationship between PsyCap and various work outcomes has been examined in the literature. In the previous study, it has been shown that PsyCap triggers two of the agentic behaviors of task focus and heedful relating, which are seen as the enablers of thriving, thus contributing to thriving at work (Paterson et al., 2013). Furthermore, PsyCap positively affects the energy of employees (Avey et al., 2011). Therefore, the anticipated role of PsyCap in the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work can be supported by the previously explored relationships between PsyCap and work-life balance (Parray, Shah, & Islam, 2022) and between PsyCap and thriving at work (Paterson et al., 2013). However, PsyCap, work-life balance and thriving at work have not been examined together in the literature yet. Based on these findings, in order to find the association in PsyCap's

relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work, the following hypothesis is seen as follows:

H4: Psychological capital mediates the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work

In the literature, gender differences are seen as essential moderators to comprehend work-life balance in more detail (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Especially, after the Covid-19 pandemic, gender roles were affected by many economic and social factors (Kniffin et al., 2021). It has been proven that different gender roles have different perceptions of work-life balance and this is reflected in outcomes (González Ramos & García-de-Diego, 2022). These statements support that gender as a moderator is expected to have an impact on the relationship of work-life balance with PsyCap. Moreover, as mentioned in certain parts of this study, the changing working styles in recent years directly or indirectly impacts several work and employee outcomes. From this point of view, it is expected that the work-life balance of people with different working types will have dissimilar effects on the thriving at work. In accordance with these, the following moderator relationships are hypothesized:

H5: Work type moderates the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work such that this relationship is more positive for hybrid working than full time home and full-time office working

H6: Gender moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for females than for males

The hypotheses developed in this study are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Hypotheses of the Study

Code	Hypothesis
H1	Work-life balance is positively related to thriving at work
H2	Psychological capital is positively related to thriving at work
H3	Work-life balance is positively related to psychological capital
H4	Psychological capital mediates the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work
H5	Work type moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for hybrid working than full time home and full-time office working
H6	Gender moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for females than for males

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH DESIGN

The main purpose of the research is to advance the understanding of thriving at work by using more antecedents and thus to understand how employees can sustain their thriving at work through individual and organizational resources and relationships. Consistent with this, the research is designed to examine the impact of work-life balance, which is highly altered by the new working conditions after the pandemic, on thriving at work and to observe the mediating role of psychological capital in this relationship. Data collection methods and measurement instruments were arranged to gather the perceptions of actively working employees' own psychological states, their work and non-work life. The approval from the Ethics Committee was received before the data collection process started and it is presented in Appendix A.

6.1 Data collection

The respondents targeted in the study were employees from different professions working in diverse industries and organizations. The study was designed for employees who do not expect any financial reward and who want to contribute to the study's academic and organizational implications. Data were collected through an online questionnaire based on the self-report perceptions of the participants at a single point in time, which was accessed via an online link. Due to the fact that the expected participants switched to more flexible working type at the time of the research, and in order to reach more audiences, this one-phase survey was prepared online, and its communication and spread was ensured on various platforms, especially from areas where professional networks dominate (e.g., LinkedIn and

business groups). Additionally, the online survey link has shared on social media networks (e.g. Instagram), on e-mail and on university alumni and student's club's social accounts. Since the questionnaire was shared online, participants could attend at any time according to their availability, eliminating the potential pressure from the person conducting. The purpose of the research and ethical sensitivity were explained in the consent section presented at the beginning of the questionnaire. In addition, it was stated that participation in the study was on a voluntary basis, no offer was made in return for participation, and if they left without completing the questionnaire for any reason, their answers would be deleted and not included in the analysis. It is clearly stated that the answers are collected anonymously and will be used for academics purposes. It was stated that if the participants accepted, they could start the survey by marking the statement that they voluntarily agreed to participate in the consent form part, and if they did not, they could leave before starting the survey.

6.2 Sampling

The sampling strategy of the research was determined as the snowball sampling method because it is expected to reach more people with this sampling method (Huck, Cormier and Bouds, 2014). There were no industry, occupational group or position limitations restricting sample size in order to provide a healthier sample size.

A total of 240 participants completed the survey. Among them 119 (49.8%) were males and 120 (50.2%) were females. One participant preferred not to answer this question. 64.3% of the participants were between 25-34 years old. 93 of the

participants are married and 61 have children. Most of the participants (87.1%) completed either a Bachelor's or Master's degree (Table 2).

Table 2. Demographic Variables

	N	%
Gender		
Male	119	50.2
Female	120	49.8
Total	239	100.0
Age		
18-24	21	8.8
25-29	96	40.3
30-34	57	23.9
35-44	44	18.5
45+	20	8.4
Total	238	100.0
Marital Status		
Single	146	61.0
Married	93	39.0
Total	239	100.0
Has children		
No	179	74.6
Yes	61	25.4
Total	240	100.0
Education Status		
High School	11	4.6
Associate's Degree	18	7.5
Bachelor's Degree	147	61.3
Master's Degree	62	25.8
PhD	2	0.8
Total	240	100.0

124 (51.7%) of the people worked full time from the office, followed by 53 (22.1%) working at most 2.5 days per week from home, 44 (18.3%) working at least 2.5 days per week from home and 19 (7.9%) worked full time from home. Although most of the people (75.8%) are in work life for more than two years, 56.7% are in

their current position for less than 2 years. Most of the people (136) work in the private sector (Table 3).

