

**T.C.
YILDIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT**

MASTER THESIS

**EXAMINING THE MODERATING ROLE OF THE BIG FIVE
PERSONALITY TRAITS IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY DEMANDS
AND EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING**

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JANUARY 2024

ABSTRACT

EXAMINING THE MODERATING ROLE OF THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY DEMANDS AND EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

The increasing use of information and communication technologies at workplace has created demands that are conceptualized as information and communication technology demands. Covid-19 pandemic is also increasing the use and demand for information and communication technologies. This study aims to explore the relationship between information and communication technologies demands and employee well-being, including subjective well-being, psychological well-being, social well-being and workplace well-being dimensions, and the moderating effect of Big Five personality traits. Although there are studies on various aspects of information and communication technologies and employee well-being in the literature, there is a lack of literature that specifically covers the four dimensions of employee well-being and information and communication technologies demands and addresses personality in this relationship. Data analysis of the survey conducted with 215 employees from various sectors was carried out with SPSS 25.0 program and after reliability analysis, correlation analysis, independent T-test, one-way ANOVA, and regression analysis. It was concluded that there is negative relationship between information and communication technologies demands and employee well-being and that five factor personality traits do not have moderating effects on this relationship.

Keywords: Information and Communication Technologies, Covid-19 Pandemic, Employee Well-being, Big Five Personality Traits, Personality

ÖZET

BEŞ BÜYÜK KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİĞİNİN BİLGİ VE İLETİŞİM TEKNOLOJİSİ TALEPLERİ İLE ÇALIŞAN İYİ OLUŞU ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLÜNÜN İNCELENMESİ

İşyerlerinde bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin artan kullanımı, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojisi talepleri olarak kavramsallaştırılan talepler yaratmıştır. Covid-19 pandemisi de bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin kullanımını ve talebini artırmıştır. Bu çalışma, BİT talepleri ile öznel iyi oluş, psikolojik iyi oluş, sosyal iyi oluş ve işyeri iyi oluşu boyutlarını içeren çalışan iyi oluşu arasındaki ilişkiyi ve Büyük Beşli kişilik özelliklerinin ılımlı etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Literatürde bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri ile çalışanların iyi olma halinin çeşitli boyutlarını ele alan çalışmalar bulunmasına rağmen, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojileri talepleri ile çalışan iyi oluşunun dört boyutunu da kapsayan ve bu ilişkide kişiliği ele alan bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Çeşitli sektörlerden 215 çalışan ile yapılan anketin veri analizi SPSS 25.0 programı ile gerçekleştirilmiş ve güvenilirlik analizi, korelasyon analizi, fark testleri ve regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bilgi ve iletişim talepleri ile çalışanların iyi olma hali arasında negatif bir ilişki olduğu ve beş faktör kişilik özelliklerinden hiçbirinin bu ilişki üzerinde düzenleyici etkisinin olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bilgi ve İletişim Teknolojileri, Covid-19 Pandemisi, Çalışan İyi Oluşu, Büyük Beşli Kişilik Özellikleri, Kişilik

PREFACE

Beni dünyaya getiren, yetiřtiren, emek veren anneme ve babama; varlıklarına řükrettiđim kardeřlerime ve hayatımızı neřelendiren yeęenlerim Umay ve İlay'a.

Elif DEMİREL

January, 2024; İstanbul



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ABBREVIATIONS LIST

ICT	: Information and Communication Technologies
EWB	: Employee Well-Being
SBB	: Subjective Well-Being
PWB	: Psychological Well-Being
SWB	: Social Well-Being
WWB	: Workplace Well-Being
FFM	: Five Factor Model (FFM)



1. INTRODUCTION

The utilization of information and communication technologies (ICT) for business purposes has allowed individuals to engage in work from any location and at any given time, which has resulted in a heightened need for ICT (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The implication of ICT demands on employee well-being, both positive and negative, is widely recognized as a pressing concern for both individuals and organizations. Although the topic of ICT is relatively recent in the literature, there have been attempts to investigate its impact on employees; however, these attempts have not yielded consistent and comprehensive results.

One possible explanation for the inconsistent results is that employees possess varying personality traits. The interpretation of ICT demands may differ among employees with diverse personalities, and these differences in personality provide significant explanations for the various psychological outcomes among individuals (Bolger, 1990; Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995). Therefore, it is plausible that similar ICT demands can impact the well-being of employees in distinct ways. While prior research on ICT and employee well-being have explored individual differences, such as age, gender, education, and professional experience (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008; Robey, 1983; Zmud, 1979), studies on personality types are almost nonexistent. Moreover, the increasing usage of ICT during the Covid-19 pandemic and the anticipated rise in the use of ICT in conventional out-of-office workplaces in the years to come are crucial in terms of employee well-being. It is both theoretically and practically significant to investigate the personality types that play a moderating role in this relationship.

This study seeks to bridge the existing void in the scholarly discourse by scrutinizing the correlation between ICT demands and the well-being of employees, while taking into account the moderating influences of employees' personality traits through the utilization of the Big Five personality classification developed by Costa and McCrae in 1994. Additionally, this study aims to furnish organizations with both theoretical

and practical insights pertaining to the ICT demands that are expected to increase in the coming years.

In order to fulfill these objectives, 215 private and public sector employees in Turkey were surveyed. Cronbach's alpha reliability, correlation analysis, regression analysis, independent T-test and one-way ANOVA analyses were used. As a result of the analysis, a negative relationship was found between ICT demands and employee well-being and its four dimensions. None of the Big Five personality traits were found to have a moderating role in this relationship.

The study consists of 8 chapters. The first chapter, introduction, provides general information about the research. In the second, third and fourth chapters, the conceptual framework is presented by defining and detailing the variables, and the relationships between the variables are examined. In the fifth part of the study, the research model, hypotheses, method, and scales were explained, and the sixth chapter contains the findings of the analysis. In the seventh chapter, there are conclusions and discussion about the research findings, and in the last chapter, there are limitations of the research and suggestions for future studies.

2. INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES

The advancement of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has revolutionized the way people communicate with each other. This has made communication faster, easier, and more cost-effective (Rahmatullah et al., 2022). The development process of ICT started with personal computers in the 1980s and has continued to evolve to date (Rodman & Fry, 2009). ICT encompasses the management of data and information, which involves processing, obtaining, compiling, storing, and manipulating data and information (Badri et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020). According to Afolabi and Abidoye (2011) ICT involves the storage, retrieval, and dissemination of data, images, and other electronic elements of devices such as computers, telephones, and the internet. ICT comprises all electronic devices and technologies that collect, store, or transmit information (Steinmueller, 2000). ICT provides several communication channels for individuals, including the internet, social media, and devices such as mobile phones, computers, and digital personal assistants (Chesley & Johnson, 2010). As stated by Wright et al. (2014), ICT also involves email, phone calls, messaging, video conferences, and smartphones.

2.1. Historical Process

Since Industrial Revolution, there have been several technological advancements and improvements, but none have been as significant or pervasive as the impact of ICT (Sala--Martn et al., 2012). ICT has sparked a technical revolution (Rincon Aznar et al., 2011), and according to Schmidt et al. (2012), it is also both improving the world and transforming society. Similarly, modern technology, according to Marius (2012), has altered how individuals engage, communicate, and conduct business.

Covid-19 pandemic stands out as a significant turning point in the historical process, in addition to other notable events. The pandemic has resulted in social and economic transformations across the globe, with one such transformation being observed in the realm of professional life. The implementation of quarantine measures has necessitated a redefinition of physical working boundaries for several

organizations across the world, as evidenced by various scholarly sources (Molino et al., 2020; Russo et al., 2021). These changes, while accompanied by opportunities and challenges, have had both positive and negative effects on work and life contexts (Carnevale & Hatak, 2020). Several researchers have demonstrated that remote work, particularly the use of ICT tools such as Microsoft Teams and Zoom, has been employed more extensively by employees during the Covid-19 period, and this heightened usage has had an impact on employees (Doidge & Doyle, 2020; McGaughey et al., 2022; Scull et al., 2020).