Table 3. Work-Related Variables

	N	%
Number of Years in Work life		
0-2	58	24.2
3-5	59	24.6
6-9	45	18.8
10+	78	32.5
Total	240	100.0
Number of Years in Current Position		
0-2	136	56.7
3-5	55	22.9
6-9	19	7.9
10+	30	12.5
Total	240	100.0
Sector Type		
Private	191	80.3
Public	42	17.6
Non-profit	5	2.1
Total	238	100.0
Work Type		
Full time office	124	51.7
Work from home <2.5 days per week	62	25.8
Work from home >2.5 days per week	35	14.6
Full time home	19	7.9
Total	240	100.0

6.3 Measurement

Psychological capital, work-life balance and thriving at work scales, which were previously developed and tested, were used in this research' questionnaire. Turkish adaptations of these scales have also tested in previous studies. Details of those scales is explained in the following section. The final questionnaire questions are presented in Appendix B.

6.3.1 Thriving at work

Thriving at Work scale was developed and empirically validated by Porath et al. (2012) and the original scale consists of 10 items, five of them stands for vitality and the other five of them representing learning (Porath et al., 2012). The translation of the scale into Turkish was made by Koçak (2016), and when the relevance and reliability of the translation were tested, 2 questions were eliminated from the scale, and it was arranged to having 8-items and two dimensions (Kocak, 2016). The final version of the scale includes 8-items, four of which represent vitality and four represent learning. A six-point Likert-type scale was used with the rating range starting from 1=Strongly disagree to 6=Strongly agree.

6.3.2 Psychological capital

Psychological Capital scale used in this study is 24-items psychological capital questionnaire (PCQ) that was developed by Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007) (Luthans et al., 2007). PCQ consists of four dimensions which are optimism, self-efficacy, resilience and hope together measuring the PsyCap as a higher-order construct. Since PsyCap is defined as a higher-order construct those four psychological resources demonstrates a synergistic effect (Luthans et al., 2008) (Luthans 2008). Turkish adaption of the scale has been made by Çetin and Basım (Çetin & Basım, 2012). The participants are asked to respond 5-point Likert scale of PCQ vary from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree.

6.3.3 Work-life balance

In order to measure the work-life balance, scales that will enable the measurement of the more inclusive life domain, rather than the scales that only question work and

family domains, were searched in the literature. Work-life balance scale included in the questionnaire is work/nonwork interference and enhancement which was developed by Fisher, Bulger and Smith (2009) (Fisher et al., 2009). The original scale consists of 17-item including four dimensions of work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work, work enhancement of personal life, and personal life enhancement of work. The scale was translated to Turkish by Ekinci and Sabancı (2021) and the final version maintains 17-item consisting four dimensions (Ekinci & Sabancı, 2021). The translated version of scale was used with 5-point Likert rating scale ranging from 1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly Agree.

CHAPTER 7

DATA ANALYSIS

This work is aiming to investigate the effect of work-life balance and psychological capital on thriving at work. For this purpose, simple and multiple regression analyses were employed, where thriving at work is the dependent variable and work-life balance and psychological capital were utilized as the independent variables. IBM SPSS Statistics version 29 was used for the analysis of the data. Before starting the analysis, reverse coded variables were determined and transformed. The reverse coded variables for work-life balance are questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 17 and for psychological capital questions 1, 8 and 11.

7.1 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the variables of the study. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated, and the significance was tested with two-tail tests. As can be seen in Table 4, the correlations between work-life balance, psychological capital and thriving at work were found to be significant with a p-value less than 0.01. Thriving at work and psychological capital have the strongest correlation with a Pearson coefficient of 0.612, followed by the correlation between work-life balance and thriving at work (0.536). As the least correlated variables, work-life balance and psychological capital have a Pearson coefficient of 0.396.

Table 4. Correlation Table Between Variables of the Study

	WLB	PsyCap	TAW
WLB	1		
PsyCap	0.396**	1	
TAW	0.546**	0.612**	1

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

7.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate technique which determines the interrelationships between variables and defines the correlated set of variables as the "factors" (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). For factor analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was employed. The method for the analysis was chosen as principal axis factoring. Varimax rotation was used to decrease the complexity of the factor loadings by maximizing the sum of variance of the squared loadings. The variables that are not relevant for the factor solution can be determined by two indexes. If the variable's communality score or loading in any factor is smaller than a threshold value, the variable should be discarded from the analysis. For communality score, this threshold is generally taken as 0.3. Hair et al. states that for sample sizes of 200, the factor loading threshold should be at least 0.4 to be significant. Additionally, if a variable takes part in more than two factors, it was discarded. For the decision of number of factors, a cutoff value of 1.0 for the eigenvalue of the variable was selected. For factor analysis, five observations per variable is desired for a successful analysis, and in this work, observation variable ratio was greater than five.

7.2.1 Factor analysis for work-life balance scale

The first step is to check if the number of samples are adequate for the analysis with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. A value greater than 0.8

shows that the sampling is adequate. For work-life balance scale, the KMO measure was found as 0.911, which indicates that the number of samples was adequate. Another measure for the factor analysis is Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests whether the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. A p-value smaller than 0.05 indicates that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. For work-life balance scale, the p-value was found smaller than 0.001.

The communalities for all variables of the work-life balance scale are over 0.3 (Table 5). Thus, all the variables passed the communality score check. The cumulative variance of the first three factors is 69.4% and the scree plot shows that the first three factors have eigenvalues greater than 1 (Figure 3). The rotated matrix shows that questions 11, 12, 14 and 16 were loaded more than one factor and they were discarded for the rest of the analysis.

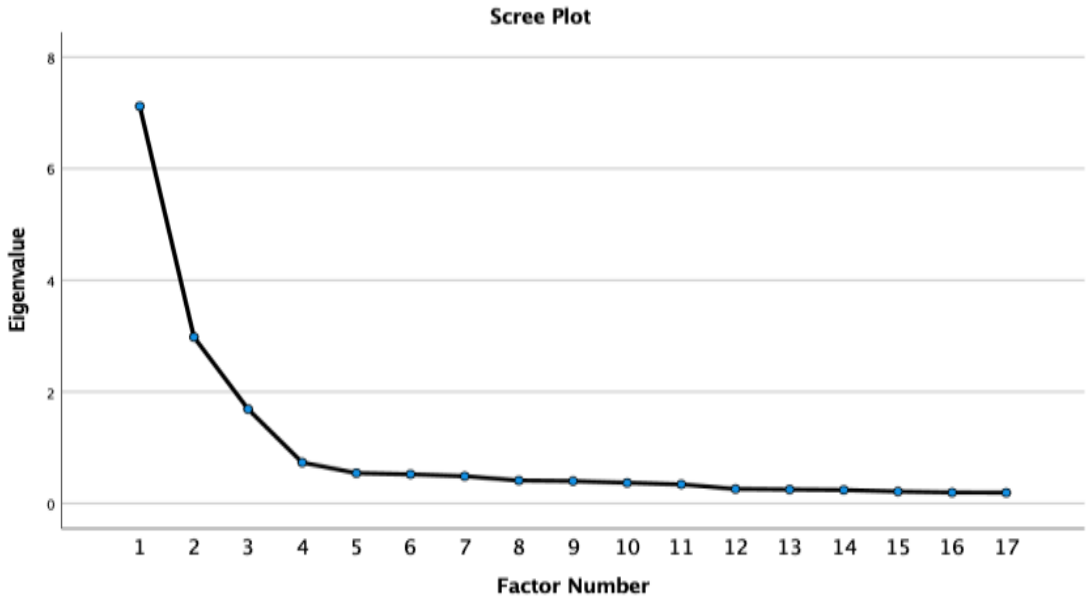


Figure 3. Scree plot for work-life balance factor analysis

Table 5. Communality Values For the Work-Life Balance Scale

Question	Initial	Extraction
1	0.710	0.738
2	0.691	0.683
3	0.723	0.763
4	0.597	0.585
5	0.715	0.761
6	0.580	0.603
7	0.704	0.783
8	0.549	0.563
9	0.504	0.502
10	0.659	0.702
11	0.618	0.604
12	0.586	0.588
13	0.487	0.536
14	0.627	0.690
15	0.562	0.582
16	0.458	0.428
17	0.562	0.594

Table 6. Rotated Factor Matrix for Work-Life Balance Scale

	Factor		
Question	1	2	3
3	0.863		
5	0.852		
1	0.831		
2	0.793		
4	0.737		
12	0.616		0.453
9	0.604		
11	0.585		0.510
16	0.472		0.452
7		0.849	
10		0.816	
17		0.753	
6		0.737	
8		0.728	
14		0.412	0.712
13			0.698
15			0.674

7.2.2 Factor analysis for psychological capital

The KMO's measure was calculated as 0.949 and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity was determined as <0.001 for the variables of psychological capital indicating the number of samples was adequate for the factor analysis. When the communalities were observed, it was seen that the communality value for the question 19 is 0.170, which is smaller than the threshold 0.30. Also, it was not loaded in any of the factors, thus this variable was discarded and the factor analysis was repeated. This time KMO's measure was found as 0.951.

Table 7. Communality Values for the Psychological Capital Scale

Question	Initial	Extraction
1	0.407	0.469
2	0.592	0.570
3	0.722	0.746
4	0.641	0.620
5	0.564	0.520
6	0.654	0.612
7	0.435	0.426
8	0.421	0.423
9	0.421	0.381
10	0.569	0.483
11	0.350	0.428
12	0.654	0.589
13	0.647	0.593
14	0.427	0.469
15	0.674	0.650
16	0.676	0.646
17	0.597	0.548
18	0.526	0.561
19	0.246	0.170
20	0.611	0.577
21	0.660	0.642
22	0.703	0.635
23	0.576	0.566
24	0.532	0.504

The first three factors explained the 61.2% of the total variance and the scree plot shows that the first three factors have an eigenvalue greater than 1. Thus, the analysis was conducted for 3 factors. Four variables, namely questions 4, 13, 17 and 20 were loaded on two factors, thus they were discarded from the analysis along with question 19, which was eliminated through communality analysis.

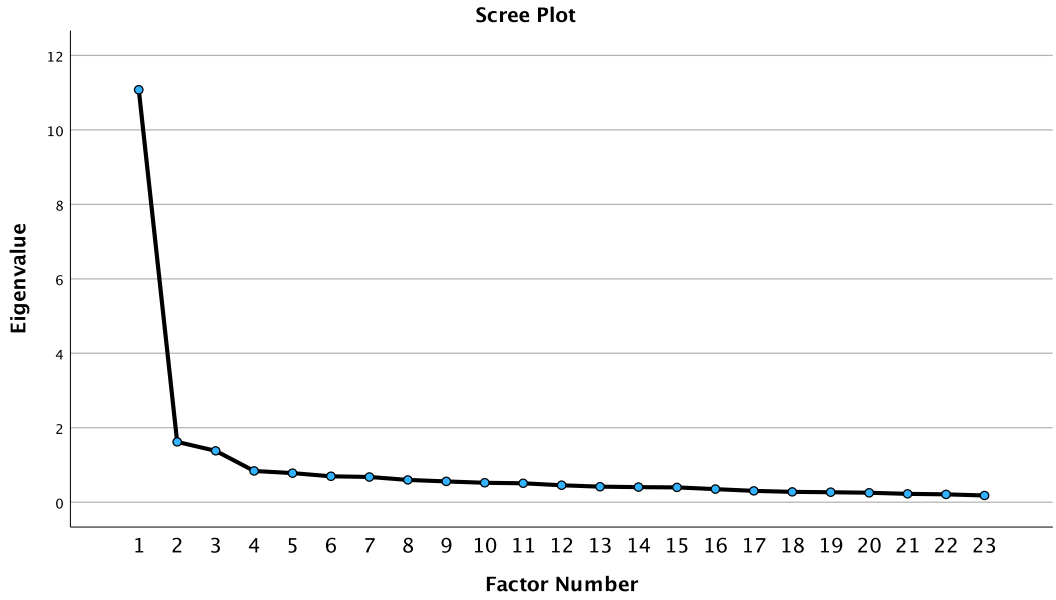


Figure 4. Scree plot for psychological capital factor analysis

Table 8. Rotated Factor Matrix Psychological Capital Scale

	Factor		
Question	1	2	3
3	0.818		
21	0.749		
23	0.713		
15	0.701		
16	0.692		
6	0.674		
10	0.656		
12	0.655		
22	0.646		
24	0.614		
5	0.601		
13	0.567	0.478	