Increased ICT use and demands are also closely related to the psychological state of employees (Stadin et al., 2021). According to Carnevale and Hatak (2020), the pandemic period had an adverse impact on employees who were not adequately prepared for the extensive use of technology. Taser et al. (2022) have deduced that the extensive usage of ICT among employees during the pandemic period has made it arduous to form and maintain social relationships. Correspondingly, Juchnowicz and Kinowska (2021) have demonstrated that the new normal during and after pandemic has had a negative influence on workers, especially regarding coworker relationships and equilibrium in work-life. Consequently, the use of ICT by employees has surged during the Covid-19 pandemic, and the association between ICT and employee well-being has become more crucial (Bouziri et al., 2020; Feltz-Cornelis et al., 2020; Savić, 2020). Davies (2021) has contended that the escalating usage of ICT during this period will further amplify both geographically and sectorally in the forthcoming years. Lerman and Greene (2020) have also emphasized that this new normal will persist in the approaching years.

2.2. Information and Communication Technology Demands

Although there are studies in the ICT literature such as ICT usage (Day et al., 2010; Litchfield et al., 2016; Porter & Kakabadse, 2006), ICT acceptance (Devaraj et al., 2008), telepressure (Barber & Santuzzi, 2014), ICT demands is the important gap in the literature since there is no research that directly examines ICT demands by bringing its dimensions together in a single study. Day et al. (2010) categorized ICT demands into eight dimensions: hassles, response expectations, availability, workload, lack of control, learn, monitor and poor communication. The hassles dimension covers technical problems such as freezing, internet outages, software

problems of ICT tools used by employees, response expectation is the expectation of a prompt response to messages sent to employees through ICT, availability includes the opportunity to do work from anywhere at any time provided by ICT, as well as the ability to reach employees outside working hours or even when they are on vacation, workload is the creation of new work and responsibilities by ICT, lack of control refers to how, when and what type of ICT employees can use, learn refers to the new knowledge and competencies that employees need to learn because of ICT, monitor refers to the monitoring and control of employees by their organization through ICT, poor communication refers to the potential for ICT use to cause communication misunderstandings between users. Each of these are important work demands related to ICT (Santuzzi & Barber, 2018).

2.3. The Role of Information and Communication Technologies in Working Life

Due to the prevalence of technology in the work, ICT has become an essential requirement for both organizations and employees (Lasrado & Bagchi, 2012). The widespread and rapid utilization of ICT in the workplace has resulted in alterations in the approach to work completion, as well as in communication and relationships among workers (Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Information exchange, interaction, and communication between employees have been transformed by communication tools like e-mail and cell phones (Dabbish & Kraut, 2006). Additionally, new and diverse ICT applications are projected to surround workplaces in the future (Coovert & Thompson, 2003). Nonetheless, despite the extensive use of ICT across multiple professions and workplaces, the literature does not extensively explore the effects of ICT on employees (Day et al., 2012).

2.4. Benefits of Information and Communication Technologies

The advent of ICT tools, such as laptops, tablets, cell phones, and e-mail has enabled employees to access work-related data remotely, thereby facilitating communication, interaction, and collaboration among geographically dispersed employees. With ICT tools such as e-mail and Skype, employees can even reach customers on different continents, eliminating or at least reducing business travel. In addition these, the use of mobile phones is important in terms of planning daily life and the benefit of being

able to do important tasks such as business planning and meeting planning (Ling, 2004; Wajcman et al., 2008).

In particular, research has examined the impact of ICT on productivity (Kilicaslan et al., 2013) and innovation (Arvanitis & Loukis, 2014; Higón, 2012). Several studies revealed that ICT enhances productivity in organizations (Kamaruzzaman et al., 2010; Mortagy et al., 2005; Wet et al., 2016), providing employees with greater autonomy, control over their work, job satisfaction, and lower turnover intention (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Mazmanian et al., 2013). According to Castellacci and Tveito (2016), ICT can save time, promote psychological well-being through the creation of new activities and applications, enable easier access to information, and facilitate effective communication. Moreover, Wet et al. (2016) found that ICT technologies allow employees to perform tasks rapidly and flexibly, both at work and off-site. Although non-face-to-face work environments created by ICT may increase the emotional distance between employees, Day et al. (2012) argue that it can also lead to higher productivity. Additionally, not only remote or hybrid workers but also physically co-located workers rely on ICT to facilitate their work (Finn, 2006; Markus, 1994). Derks (2014) point out that ICT provides accessibility and flexibility in communication, as well as ease in responding to incoming messages. By providing employees with flexibility in terms of where and when work is done, ICT supports employee productivity (Kossek et al., 2006; Mazmanian et al., 2013). Similarly, Harpaz (2002) highlighted that ICT can provide flexibility in meeting work-related demands, while Gilson et al. (2014) stated that ICT enables communication and collaboration among employees by eliminating geographical and other accessibility constraints. Furthermore, ICT tools offer workers more choice and less certainty in doing their work and living their lives (Mazmanian et al., 2013). Lastly, Maiti and Awasthi (2020) analyzed data from 67 countries and demonstrated that exposure to ICT positively affects well-being, including economic well-being, human well-being, subjective well-being, human progress, cultural progress, and environmental progress.

2.5. Damages of Information and Communication Technologies

Wet et al. (2016) contend that despite the favorable outcomes and discourses pertaining to ICT among organizations and employees, they also have negative

consequences. Specifically, ICT has been shown to generate distractions and diminish the quality of work-life among employees. This has a profound impact on their workplace, personal space, and work-home relationships. Moreover, it has infiltrated employees' family life, resulting in reduced time spent with their loved ones. Despite the increase in frequency of communication facilitated by ICT, the quality of communication has been observed to decrease.

The intensive use of ICT has not only made these technologies a necessity but also made people dependent on them (Badri et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020). Wet et al. (2016) discovered that employees who utilize ICTs often develop a dependency and addiction towards them, consequently altering the norm of accessibility. Prior to the advent of ICT, employees were not always within reach, while now they are constantly available during and outside of working hours, as they can now connect anytime and anywhere. Furthermore, Porter and Kakabadse (2006) said that most ICT tools are portable, which means that employees are exposed to work-related ICT messages regardless of their physical location outside of working hours, rendering them always accessible. This increased accessibility translates to employees having to deal with work-related tasks and demands, even when they are not at the office, contributing to 24/7 work routines or overworking (Piazza, 2007; Porter & Kakabadse, 2006). There is compelling evidence that Americans are overworked due to ICT usage. Ilies et al. (2010) posited that overworking can increase both the workload. In addition, ICT demands, such as unpredictable emails and phone calls, not only interrupt the work that employees have to do during limited working hours but also overload them with an excessive amount of information (Jett & George, 2003; Pachler et al., 2018; Sonnentag et al., 2017). Potter et. al., (2022) showed that more than half of the academics communicate work-related messages to each other through ICT tools after work, and 30 percent of them communicate work-related messages to their colleagues through ICT tools on weekends while waiting for a response. Carroll et al. (2002) contend that the constant connectivity provided by cell phones causes employees to be unable to differentiate between work and home. Firoozabadi et al. (2018) argue that ICT tools blur the boundary between work and non-work time. Zorn et al. (2008) assert that ICT amplifies work, heightens surveillance, displaces workers, and undervalues their competencies. Nevertheless,

despite the negative experiences that ICT use creates for employees, the number of positive experiences is higher (Wet et al., 2016).

2.6. Dual Consequences of Information and Communication Technologies

In the literature, in addition to the positive and negative effects of ICT demands on employees, there are also some paradoxical effects created by ICT.