Table 8. Rotated Factor Matrix Psychological Capital Scale (cont.)

	Factor		
Question	1	2	3
9	0.534		
2		0.683	
20	0.408	0.657	
18		0.620	
14		0.605	
17	0.438	0.582	
4	0.518	0.580	
1			0.618
11			0.590
8			0.535
7			0.506

7.2.3 Factor analysis for thriving at work

The sampling adequacy and test of sphericity controls showed that the KMO measure is 0.896 and the p-value is smaller than 0.001, thus the samples were suitable for the factor analysis of thriving at work scale. The first two factors have eigenvalues greater than 1 and they explain 85.1% of the total variance. The communality values for all variables of thriving at work are greater than 0.75. Also, all of the variables were loaded only to one factor, so none of the factors were discarded.

Table 9. Communality Values for Thriving at Work Scale

Question	Initial	Extraction
1	0.779	0.832
2	0.792	0.844
3	0.737	0.782
4	0.715	0.755
5	0.740	0.781
6	0.758	0.792
7	0.752	0.789
8	0.783	0.841

Figure 5. Scree plot for thriving at work factor analysis

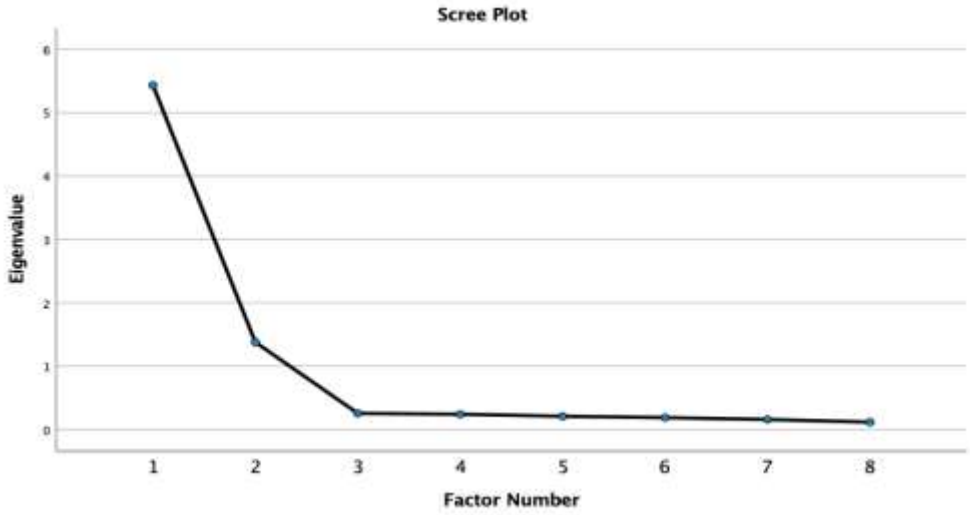


Table 10. Rotated Factor Matrix for Thriving at Work Scale

	Factor	
Question	1	2
2	0.866	
1	0.862	
3	0.831	
4	0.820	
8		0.870
7		0.847
5		0.836
6		0.813

7.3 Reliability analysis

After factor analysis, reliability analyses were conducted on the remaining variables of the scales. Reliability is a degree to estimate the consistency between measurements of a variable (Hair et al., 2010). Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used reliability measure to check internal consistency, especially for Likert type questions. Generally, a score greater than 0.80 is accepted as good reliability, whereas values greater than 0.90 are interpreted as excellent. For all three investigated scales, the Cronbach's alpha values were found to be greater than 0.8,

with psychological capital and thriving at work scoring 0.932 and 0.930, respectively. These results (Table 11) showed that the scales are reliable.

Table 11. Cronbach's Alpha Values for Reliability Analysis

Work-life balance	0.893
Psychological Capital	0.932
Thriving at work	0.930

7.4 Regression analysis

In the last step of analysis, regression analysis was conducted to test this work's hypotheses. Regression analysis is a method to estimate the relationship between two or more variables. Depending on the hypothesis, work-life balance or psychological capital were chosen as de independent variable, and thriving at work or psychological capital were chosen as the dependent variable.

H1: Work-life balance is positively related to thriving at work

In order to see the effect of work-life balance on thriving at work, the independent and dependent variables were selected as work-life balance and thriving at work, respectively. Work-life balance was found to be positively related with thriving at work with a p-value smaller than 0.001 and beta value 0.510, providing the hypothesis to be supported.

Table 12. Regression Results for Work-Life Balance and Thriving at Work

Outcome Variable (TAW)	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.
Model Summary	0.260	0.257	83.796	<0.001
Model	Unstd. B	Std. Beta	t	p-value
constant	1.689		8.601	<0.001
WLB	0.540	0.510	9.154	<0.001

H2: Psychological capital is positively related to thriving at work.

For this analysis, thriving at work was chosen as the dependent variable, while psychological capital was the independent variable. The regression results showed that the psychological capital has a significant positive effect on thriving at work with a beta value of 0.591 and p-value smaller than 0.001. This result supports the hypothesis.