Kranzberg (1995) posited that the effects of ICT on employees are not unidirectional, as it is neither solely beneficial nor detrimental. Several studies (Coovert & Thompson, 2003; Goodman-Deane et al., 2016; Korunka & Vitouch, 1999; Morgan et al., 2002) have demonstrated that ICT can result in positive as well as negative outcomes for employees. Specifically, the utilization of ICT can increase work flexibility (Standen et al., 1999) and the level of communication (Dewett & Jones, 2001), but it can also raise job demands (Wang et al., 2008) and accessibility beyond working hours (Tarafdar et al., 2007). In the same vein, Mazmanian et al. (2013) contend that the use of mobile email engenders a paradoxical effect, whereby it enables the flexibility to work anytime and anywhere, but also fosters the expectation of being available anytime and anywhere. Wet et al. (2016) stated that employees are easily reachable through ICT, leading to increased productivity and efficiency, but they are also required to perform additional tasks. Madden and Jones (2008) further posit that the use of ICT enhances employee performance, but conversely extends working hours and heightens stress levels. Moreover, ICT facilitates the establishment and maintenance of relationships as well as communication, which may be repeated regularly. Conversely, it reduces the need for interaction among employees and shortens the time for building relationships, ultimately diminishing the level of intimacy in conversations (Wet et al., 2016). Gajendran et al. (2014) express the significant impact of ICT on employees, but also highlighted the absence of a comprehensive theory that accounts for these outcomes.

3. WELL-BEING

The concept of well-being has been described in various ways (Kesebir & Diener, 2009). It is defined as physical, emotional, social, developmental, financial, and activity-related state (Waddell & Burton, 2006), as well as the realization of personal and social objectives (Dewe & Kompier, 2008). Warr and Nielsen (2018) have noted the importance of distinguishing elements when conceptualizing well-being. According to them, well-being refers to life satisfaction and happiness, regardless of the context, before being narrowed down to a particular aspect of life such as health, family, work, or leisure time. According to Lucas et al. (1996) and Ryff (1989), well-being can be divided into various types, and Diener et al. (2009) have proposed examining the various well-being types separately. Huppert and So (2013) have identified three dimensions of well-being: positive evaluation, positive functioning, and positive personal characteristics. Seligman (2002) has divided well-being into three dimensions as positive emotions, commitment, and life purpose. Seligman (2011) has added two more dimensions, namely, achievement and positive relationships with others.

3.1. Perspectives on Well-Being

In recent times, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of academic studies focusing on the positive aspects of well-being, with particular emphasis on the evaluation of well-being from two distinct perspectives, i.e., hedonic and eudaimonic. The differentiation between these two views of well-being holds significant relevance. In the most basic sense, while hedonic well-being pertains to the experience of pleasurable emotions and evaluations, eudaimonic well-being is about self-actualization and engaging in meaningful behaviors (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008).

3.1.1. Hedonic Perspective

Hedonia refers to an individual's perception that they have attained their desired goals and the resulting pleasurable emotions (Kraut, 1979). These emotions are subjective and can vary considerably from person to person, rendering them quite high (Waterman, 2008). Hedonic well-being is also regarded as the source of pleasurable and unpleasant life experiences, with hedonism and well-being being viewed as interchangeable, where well-being is defined as pleasure in contrast to pain (Kahneman et al., 1999).

Numerous well-being studies focus on three components of hedonic well-being, also known as subjective well-being (SBB), frequent positive affect, infrequent negative affect, and positive life satisfaction experiences (Diener, 1984). Although well-being can be viewed as encompassing both pleasurable and meaningful experiences (Dolan, 2014; Keyes et al., 2002; Linley et al., 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2001), most well-being studies have embraced a hedonistic approach (Peiro et al., 2019).

3.1.2. Eudaimonic Perspective

Eudaimonism is a concept that involves the comprehension of oneself and the achievement of personal potential. Given that everyone possesses unique characteristics, eudaimonic well-being will inevitably differ from person to person, as stated by Norton (1976). Originating from the works of Ryan and Deci (2001), eudaimonic well-being, also known as psychological well-being (PWB), encompasses not only the pursuit of a pleasant life but also a productive one. Essential components of eudaimonic well-being include the pursuit of meaningfulness, self-actualization, goal setting, and pursuing them, according to Sheldon and Elliot (1999). Despite the historical roots of eudaimonic well-being in Greek philosophy, empirical research on it has been less extensive than that conducted on hedonic well-being (Waterman, 2008).

3.2. Distinction between Hedonic Perspective and Eudaimonic Perspective

These two perspectives, which form the basis of SBB and PWB, share both similarities and differences. The first study trying to distinguish between the concepts of eudaimonia and hedonia and revealing their differences was conducted by Waterman in 1993. Waterman considered the concepts of hedonic pleasure and

eudaimonia as interrelated and different from each other because these two concepts overlap, albeit partially, and it is not possible to clearly distinguish and classify them (Fisher, 2014; Linley et al., 2009; Pancheva et al., 2021; Waterman, 2008). If a sense of purpose and meaningfulness underlie a concept, it can be categorized as eudaimonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Whilst the literature remains divided on the issue of whether hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions of well-being can be distinguished, there is evidence to suggest that these two dimensions are highly interrelated in practice and that eudaimonic behavior can contribute to hedonic behavior. This is because self-actualization can generate both pleasure and satisfaction, as argued by Waterman (2008). Nevertheless, Waterman (2008) goes on to emphasize that eudaimonic well-being is not a necessary condition for hedonic happiness, and both dimensions of well-being should be evaluated separately due to their distinct aspects. Robertson and Cooper (2010) described the difference between the hedonic approach and the eudaimonic approach as being that many situations or actions which are initially pleasurable for most people may become less pleasurable over time, and consequently lead to less positive experiences. For many individuals, it is important that experiences are meaningful or lead to a goal, forming the basis of the eudaimonic approach. While these two types of well-being are known to develop independently of each other, they are complementary, as noted by Keyes et al. (2002), who state that these two well-being traditions can be antecedent, consequence, or mediating variables.

The discourse concerning the hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives is an enduring and contemporary one, however, its resolution remains elusive at present. Instead, these perspectives are referenced as they are linked to the concept of well-being. Drawing from these studies, the hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives manifest both commonalities and disparities, and correspond to well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001). It is also noteworthy that these distinctions are principally theoretical and conceptual, and the observable discrepancies between them are less evident (Anglim et al., 2020).

3.3. Employee Well-Being (EWB)

The definition of well-being is a topic of interest in various fields including work, management, education, and therapy, as these domains focus on the human condition. Ryan and Deci (2001) assert that there is no agreement on the definition of employee well-being (EWB). Several studies in literature contend that general well-being inadequately captures employee well-being (Rice et al., 1980; Rode, 2004). Furthermore, Lyubomirsky (2001) characterizes employee well-being as a concept that is universally understood, yet no one can provide a clear definition.

Juniper (2010) posited that the inability of academics to provide a precise definition of EWB is attributable to the high number of terms employed by the academic community. Notably, Lawler (1975), Sirgy et al. (2001), and Warr et al. (1979) describe EWB as Quality of Work Life (QWL) or Quality of Working Life (QoWL), while Laar et al. (2007) utilize the term Work Related Quality of Life (WRQoL). Kiernan and Knutson (1990) named the well-being of employees as QWL (quality of work life) and stated that employees individually determine and evaluate their work life by limiting their well-being to the workplace, so the quality of work life varies from employee to employee. Wright et al. (2007) regard employee well-being as a summary of their entire life, without assessing it in the workplace context.

Upon a review of the literature, Danna and Griffin (1999) conducted an analysis of EWB with regards to the work environment, personality traits, and occupational stress, asserting that EWB has a significant impact on the physical, psychological, and mental health of employees. While EWB is defined as the psychological state and quality of life of employees in the workplace (Siegrist et al., 2007), it is also defined as general well-being, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion (Vanhala & Tuomi, 2006). Lu et al. (2006) postulated that EWB encompasses job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and positive emotions, although some researchers, including Diener and Seligman (2002) and Diener and Ryan (2009), have argued that negative emotions should also be taken into account. Warr's (1990) and Daniels's (2000) affective well-being models incorporate work-related affect in employee well-being. High well-being is comprised of constructs such as job satisfaction, job engagement, flow, and motivation (Fisher, 2010), whereas low well-being includes burnout (Fisher, 2014). Moreover, EWB is defined by focusing on

subjective job satisfaction (Sheppard, 1975), stress (Lawler, 1975), the work environment, pay, employment, and career (Mirvis & Lawler, 1984), and life satisfaction, happiness, or subjective well-being resulting from job satisfaction (Sirgy, 2006). Laar and colleagues (2007) posited that EWB is influenced by both internal and external workplace factors. Similarly, Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) defined EWB as the subjective satisfaction experienced by employees both at work and outside of it, and identified three distinct components: SBB, PWB, and WWB. Warr (1999), a prominent EWB researcher, defined the construct in terms of employee experiences and job dimensions, and posited that it can be examined in either a context-independent or context-specific manner. EWB is a subcomponent of context-specific well-being and emphasizes employees' feelings about various workplace factors such as job satisfaction and salary satisfaction. Ilies and colleagues (2007) further divided and defined EWB as work-related and non-work-related well-being and identified individual and situational factors that contribute to each. EWB is vague and intuitive (McDowell, 2006), and several researchers have maintained that the definition of EWB remains unclear (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Jackson & Cox, 2006; Martel & Dupuis, 2006).

3.4. Dimensions of Employee Well-Being

Numerous studies emphasized the importance of a comprehensive definition of EWB and the inclusion of questions that encompass both work and non-work domains (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Laar et al., 2007; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Sirgy et al., 2001). The contemporary definition of EWB indicates that it is a multifaceted, dynamic, and subjective construct that extends beyond mere job satisfaction (Juniper, 2010).

Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) identified three dimensions of EWB: subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and workplace well-being. Similarly, Zheng et al. (2015) defined EWB with three dimensions, namely life well-being, work well-being, and psychological well-being, based on Page and Vella-Brodrick's (2009) theoretical framework. Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2012) examined well-being in the context of work and identified five dimensions: positive relationships at work, importance of work, sense of competence, appreciation of the person, and participation in work. Biétry and Creusier (2015) reached four well-being indicators

and five employee profiles. Well-being indicators are having positive relationships with coworkers, having positive relationships with the manager, being satisfied with the physical environment, and being satisfied with work-life balance and employee profiles are inadequate well-being, normative well-being, organizational well-being, complete well-being and social well-being. Warr (1999) identified three dimensions of EWB: pleasure and dissatisfaction, anxiety and comfort, and depression and euphoria. While the pleasure and discontentment dimension encompass positive and negative emotions related to work, the anxiety and comfort dimension relates to the degree of mental stimulation, and the depression and euphoria dimension includes sadness and overly positive emotions. Zheng et al. (2015) further argued that EWB is not solely tied to work, thus it should encompass both work-related and non-work-related emotions. Ryan and Deci (2000) posited that well-being comprises two dimensions: hedonism, which focuses on pleasure, and eudemonism, which focuses on self-actualization. Pradhan and Hati (2019) identified four dimensions of employee well-being: social well-being (SWB), psychological well-being (PWB), subjective well-being (SBB), and workplace well-being (WWB). The dimensions of SBB and PWB are instrumental in the emergence and development of EWB research (Ilies et al., 2007) and due to these two generally accepted paradigms, they are included when researching EWB (Zheng et al., 2015). SWB and WWB are two other dimensions of EWB (Pradhan & Hati, 2019). In this study, the dimensions identified by Pradhan and Hati will be utilized.

3.4.1. Subjective Well-Being (SBB)

Subjective well-being (SBB) has emerged as the principal gauge of well-being in recent years and has been incorporated into research (Ryan & Deci, 2001). SBB refers to an individual's self-appraisal with respect to positive and negative experiences and encompasses life satisfaction and dispositional affect (Diener et al., 2003), as well as the evaluation of one's own life (Frey et al., 2007). Additionally, SBB is classified as life satisfaction, happiness, positive affect, and negative affect (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998), and also as life satisfaction, optimism, self-esteem, and affect (Lucas et. al., 1996).

Although there exists a lack of consensus within the literature regarding the precise scope of SBB, commonly reiterated aspects include life satisfaction, happiness,

quality of life, and general positive and negative affect, as posited by Steel et al. (2008). While life satisfaction constitutes a personal and thus subjective interpretation of one's own life, as noted by Pavot et al. (1991), quality of life functions as a metric that amalgamates well-being across various domains of life (Anderson & Burckhardt, 1999; Felce & Perry, 1995). Happiness is affiliated with maintaining a consistent and optimistic mood (Averill & More, 1993) whereas affect pertains to an individual's evaluation of particular life events. Life satisfaction and happiness encompass life as a whole, quality of life and affect involve assessments that are specific to particular events. Furthermore, the effect may pertain to more delimited periods of time, such as days or weeks, or may encompass lengthier spans, such as years (Steel et al., 2008). Pradhan and Hati (2019) further define SBB as happiness, optimism, or the absence of these.

3.4.2. Psychological Well-Being (PWB)

Jahoda (1958) identified six healthy psychological processes, including self-acceptance, accurate perception of reality, autonomy, environmental mastery, growth and development, and personality integration. Jahoda's work greatly influenced Ryff and colleagues (1989) in creating the PWB classification and this six-dimensional PWB concept has been used in many studies. These dimensions encompass self-acceptance, purpose in life, environmental dominance, positive relationships, personal development, and autonomy. Self-acceptance is characterized by an individual's recognition and acknowledgement of their strengths and weaknesses, while positive relationships emphasize the significance of interpersonal connections (Ryff & Singer, 2008). Personal development, an important dimension of PWB, closely aligns with eudaimonic well-being as both are intrinsically linked to self-actualization. The life purpose dimension centers around an individual's orientation towards a meaningful existence. Environmental mastery relates to an individual's active engagement and ability to influence and control their surroundings. The autonomy dimension highlights the importance of independence, self-determination, and behavioral regulation and it is considered the most westernized dimension of PWB (Ryff & Singer, 2008). They not only define PWB but also reveal the elements that contribute to an individual's mental and physical well-being (Ryff & Singer, 1998).

Many research studies have demonstrated that PWB comprises of a sense of purpose and positive emotions, a concept that has been espoused by studies (Fredrickson, 1998; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Seligman et al., 2005). Fredrickson (1998) expounded on the role of positive emotions in PWB, pointing out that they bolster an individual's physical, intellectual, and social resources. Additionally, Fredrickson et al. (2003) posited that the impact of positive emotions on PWB is strengthened by the presence of a sense of purpose. These studies highlight that pleasure and purpose are both essential for a comprehensive understanding of well-being. Likewise, employees need to experience positive emotions and find meaning in their work to grasp their well-being at work, as identified in Robertson and Cooper's (2010) research. Similar findings were obtained in the study by Robertson and Flint-Taylor (2008), where PWB was defined as the emotional and purposeful psychological state that employees exhibit towards work. Notably, Bakker and Sanz-Vergel (2013) discovered that employees who face job pressure have less development, flourishing, and growth, which are dimensions of eudaimonic well-being. Consequently, employees who find their work more meaningful tend to focus more on it (Niessen et al., 2012; Spreitzer et al., 2005). Peiro et al. (2019) further caution that employees can concurrently experience hedonic unhappiness and eudaimonic happiness or vice versa, emphasizing the need to avoid unidimensional approaches to well-being that present an incomplete picture.

3.4.3. Social Well-Being (SWB)

Examining well-being from an exclusively internal standpoint has been criticized by some academics for neglecting the role that social existence plays in shaping individuals' well-being. As Keyes (1998), Kpanake (2018), and Prilleltensky (2005) have argued, well-being encompasses not only subjective dimensions, but also material and relational aspects, and it is crucial to consider individuals' relationships with others. Ryff (1989) and White (2010) have included community and a sense of belonging as key components of well-being. Keyes (1998) has proposed a third dimension, namely social well-being, which refers to individuals' self-reported relationships with other members of society. Keyes (1998) has developed a six-component model of SWB based on social psychology, which comprises social integration, social contribution, social cohesion, social adaptation, social actualization, and social acceptance. Social integration refers to the individual's

perception of belonging to society, while social acceptance pertains to the individual's acceptance by society. Social contribution is the individual's ability to contribute to the community, while social actualization is the perception that the community has the potential to grow and develop. Social coherence refers to the perception of society as a logical, organized, and well-functioning structure. Keyes (1998) has also emphasized the importance of investigating SWB in order to gain a better understanding of individuals' overall well-being and functioning. Pradhan and Hati (2019) contend that SWB is related to social relationships, social stability, and social success, and also includes feelings of belonging and connectedness to the community.