Table 13. Regression Results for Psychological Capital and Thriving at Work

Outcome Variable (TAW)	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.
Model Summary	0.349	0.346	127.522	<0.001
Model	Unstd B	Std Beta	t	p-value
constant	0.405		1.488	0.138
PsyCap	0.809	0.591	11.293	<0.0001

H3: Work-life balance is positively related to psychological capital.

For the second hypothesis, work-life balance was chosen as the independent variable and psychological capital as the dependent variable. Again, work-life balance was determined to be positively affecting the psychological capital with significant results (Table 14) and the hypothesis is supported.

Table 14. Regression Results for Work-Life Balance and Psychological Capital

Outcome Variable (PsyCap)	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.
Model Summary	0.131	0.127	35.802	<0.001
Model	Unstd B	Std Beta	t	p-value
constant	2.844		18.306	<0.001
WLB	0.280	0.362	5.983	<0.001

H4: Psychological capital mediates the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work.

For the mediation analysis, Hayes' PROCESS Macro package version 4.2 (Hayes, 2013) was utilized on SPSS Statistics. The relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital was shown in H1 and also can be seen in Table 15. The lower limit confidence interval (LLCI) and upper limit confidence interval (ULCI) values are both positive and does not include 0, which means the positive relationship is reliable. As for the regression with work-life balance and psychological capital as independent variables, again the results indicate the relationship of these two variables with thriving at work is positive, as can be seen by the significant p-values (<0.001) and LLCIs and ULCIs greater than 0.

Table 15. Mediation Analysis Results

Outcome Variable (PsyCap)	R^2	MSE	F	p
Model Summary	0.1308	0.3035	35.8019	<0.0001
Model	coeff	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.8445	<0.0001	2.5384	3.1506
WLB	0.2795	<0.0001	0.1875	0.3716
Outcome Variable (TAW)	R^2	MSE	F	p
Model Summary	0.4502	0.3619	97.0157	<0.0001
Model	coeff	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-0.1318	0.6172	-0.6505	0.3869
WLB	0.3615	<0.0001	0.2537	0.4693
PsyCap	0.6401	<0.0001	0.5007	0.7796

When the direct and indirect effects of work-life balance were checked, it can be seen that the effect of work-life balance decreases when psychological capital is added to the model, and all of the coefficients and models are significant. This proves that the psychological capital acts as a mediator between work-life balance and thriving at work and partially supports the hypothesis H4.

Table 16. Direct and Indirect Effects of Work-Life Balance on Thriving at Work

Direct effect of WLB on TAW	Effect	p	LLCI	ULCI
WLB	0.3615	<0.0001	0.2537	0.4693
Indirect effect of WLB on TAW	Effect	BootSE	LLCI	ULCI
PsyCap	0.1789	0.0302	0.1222	0.2400

In the previous studies, it is emphasized that moderator variables have an effect on the relations of both PsyCap and work-life balance with other employee and organizational concepts.

H5: Work type moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for hybrid working than full time home and full-time office working.

PROCESS package was also used for the moderation analysis. The moderating effect of work style (office work, hybrid, home office) was analyzed using regression analysis. As in the above cases, the effect of work-life balance was found to be significantly positively related with psychological capital. The effect of work style and its interactions with work-life balance were detected as not significant with p-values 0.5748 and 0.7194, respectively. In addition, the ranges for the coefficients as can be seen by the LLCI and ULCI values for the both variables included both negative and positive values, meaning the variables can affect the dependent variable both negatively and positively. Combining these results with the insignificant p-values, it can be concluded that the hypothesis that states the work style moderates

the relation between work-life balance and psychological capital cannot be supported.

Table 17. Moderation Analysis Results for Work Type Moderation

Outcome Variable (PsyCap)	R^2	MSE	F	p
Model Summary	0.1320	0.3057	11.9619	<0.0001
Model	coeff	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7489	<0.0001	3.6785	3.8193
WLB	0.2763	<0.0001	0.1810	0.3717
Work type	-0.0360	0.5748	-0.1621	0.0902
Interaction	0.0291	0.7194	-0.1301	0.1882

H6: Gender moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for females than for males.

For this hypothesis, the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital was analyzed. It was found that the interaction between work-life balance and gender has significant effect on the psychological capital (p-value 0.0145). Additionally, the index of moderated mediation is nonzero, which indicates that moderated mediation is taking place (Table 18). Also, the indirect effects of genders show that the impact of work-life balance on psychological capital is weakened when the person is male (Figure *6*). The results shown in Table 18 supports the hypothesis that moderated mediation takes place between work-life balance and psychological capital with gender being the moderator.

Table 18. Moderated Mediation Analysis Results for Gender Moderation

Outcome Variable: PsyCap	R^2	MSE	F	p
Model Summary	0.1542	0.2978	14.3401	<0.001
Model	coeff	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.5896	0.0027	0.5584	2.6208
WLB	0.6449	<0.0001	0.3411	0.9487
Gender	0.7910	0.0127	0.1707	1.4112
Interaction (WLB x Gender)	-0.2323	0.0145	-0.4181	-0.0464
Conditional Effect of WLB at values of Genders	Effect	p-value	LLCI	ULCI
Gender – Female	0.4126	<0.0001	0.2739	0.5514
Gender - Male	0.1804	0.0044	0.0568	0.3040
Indirect Effect	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Gender – Female	0.2641	0.0494	0.1750	0.3689
Gender - Male	0.1155	0.0354	0.0412	0.1831
Index of Moderated Mediation	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Gender	-0.1487	0.0585	-0.2771	-0.0468

Figure 6. Moderation graph for work-life balance, gender and psychological capital