There are few studies on social well-being in the literature (De Jager et al., 2008; Shayeghian et al., 2020). While earlier studies during the Hawthorn era shed light on the significance of social relations in the workplace, Fisher (2014) notes a subsequent decline in the importance attributed to this factor. Baumeister and Leary's (1995) research underscores the crucial role of social relationships in human interactions, particularly in contributing to one's well-being through stable social connections. Living in a society that fosters trust is positively correlated with enhanced life satisfaction (Helliwell et al., 2009), and social support can likewise bolster well-being (Halbesleben, 2006). Conversely, investigations by Halbesleben and Buckley (2006) and Doest and Jonge (2006) contend that inadequate social support at work can result in a decline in employees' well-being over time. Dutton (2003) and Dutton and Heaphy (2003) posited that the existence of high-quality connections among employees can serve as a source of energy and well-being for workers. Furthermore, an atmosphere of trust and respect among coworkers in the workplace can bolster eudaimonic well-being (Spreitzer et al., 2005). According to Rath and Harter (2010), employees tend to be more committed to their work when they receive support from their employers, have amiable colleagues, and enjoy positive interactions with them on the job. Studies on negative relationships (interpersonal conflicts, social undermining, aggression) have also concluded that such relationships reduce employee well-being (Hoobler et al., 2010; Rubenstein et al., 2013).

3.4.4. Workplace Well-Being (WWB)

The workplace serves as a significant habitat for individuals, granting financial advantages (Morin, 2004) and a social structure in the form of both horizontal and vertical relationships formed within the work environment (Morin et al., 1994). WWB is interrelated with the security of work-life, personnel reinforcement and growth, work environment and opportunities, and includes other work-related elements (Pradhan & Hati, 2019).

3.5. The Role of Employee Well-Being in Working Life

There are scholars who assert that investigations regarding this topic are advancing slowly owing to the absence of an agreed-upon definition of EWB (Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Wright & Cropanzano, 2007). Nevertheless, in contrast to this discourse, there are also viewpoints that it is a subject of escalating interest in academia and institutions (Chen & Cooper, 2014; Danna & Griffin, 1999; Diener, 2000; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Robertson & Cooper, 2010; Zheng et al., 2015). Jackson and Cox (2006) indicate the service-oriented feature of the modern economy as the reason behind this growing interest and emphasize that such an economy jeopardizes employee well-being in diverse ways.

When examining the literature on EWB, a wide range of outcomes is discovered. Specifically, Warr and Nielsen (2018) identified a minor positive correlation between EWB and performance, whereas Niessen et al. (2012) reported a relationship between EWB and performance. Wijngaards et al. (2021) asserted that WWB encompasses aspects such as job satisfaction, work engagement, work emotions, work mood, and dispositional work affect. While work engagement is believed to be associated with EWB (Fisher, 2014), other constructs are believed to be linked to hedonic well-being (Bowling et al., 2005, 2010; Fisher, 2014). Not only does EWB consist of job satisfaction, but it also incorporates various well-being components such as work-life balance, emotional and personal health, growth, and development (Zheng et al., 2015). Amabile et al. (2005) demonstrated that individuals with high well-being tend to be more innovative in their work. Other researchers have arrived at comparable conclusions (Binnewies & Wörnlein, 2011; Madrid et al., 2014). Individuals with high EWB exhibit greater productivity, are less likely to resign from their jobs, and experience higher satisfaction levels (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012).

Burnout, one of the indicators of negative well-being, has also been shown to lead to an increase in absenteeism over time (Shi et al., 2013; Ybema et al., 2010). Moreover, although it is known that employees who receive more social support from their colleagues have better mental health (Simbula, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008), it has been reported that employees with negative interpersonal relationships at work display behaviors related to negative well-being (Ilies et al., 2011). Nevertheless, disparities exist in research findings regarding circumstances characterized by inadequate or absent social support. Despite the advantages of social support in promoting favorable well-being among employees, it may not necessarily alleviate negative well-being indicators (Dimotakis et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2011; Totterdell et al., 2006).

Similar to the increase in academic research focused on the concept of EWB, there is an inclination towards this subject in various organizations (Currie, 2001; Kersley et al., 2006; Warr, 2002). As organizations become cognizant of the advantages of implementing EWB policies, they are inclined to augment their policies in this domain (Tehrani et al., 2007). Zheng et al. (2015) said that several companies in China have commenced conducting research on EWB and notable corporations such as Alibaba, Suning, and Orange Hotel have developed initiatives aimed at making contributions to EWB.

3.6. The Relationship between Information and Communication Technologies Demands and Employee Well-Being

One of the important consequences stemming from the use of ICT pertains to its impact on EWB. With regard to the ICT demands scrutinized in this thesis, studies in the literature show that ICT demands can lead to an increase or decrease in EWB (Beehr et al., 2000; Day & Livingstone, 2001; Liu et al., 2005).

Studies in the literature indicate that the impact of ICT on individuals' well-being is mostly positive (McKenna et al., 2002). An investigation conducted across 67 countries revealed that exposure to ICT has a positive influence on various aspects of well-being such as economic, human, subjective, and cultural progress, as well as environmental progress (Maiti & Awasthi, 2020). Furthermore, ICT devices have been found to contribute positively to the well-being of employees by facilitating their work-life balance (Lowry & Moskos, 2023). Previous studies also suggest that

the use of ICT enhances employees' work-life balance, autonomy, and motivation (Duxbury et al., 2006; Hill et al., 2003; Kurkland & Bailey, 1999). The benefits of ICT according to Kossek et al. (2003, 2009) are not limited to providing constant access, but rather to offering employees the flexibility to determine when, where, and how to work. Since ICT is a social tool, it is expected to influence relationships (Goodman-Deane et al., 2016). Some researchers argue that ICT brings people closer to each other, thereby enabling individuals to form new relationships and maintain pre-existing ones (Fox & Chesley, 2009). Using ICT saves time, supports PWB, provides easier access to information, and facilitates effective communication.

Some scholars contend that the specific type of ICT tool used is also an important factor (Castellacci & Tveito, 2016). For instance, video calls and phone calls have a positive impact on well-being, whereas text or instant messages have a negative effect. Additionally, employment status is an essential consideration (Goodman-Deane et al., 2016). While blue-collar employees who work remotely via ICT have low job well-being (Crawford et al., 2011; Felstead et al., 2005; Leung et al., 2015; Quinlan et al., 2001; Vartiainen & Hyrkkänen, 2010), the research on the EWB of white-collar employees working remotely via ICT is inconclusive. White-collar workers have both low and high levels of work well-being (Barber & Santuzzi, 2014; Day et al., 2012; Fenner & Renn, 2010; Fonner & Roloff, 2012; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Mazmanian et al., 2013; Middleton & Cukier, 2006; Park et al., 2011; Sewell & Taskin, 2015; Tarafdar et al., 2007).

On the contrary, Day et al. (2010) posited that certain ICT demands have adverse effects on the well-being of employees. These demands encompass the ability to contact workers via ICT beyond their official working hours, the degree of control that workers possess over ICT, the influence of ICT on communication and interaction amongst workers, information overload, and monitoring of workers.

Employees who exposure to ICT demands often feel compelled to respond to ICT messages both during and outside of work hours, a phenomenon which has been shown to have the potential to adversely affect employees' well-being (Barber & Jenkins, 2014; Santuzzi & Barber, 2018). There exists literature demonstrating that employees who confront work-related demands via ICT outside of normal working hours frequently find themselves unable to disengage from work-related concerns, ultimately resulting in feelings of strain and reduced well-being (Bakker et al., 2013;

Barber & Santuzzi, 2014; Geurts & Sonnentag, 2007). Potter et. al., (2022) revealed that over half of the academic staff communicated work-related messages via ICT tools after work hours, with 30% of this group sending such messages on weekends and awaiting a response. Barber and Santuzzi (2014) contend that although heightened engagement with work via ICT is often viewed as a positive performance indicator, it may lead to negative impacts on employee well-being over time. The use of ICT has been shown to cause employees to overwork (Porter & Kakabadse, 2006), which can increase both workload and tension (Ilies et al., 2010). The use of ICT can be perceived as either a liberating or oppressive force, enabling employees to manage complex demands or hindering the ability to distance oneself from work. Consequently, the use of ICT for work or outside of work may have an impact on both individual and community-based well-being (Litchfield et al., 2016). As Demerouti et al. (2001) suggest, employees who are subjected to constant or excessive work demands are likely to experience a decline in their physical and psychological resources over time, resulting in negative effects on their well-being. The use of ICT for workplace communication may lead to misunderstandings and misinterpretations, ultimately resulting in communication breakdowns (Ramirez et al., 2002). Miscommunication, in turn, has been linked with anger (Marcus, 1994), frustration, stress and tension (Day et al., 2010).

Several studies in the literature have demonstrated that the use of ICT contributes to an increase in the amount of information accessible to employees. However, it is important to note that this influx of information can lead to information overload (Edmunds & Morris, 2000; Jackson et al., 2003). To effectively utilize ICT tools, it is necessary to acquire new knowledge and stay updated with the constant developments and updates in the technology. These innovations can have a detrimental impact on employees' well-being by increasing the amount of knowledge they must acquire (Korunka et al., 1997; Stewart & Barling, 1996; Zorn, 2003). Moreover, organizations routinely monitor and record employees' use of ICT (Miller & Weckert, 2000; Mishra & Crampton, 1998; Stanton & Weiss, 2000). This has been linked to employee stress (Coover and Thompson, 2003; Fairweather, 1999), anxiety, depression, health complaints, anger, and fatigue (Amick and Smith, 1992; Lund, 1992; Schleifer and Shell, 1992). However, employees who have more control over their use of ICT experience fewer difficulties than those who have less control

(Coover & Thompson, 2003). Several other studies have linked employees' lack of control over their work to increased anxiety (Mikkelsen et al., 2002; O'Driscoll et al., 2010), stress (Hair et al., 2007), and frustration (O'Driscoll et al., 2010). Additionally, the use of ICT technologies can lead to frustration due to tool-specific issues like computer malfunctions or freezing, which can negatively impact employees' well-being (Hudiburg et al., 1993, 1994). In fact, Thomée et al. (2007) found that individuals who send and receive a high volume of messages through ICT are more likely to exhibit signs of stress one year later.

Barber and Jenkins (2014) and Olson-Buchanan and Boswell (2006) have underscored the significance of organizations establishing boundaries on their employees' ICT demands to ensure their recovery and well-being. Correspondingly, exposure to ICT messages beyond official working hours has been shown to have an adverse effect on employees' well-being. Based on this, Kao et al. (2020) have indicated that when organizations subject their employees to ICT messages outside working hours, it could have a negative impact on their well-being. Hence, an increase in ICT demands does not align with the promotion of healthy employee well-being, and there is proof to suggest that it would be advantageous for organizations to minimize unnecessary ICT demands, even if it is not feasible for all ICT demands. In 2011, Volkswagen, a global German organization, restricted access to e-mails on ICT devices beyond official working hours by employees. This restriction implied that employees could not access their e-mails from 30 minutes after the workday ended until 30 minutes before the next working hour commenced (Sabatini, 2011).

4. PERSONALITY

The definition of personality is a subject of debate among researchers in the field (Feist et al., 2008). According to McCrae and Costa (1989), personality is a continuous, emotional, and motivational, experiential interaction style that explains an individual's behavior in different situations and events. Bilsky and Schwartz (1994) also define personality as a unique set of traits that differentiates an individual from others. Personality affects people's attitudes, beliefs, cognitions, and behaviors and has distinct behavioral implications (Devaraj et al., 2008). Researchers have also defined personality in terms of physiological processes (Olver & Mooradian, 2003), genetic factors (Parks-Leduc & Guay, 2009), and environmental interactions (Goldberg, 1992; Olver & Mooradian, 2003). To gain a deeper understanding of why the concept of personality is defined in different ways, it would be useful to touch upon personality approaches.

4.1. Personality Approaches

The biological approach, which endeavors to explain personality, posits which differences in genotypes and central nervous systems shape personality. Influenced by evolutionary processes, personality arises from the interplay between nature (biological) and nurture (environment) (Feist et al., 2008). The cognitive approach views personality as a construct shaped by the interaction of innate or acquired modes of thinking, impacting our perceptions and worldviews (Ellis & Abrams, 2009). In the humanistic approach, personality is explicated through the concepts of mindfulness, existential anxiety, creativity, free will, and happiness (Funder, 2013). The learning approach is grounded in conditioning, association, reinforcement, and punishment, with personality shaped accordingly (Feist et al., 2008). The psychodynamic approach contends that personality is linked to early childhood experiences and is a product of the subconscious mind and motives (Feist et al., 2008). Lastly, the trait approach emphasizes the conceptualization and measurement of disparities between individuals in personality definition (Ellis & Abrams, 2009). Cattell suggests that individuals' personality traits make them predictable (Corr & Matthews, 2009). Although the trait approach is criticized for being reductionist, it is recognized as a validated personality theory approach with numerous research data

(Parks-Leduc & Guay, 2009). Moreover, the Five Factor Model (FFM), considered the best-represented structure of trait theory (McCrae & Costa, 1987), is also used in the present study, and will be explained in greater detail below.

4.2. Five Factor Model (FFM)

The trait approach posits that individual differences can be attributed to a limited number of distinct behavioral traits (Feist et al., 2008). Cattell contended that personality can be employed to predict conduct via traits, while Allport maintained that traits reflect the unique characteristics of individuals. In subsequent years, McCrae and Costa (1997) utilized trait theory and dimensioned personality with the FFM, as noted by Parks-Leduc and Guay (2009), and this approach has been extensively used in personality research (Barrick et al., 2001). Everyone possesses these five personality traits in varying proportions, and each of these traits encompasses numerous characteristics (Ellis & Abrams, 2009; McAdams, 2008). As elucidated below, the model defines personality using five dimensions: extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and neuroticism (McCrae & Costa, 1989). FFM is the most comprehensive and widely accepted personality model in the literature and is widely used in applied research (Arkan, 2016).

Extraversion is characterized as a dynamic approach to managing the world (John & Srivastava, 1999). Individuals who possess an extroverted personality structure are known to be vigorous, expressive, and resolute, as well as sociable, conciliatory, and affectionate (McCrae & Costa, 1987). This personality trait is often associated with positive affect, leading to the interpretation of neutral events positively (Meyer & Shack 1989; Watson & Clark, 1992). Furthermore, the conduct of extroverts is not negatively evaluated by others (Milam et al., 2009). Due to their positive views on life and problems, extroverts tend to experience low emotional burnout (Eastburg et al., 1994; Francis et al., 2004; Piedmont, 1993). Extraverted personality traits are often linked to positive affect (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989).

Neuroticism can be defined as a state of being characterized anxious, a lack of self-confidence, unpredictability, and emotionality (McCrae & Costa, 1987). This trait is considered the primary source of negative affect and is linked to negative experiences and behavioral tendencies (Watson & Hubbard, 1996). Negative affect is associated with neurotic personality traits, as per the researchers, and these

individuals have a greater likelihood of experiencing negative emotions and lower emotional stability. They tend to perceive even neutral events in a negative light (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003), and are more likely to suffer in daily life (McCrae & Costa, 1989). Furthermore, they struggle to cope with even minor difficulties (Milam et al., 2009).

Individuals exhibiting the agreeable personality trait are commonly described as possessing cooperative, reliable, and friendly characteristics (John & Srivastava, 1999). These individuals are characterized by high levels of positive emotions and therefore have high levels of well-being (McCrae & Costa, 1989). Piedmont (1993) conducted a study where it was established that augmenting levels of agreeableness resulted in a reduction of emotional exhaustion.

Individuals exhibiting elevated scores in the conscientiousness personality dimension are characterized as possessing a serene, dependable, altruistic, accomplished, and premeditated demeanor (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Such individuals adhere to their plans with great resolve and evince a cognizance of their actions. It has been observed that those individuals possessing high levels of conscientiousness are at an increased risk of experiencing emotional exhaustion (Witt et al., 2004).