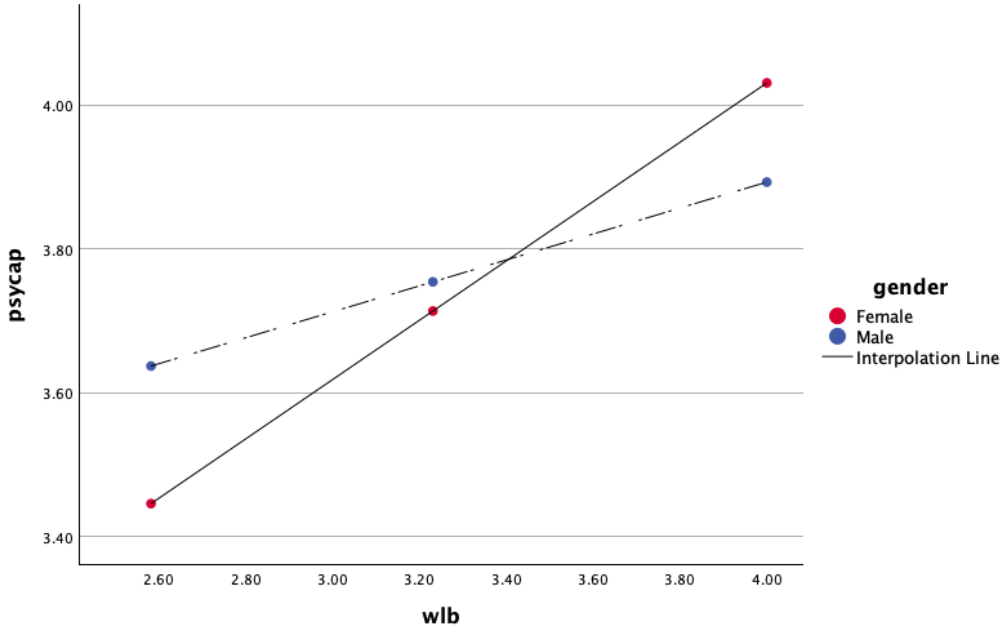


Table 19. Conclusions for the Hypotheses

Code	Hypothesis	Conclusion
H1	Work-life balance is positively related to thriving at work	Supported
H2	Psychological capital is positively related to thriving at work	Supported
H3	Work-life balance is positively related to psychological capital	Supported
H4	Psychological capital mediates the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work.	Partially Supported
H5	Work type moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for hybrid working than full time home and full-time office working.	Not supported
H6	Gender moderates the relationship between work-life balance and psychological capital such that this relationship is more positive for females than for males.	Supported

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between thriving at work and work-life balance and the mediator role of psychological capital in this relationship. In previous studies, thriving at work was treated as an antecedent of psychological capital and work-life balance while in this study, the effect of work-life balance on thriving at work is examined, since the aim is to expand the understanding of thriving at work. In addition, the current study made analysis and set anticipated relations by considering the most recent propositions of SEMT (Porath et al., 2022) and job demands-resources model (Demerouti & Bakker, 2022), which were recently extended with the effect of changing working conditions on work-life balance. In this respect, this research is the first study investigating the impact of work-life balance on thriving at work with the mediator role of psychological capital by considering the extended versions of employed models. As a result of this research, it was found that work-life balance has a positive significant effect on both thriving at work and PsyCap. It was also found that there is a significant positive relationship between PsyCap and thriving at work, and that PsyCap partially mediated the relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work. Finally, it was concluded that work type didn't show a moderator role between work-life balance and PsyCap, on the other hand, gender was found to moderates the relationship between work-life balance and PsyCap, and this relationship was seen as more positive for females than for males.

This study contributes to literature in several ways. The first contribution of this study is the introduction of work life balance as a new antecedent in the field of

thriving at work. Although the relationship between work-life balance and thriving has been examined before, the effect of work-life balance on thriving at work is investigated for the first time in line with the extended SEMT model. Examining this relationship also contributes to the enrichment of the SEMT model. According to the results of the research, it was found that there is a positive relationship between work-life balance and thriving at work. This result supports that the connection in non-work and work domains affects thriving at work (via impact on work-life balance), as pointed out in the recent article by Porath, Gibson, and Spreitzer (Porath et al., 2022). Although the focus of balancing non-work and work thriving which was recommended previously, was not investigated here, it is expected that the established relationship among work-life balance and thriving at work with the new SEMT perspective will contribute to future studies that focus on non-work thriving.

The results, which are explained with the extended versions of SEMT and job demands-resources theory proposed considering new work types, underlines the mediator role of PsyCap between work-life balance and thriving at work. In accordance with this study, one mechanism that supports work-life balance to set its relationship with thriving at work is that work-life balance is an actor that enhances PsyCap. This conclusion supports the arguments that specified based on the assumptions of the job demands-resources model, higher level of PsyCap improves the perception of job demands and resources and thus, more positive perception of job and resource produce more positive individual and work outcomes (Grover et al., 2018; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). It is also in line with Spreitzer et al.'s (2005) statement that individual's resources (psychological capital i.e., hope, optimism, self-efficacy, resilience) are significant driving forces in enhancing agentic behaviors which are the enablers of thriving at work. Furthermore, as a result of the research, it

was seen that PsyCap has a significant relationship with thriving at work. This result supports the following statement based on job demands-resources theory assumptions: The higher level of PsyCap positively affects the employee' perception of job demands and resources, and the positively affected job resources provide higher learning and development and reduce the negative effects of job demand, thus enhances thriving at work (Goh et al., 2021; Grover et al., 2018). Additionally, in the research, it was found that gender has a moderator role in the work-life balance and PsyCap relationship, which is more positive for females than males. This emphasizes the importance of examining gender and such demographic variables in work-life balance and PsyCap concepts (Avey et al., 2011; Eby et al., 2005). It also supports that the perception of work-life balance between different gender roles will vary and this may influence work outcomes (González Ramos & García-de-Diego, 2022).