Lastly, people with openness to experience are reported to be creative, independent, unique and have different interests (John & Srivastava, 1999; McCrae & Costa, 1987). Openness to experience is associated with being creative (Feist, 1998), original, open-minded (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and generous (McCrae, 1996). People who score high in openness to experience are influenced by external factors rather than internal factors (Sliter et al., 2014). Owing to these traits, they are less likely to hastily pass judgments on others when facing unfavorable circumstances and are more inclined towards a flexible approach to problem-solving (DeLongis & Holtzman, 2005).

FFM is a widely accepted taxonomy for comprehending personality, despite some critiques (Anglim & Grant, 2016). Atkinson et al. (2006) elucidate the rationales behind the adoption and usage of FFM in academic and practical domains, citing its empirical and longitudinal research basis, coverage of enduring and continuous traits, biological foundations, user-friendliness and evaluability, and validity in diverse cohorts and cultures (McCrae & Costa, 1992). Presently, it is commonly asserted that

these personality traits are sufficient to define individual differences, rendering the model applicable across various fields, including clinical practice (Costa et al., 1991), industry and organizational settings (Barrick & Mount, 1991), and counseling (McCrae & Costa, 1991).

4.3. The Relationship between Big Five Personality Traits and Employee Well-Being

Numerous studies have highlighted the significant role that personality traits play in individuals' experiences and evaluations (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Headey & Wearing, 1989; Steel et al., 2008). Within the literature, multiple studies have demonstrated that personality dimensions exhibit a correlation with PWB and SBB (Anglim & Grant, 2016; Nelson et al., 1995; Sun et al., 2018). Moreover, Danna and Griffin (1999) posited that one of the three predictors of EWB is employees' personality traits in their model. It is noteworthy that the three dimensions of well-being (SBB, PWB, and SWB) are closely interconnected and contribute collectively to overall well-being. Hence, researchers have substantiated the presence and significance of the association between personality traits and well-being (Gallagher et al., 2009).

Studies focusing on the relationship between the big five personality traits and well-being have predominantly examined SBB (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Steel et al., 2008). In the investigations concerning the relationship between the FFM and SBB, varying degrees of relationships have been discovered between sub-dimensions and SBB. DeNeve and Cooper's (1998) meta-analysis study revealed that SBB was particularly linked to neuroticism and extraversion. Correspondingly, a noteworthy positive correlation was identified between SBB and extraversion, and a significant negative correlation was observed between SBB and neuroticism. Furthermore, extraversion is a predictor of more positive affect, while neuroticism is a predictor of more negative affect (Fujita, 1991; Lucas & Fujita, 2001). Steel et al. (2008) demonstrated higher correlations between neuroticism and negative affect, extraversion and positive affect, and openness to experience and positive affect. Additionally, the five-factor dimensions reflecting SBB in their study were neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness. Conscientiousness, to the extent that it provides success, and agreeableness, to the extent that it facilitates positive

experiences in social areas, enhance SBB (Hayes & Joseph, 2003). Although there are positive correlations between the other three sub-dimensions (agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness) and SBB, these relationships are not statistically significant (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; (Diener & Lucas, 1999; Eryilmaz & Öğülmüş, 2010; Furnham & Cheng, 1997; Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Saris, 2001; Tkach & Lyubomirsky, 2006).

On the contrary, Anglim and Grant (2016) stated that the Big Five personality traits are stronger predictors of PWB than SBB. Anglim et al. (2020) conducted a meta-analysis study that illuminated the connections between the Big Five personality dimensions and the various facets of PWB. Notably, the study emphasized the robust correlations between openness to experience and personal growth, conscientiousness and life purpose, and neuroticism and negative affect. The authors also pointed out that the average correlation between personality dimensions and well-being ($r = .28$) exceeded the average correlation typically observed in individual difference studies ($r \sim .20$), signifying the undeniable linkages between personality and well-being. Moreover, job satisfaction is most closely related to neuroticism, followed by conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience (Judge et al., 2002). Conscientiousness and low neuroticism are associated with eudaimonic dimensions such as self-acceptance, mastery, and life purpose, while agreeableness and extraversion are linked to building relationships (Schmutte & Ryff, 1997).

4.4. The Relationship between Big Five Personality Traits and Information and Communication Technology Demands

Considering the influence of individual factors, it is important to investigate the moderating role of personality traits in such a relationship, as employees with different personality traits may be affected differently by ICT demands. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) stated that an individual has a belief about a behavior before engaging in that behavior and that this belief stems from personality traits.

The study by Forret and Dougherty (2001) illustrated that extroverted individuals possess a remarkable ability to establish acquaintances and expand their professional networks, and their gregarious tendencies are prominently manifested in work settings. Furthermore, research conducted by Lau et al. (2006) suggests that extroverts are inclined to evaluate workplace occurrences in a more favorable light. It

is worth noting, however, that both introverted and extroverted workers have the capacity to experience psychological detachment and regulate their conduct (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Grant and Langan-Fox (2007) posited that favorable work-related emotions can be attributed to extroverted personality traits.

In contemporary working environments, marked by rapid transformation and diversity as the new norm, organizations necessitate personnel who exhibit openness to new experiences. This requirement is increasingly crucial (Hough & Furnham, 2002). Empirical studies reveal that individuals who manifest openness to experience, and who are willing to experiment with novel and varied activities, evince a proclivity for continuous learning and training (Barrick et al., 2001). These individuals perceive negative events within the workplace as opportunities for self-improvement and personal growth, rather than insurmountable obstacles (Zellers et al., 2000).

The personality trait of conscientiousness is commonly linked to attributes such as hard work, attention to detail, achievement orientation, result orientation, productivity, and patience (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Additionally, studies, such as that conducted by Gartland et al. (2012), have found that conscientious individuals are more susceptible to negative events and stress. Notably, employees who exhibit high levels of conscientiousness are considered to be highly disciplined and have been found to be capable of managing the relationship between ICT demands and well-being more effectively due to their superior ability to plan and organize their work life (Demerouti et al., 2014). Furthermore, it is crucial to acknowledge that the conscientious personality trait is heavily reliant on self-control (Costa et al., 1991). Individuals who have high levels of conscientiousness possess an intrinsic motivation to attain their work-related goals (Devaraj et al., 2008).

The trait of having an agreeable personality encompasses the qualities of collaboration, social engagement, and altruism. In contrast to individuals who exhibit a low degree of this trait, those with a high degree of agreeableness tend to prioritize the advantages of technology (Devaraj et al., 2008).

It has been posited that individuals who exhibit high levels of neuroticism tend to display negative emotions and behavior towards work-related situations and stimuli. Various studies have demonstrated a negative correlation between neuroticism and

positive work behaviors such as job performance (Barrick & Mount, 2001), job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1983), and perceived career success (Judge et al., 1999; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Neuroticism is regarded as an unfavorable response in both personal and professional contexts, which can be extended to include ICT demands (Devaraj et al., 2008).



5. METHODOLOGY

5.1. Importance and Objectives of Research

Firstly, while studies on ICT mostly focus on specific ICT devices or applications, the present study places emphasis on examining the ICT demands. Moreover, this study endeavors to reveal the relationship between the ICT demands and EWB, consequent to the escalating utilization of ICT.

Secondly, in this study, a comprehensive evaluation of employee well-being has been conducted, which includes all four dimensions of subjective well-being, psychological well-being, social well-being, and workplace well-being. It is worth noting that previous research has largely focused on specific aspects of employee well-being, while the present study adopts a broader and more detailed framework.

Thirdly, with the increasing use of ICT for work purposes, the heightened exposure to ICT demands may either positively or negatively impact employees' well-being. Previous studies in literature have found mixed results pointing to the existence and importance of moderating variables. To provide a more comprehensive outlook, the current research investigates how employees' personality traits can operate as such moderators. It is imperative to explore the possibility of specific personality traits that can moderate the relationship between ICT demands and EWB, which is often beyond the control of employees themselves. To investigate how the personality differences can impinge on the relationship between ICT demands and EWB, this thesis scrutinizes the five personality traits separately.