The study's outcomes also highlights the significance of thriving at work with the growing need for organizations to develop and feel energetic with changing working conditions (Spreitzer & Sutcliffe, 2007). In particular, thriving at work, which is assessed by explaining the relationship between the changing working conditions after Covid-19 and work-life balance, can contribute to further examination of ever-shifting conditions on future thriving at work studies. For instance, one might examine the role of adaptation process that occurs because of employees more frequent shift in one organization to another after Covid-19 pandemic, on thriving at work and the broader impact of this individual thriving to organizational thriving. In addition, although work type did not show a moderator effect between work-life balance and thriving at work in this study, the effect of work type on thriving at work should be researched in more detail with different

cultural domains and different measurement methods (e.g., qualitative methods) in future studies.

The limitations of this study are as follows: There are common method bias because the data is taken from a single source at a single point in time, common source and social desirability bias and causality limitations because the answers are subject to self-reports. In order to reduce these bias, longitudinal and experience sampling methods can be used in subsequent studies focusing on thriving at work. In addition, the results of the study cannot be generalized since this data was collected from employees in Turkey by using the snowball sampling method. In order to reduce these limits, future studies can apply the survey by choosing different cultural domains and different sampling sizes.

The future research directions and possible practical implications of this study are given as following. Since the main area of this study is thriving at work and its predictors, the direction on the future research is concentrated on thriving at work. The emphasis on "self" thriving in the expanded SEMT model, inspired by the "gig economy" notion and the changing working conditions after Covid-19, can be further investigated with thriving at work and different organizational scholarship fields (Ashford et al., 2018; Goh et al., 2021; Porath et al., 2022). Furthermore, although this research is designed as individual level, team and organizational level thriving, that is, the collective thriving, can be studied with work-life balance or job outcomes (Goh et al., 2021; Kleine et al., 2019). When explaining the relationships in future studies, updated theories and models can be used with the change of working conditions. In this study, the extended versions job demands-resources theory and SEMT have been considered, in future studies, for instance, the relationship of COR

theory with new propositions and thriving at work and related issues can be explained.

Finally, the study has some practical implications that point out growing importance of offering training programs that support employee growth and prioritize work-life balance, such as Simplicity Programme (L'Oreal Group & French Financial Markets, 2023), with considering flexible working conditions, can be a beneficial practical implementation for organizational or HR practitioners (Rothbard, Beetz, & Harari, 2021, p. 97).

APPENDIX A

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 12.04.2023-122525

T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER YÜKSEK LİSANS VE DOKTORA TEZLERİ ETİK İNCELEME KOMİSYONU
TOPLANTI KARAR TUTANAĞI

Toplantı Sayısı	:	43
Toplantı Tarihi	:	12.04.2023
Toplantı Saati	:	14:00
Toplantı Yeri	:	Zoom Sanal Toplantı
Bulunanlar	:	Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı, Doç.Dr. Arhan S. Ertan, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ayşegül Metindoğan
Bulunmayanlar	:	Doç. Dr. Senem Yıldız

Esin Esvap
İşletme

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"Thriving at Work: The Role of Work-life Balance and Psychological Capital" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığınız SBB-EAK 2023/39 sayılı başvuru komisyonumuz tarafından 12 Nisan 2023 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Bu karar üyelerin toplantıya çevrimiçi olarak katılımı ve oy birliği ile alınmıştır. Onay mektubu üye ve raportör olarak Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen tarafından toplantıya katılan bütün üyeler adına e-imzalanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla, bilgilerinizi rica ederiz.

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin
SOHTORİK İLKMEN
Öğretim Üyesi

e-imzalıdır
Dr. Öğr. ÜyesiYasemin Sohtorik
İlkmen
Öğretim Üyesi
Raportör

SOBETİK 43 12.04.2023

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Aşağıda iş ve iş dışı yaşantı ilişkisi algılarına yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Kendinizle ilgili aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne kadar katılıyorsunuz? *(Below are statements regarding the perceptions of work and non-work life. Please indicate the level of agreement with each statement about yourself.)*

Response scale: 1 *(Strongly disagree)* 5 *(Strongly agree)*

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum *(Strongly Disagree)*	Katılmıyorum *(Disagree)*	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum *(Neither Agree Nor Disagree)*	Katılıyorum *(Agree)*	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum *(Strongly Agree)*

1- Bu iş yerinde işler asla benim istediğim şekilde yürümez.

(In this job, things never work out the way I want them to.)

2- Bu aralar kendim için belirlediğim iş amaçlarımı yerine getiriyorum.

(At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself)

3- Bir grup iş arkadaşıma bir bilgi sunarken kendime güvenirim.

(I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.)

4- Çalışma alanımda hedefler/amaçlar belirlemede kendime güvenirim.

(I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.)

5- Daha önceleri zorluklar yaşadığım için işimdeki zor zamanların üstesinden gelebilirim.

(I can get through difficult times at work because I have experienced difficulty before.)

6- Herhangi bir problemin çözümü için birçok yol vardır.

(There are lots of ways around any problem.)

7- Genellikle işimdeki stresli şeyleri sakin bir şekilde hallederim.

(I usually take stressful things at work in stride.)

8- İşimde bir terslikle karşılaştığımda onu atlatma konusunda sıkıntı yaşıyorum.

(When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on.)

9- İşimde benim için belirsizlikler olduğunda her zaman en iyisini isterim.

(When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.)

10- Eğer zorunda kalırsam, işimde kendi başıma yeterim.

(I can be "on my own", so to speak, If I have to.)

11- Eğer işimde bir şeyler benim için yanlış gidecekse, o şekilde gider.

(If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will.)

12- Eğer çalışırken kendimi bir tıkanıklık içinde bulursam bundan kurtulmak için birçok yol düşünebilirim.

(If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.)

13- İşimde birçok şeyi halledebileceğimi hissediyorum.

(I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.)

14- İşimle ilgili şeylerin daima iyi tarafını görürüm.

(I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.)

15- Yönetimin katıldığı toplantılarda kendi çalışma alanımı açıklarken kendime güvenirim.

(I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.)

16- Uzun dönemli bir probleme çözüm bulmaya çalışırken kendime güvenirim.

(I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.)

17- Şu anda işimde kendimi çok başarılı olarak görüyorum.

(Right now, I see myself being pretty successful at work.)

18- İşimle ilgili gelecekte başıma ne geleceği konusunda iyimserimdir.

(I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future, as it pertains to work.)

19- İşime "her şeyde bir hayır vardır" şeklinde yaklaşıyorum.

(I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining".)

20- Şu anda iş amaçlarımı sıkı bir şekilde takip ediyorum.

(At the present time, I'm energetically pursuing my work goals.)

21- Organizasyonun stratejisi konusundaki tartışmalara katkıda bulunmada kendime güvenirim.

(I feel confident contributing in discussions about the company' strategy.)

22- İşimdeki zorlukları genellikle bir şekilde hallederim.

(I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.)

23- Organizasyon dışındaki kişilerle (tedarikçiler, tüketiciler vb.) problemleri tartışmak için temas kurarken kendime güvenirim.
(I feel confident contacting people outside the company (suppliers, customers etc.) to discuss problems.)

24- Mevcut iş amaçlarıma ulaşmak için birçok yol düşünebilirim.

(I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.)

THRIVING AT WORK

Kendinizle ilgili aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne kadar katılıyorsunuz?

(Please indicate the level of agreement with each statement about yourself.)

Response scale: 1 *(Strongly disagree)* 6 *(Strongly agree)*

1	2	3	4	5	6
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum *(Strongly Disagree)*	Katılmıyorum *(Disagree)*	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum *(Neither Agree Nor Disagree)*	Katılıyorum *(Agree)*	Kısmen Katılıyorum *(Partially Agree)*	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum *(Strongly Agree)*

1- Kendimi hayat dolu ve canlı hissediyorum.

(I feel alive and vital.)

2- Kendimi enerjik hissediyorum.

(I feel energetic.)

3- Kendimi zinde ve uyanık hissederim.

(I feel alert and awake.)

4- Kendimi pozitif enerji dolu hissederim.

(I feel full of positive energy.)

5- Kendimi sık sık bir şey öğrenirken buluyorum.

(I find myself learning often.)

6- Işime yarayacak yeni beceriler ediniyorum.

(I obtain new skills that will be useful to me.)

7- İşlere bakış açımı değiştiren yeni şeyler öğreniyorum.

(I'm learning new things that change my perspective on work.)

8- İşime yarayacak yeni bilgiler ediniyorum.

(I obtain new information that will be useful to me.)

WORK-LIFE BALANCE

Aşağıda iş ve iş dışı yaşantı ilişkisi algılarına yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır.

Kendinizle ilgili aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne kadar katılıyorsunuz?

(Below are statements regarding the perceptions of work and non-work life. Please indicate the level of agreement with each statement about yourself.)

Response scale: 1 *(Strongly disagree)* 5 *(Strongly agree)*

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum *(Strongly Disagree)*	Katılmıyorum *(Disagree)*	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum *(Neither Agree Nor Disagree)*	Katılıyorum *(Agree)*	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum *(Strongly Agree)*

1- İşimin istekleri nedeniyle kişisel ihtiyaçlarımı ihmal ediyorum.

(I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work.)

2- Özel hayatım işimden dolayı zarar görüyor.

(My personal life suffers because of my work.)

3- İş yaparken harcadığım zamandan dolayı önemli kişisel faaliyetleri gerçekleştiremiyorum.

(I have to miss out on important personal activities because of my work.)

4- İşten eve geldiğimde yapmak istediğim şeyleri yapmak için çok yorgun oluyorum.

(I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do.)

5- İşim, istediğim özel hayatı sürdürmemi zorlaştırıyor.

(My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like.)

6- Özel hayatım işimi yapmam için gerekli olan enerjiyi tüketiyor.

(My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job.)

7- Özel hayatımda olan şeyler yüzünden işim zarar görüyor.

(My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life.)

8- Özel hayatımda olup bitenler nedeniyle işte verimli olamayacak kadar yorgun oluyorum.

(I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.)

9- İşteyken, iş dışında yapmam gerekenler nedeniyle endişeli oluyorum.

(When I am at work, I worry about things I need to do outside of work.)

10- Özel hayatımdaki sorunlarla uğraşmaktan işimi bitirmekte zorlanıyorum.

(I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters.)

11- İşim, iş dışında benim için önemli faaliyetleri gerçekleştirmem için bana güç veriyor.

(My job gives me energy to pursue activities outside of work that are important to me.)

12- İşim sayesinde evdeki ruh halim daha iyi oluyor.

(Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home.)

13- Özel hayatımdaki her şey iş yerinde daha iyi hissetmemi sağlıyor.

(I am in a better mood at work because of everything I have going for me in my personal life.)

14- Özel hayatım bana işimi yapmam için güç veriyor.

(My personal life gives me the energy to do my job.)

15- Özel hayatım, ertesi günkü işler için dinlenmeme ve kendimi hazır hissetmeme yardımcı oluyor.

(My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.)

16- İşyerinde yaptıklarım, evdeki kişisel ve günlük işlerle başa çıkmamı kolaylaştırıyor.

(The things I do at work help me deal with personal and practical issues at home.)

17- Özel hayatımda süregelen şeyler olmazsa, işe daha fazla zaman ayırırdım.

(I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life.)

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