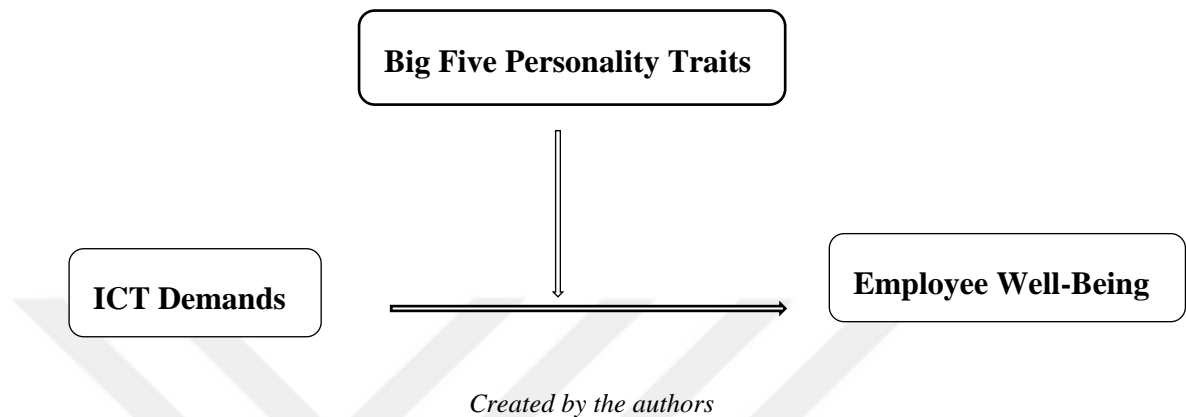
Lastly, analyses on whether there are differences according to demographic variables (gender, age, marital status, educational level, sector, working type, work experience (in total and in current)) were also included.

5.2. Research Model and Hypotheses

The independent variable is information and communication technologies demands and the dependent variable is employee well-being. In the research model, five factor

personality traits have a moderating role in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. The research model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Research Model



In line with objectives, the hypotheses formulated for the research are stated as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between information and communication technologies demands and employee well-being.

Hypothesis 2a: Extraversion personality trait negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the extraversion trait in individuals is higher.

Hypothesis 2b: The personality trait of openness to experience negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the openness-to-experience trait is higher.

Hypothesis 2c: Conscientiousness personality trait negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the conscientiousness trait in individuals is higher.

Hypothesis 2d: Agreeableness personality trait negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the agreeableness trait is higher.

Hypothesis 2e: Neuroticism positively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being more strongly when the neuroticism trait is higher.

5.3. Sample

The questionnaire used in the current research was prepared with google.doc and sent to public and private sector employees of all ages, professions, and experiences to ensure the integrity of the research.

5.4. Measures

5.4.1. Demographic Information Form

In order to obtain demographic information of the participants, the participants were asked about gender, age, marital status, education level, occupation, sector, type of work, and duration of work (in total and at current workplace). The form can be found Appendix 1.

5.4.2. Information and Communication Technology Demands Scale

In the study, the Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) Demands scale developed by Day et al. (2012) was translated into Turkish by the researcher under the supervision of the thesis advisor and applied to the participants. This scale includes 8 dimensions (Response expectations, Availability, Ineffective communication, Lack of control over ICT, Hassles using ICT, Employee monitoring, ICT Learning Expectations and Workload) and 27 items and consists of a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Cronbach's alpha reliability was reported to be .813 for this sample. Turkish version of the scale can be found in Appendix 2.

5.4.3. Employee Well-Being Scale

The Employee Well-being Scale developed by Pradhan and Hati (2019) was translated into Turkish by the researcher under the supervision of the thesis advisor and applied to the participants. This scale includes 4 dimensions (Subjective Well-being, Psychological Well-being, Social Well-being and Workplace Well-being) and 33 items and consists of a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Cronbach's alpha reliability was reported to be .928 for this sample. Turkish version of the scale can be found in Appendix 3.

5.4.4. Big Five Inventory

Big Five Inventory (BFI) Questionnaire was used to analyze personality traits in the study (John & Srivastava, 1999). The questionnaire consists of five dimensions (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism) and 44 items. It is valid all over the world without changing from culture to culture (Benet & John, 1998). It was translated into Turkish by the researcher under the supervision of the thesis advisor and applied to the participants. In the inventory, the participants were asked to rate the items between "Strongly Disagree" (1) and "Strongly Agree" (5). Cronbach's alpha reliability was reported to be .895 for this sample. Turkish version of the inventory can be found in Appendix 4.

5.5. Data Collection Procedure

The 6-page questionnaire was presented online and in printed form. "docs.google.com/forms" was used to create the online survey form. While distributing the questionnaire, the participants were informed that the questionnaire was completely anonymous, no personal information other than demographic information was requested, the results of the questionnaire would only be used for academic purposes, and brief information about the related research was given. There was no missing data in the distributed questionnaires and data were obtained from 215 participants.

5.6. Statistical Analysis

SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics) program was used to analyze the data obtained in the research. Cronbach's alpha reliability, correlation analysis, regression analysis, independent T-test and one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted.



6. FINDINGS

6.1. Demographic Characteristics of Sample

The questionnaire was completed by 215 participants, 129 women and 86 men. Participants ranged in age from 19 to 56, with a 32-year-old average. The vast majority of whom were single (n=138). The majority of participants (n=101) were undergraduates, followed by graduates (n=94) and high school graduates (n=12). About 33% of participants work hybrid, 9% work remotely, and 58% work from the office. About 75 % of participants have less than 10 years of total work experience and about 21% have between 10 and 20 years while about 85 % of participants had less than 10 years of current work experience. Table 1 shows demographic information about the participants.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	129	60
	Male	86	40
Age	18-29	96	44,7
	30-39	84	39,1
	40-49	30	14
	≥50	5	2,3
Marital status	Single	138	64,2
	Married	77	35,8
Education	High school	12	5,6
	Associate degree	8	3,7
	Undergraduate	101	47
	Graduate	94	43,7
Sector	Public	77	64,2
	Private	138	35,8
Working type	From the office	125	58,1
	Remote working	20	9,3
	Hybrid working	70	32,6
Work experience (in total)	0-1 year	38	17,7
	2-10 years	122	56,7
	11-20 years	45	20,9
	≥21 years	10	4,7
Work experience (current workplace)	0-1 year	73	34
	2-10 years	109	50,7
	11-20 years	31	14,4
	≥21 years	2	0,9

6.2. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Descriptive statistics for variables are included in table 2. When the table is evaluated, it is seen that the mean of ICT demands is 3,32 and it can be said that the participants' responses regarding ICT demands are between somewhat disagree and undecided. The mean of the participants' EWB is 5,15 and it is seen that the participants are closer to the somewhat agree. When EWB is analyzed in terms of dimensions, the highest mean is PWB with 5,42, followed by SBB (mean=5,16), WWB (mean=5,01), and SWB (mean=5,00). Finally, when the personality traits of the participants are examined, it is seen that the participants have the highest scores in the dimensions of conscientiousness (mean=3,95) and then agreeableness (mean=3,88) followed by openness to experience (mean=3,69), extraversion (mean=3,55), neuroticism (mean=3,51).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
ICT demands	215	3,32	,788
Employee well-being	215	5,15	,856
Subjective well-being	215	5,16	1,167
Psychological well-being	215	5,42	,806
Social well-being	215	5,00	1,281
Workplace well-being	215	5,01	1,122
Conscientiousness	215	3,95	,647
Agreeableness	215	3,88	,563
Openness to Experience	215	3,69	,656
Extraversion	215	3,55	,821
Neuroticism	215	3,51	,781

6.3. Correlations between Study Variables

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there is a relationship between ICT demands and EWB. According to the correlation analysis, there is a negative and moderate relationship between ICT demands and EWB ($r = -.329^{**}$). In other words, as ICT demands increase, EWB decreases. In the light of these findings, hypothesis 1 is supported. Moreover, there are negative relationships between ICT demands and SBB, PWB, SWB and WWB ($r = -.227^{**}$, $r = -.218^{**}$, $r = -.272^{**}$, $r = -.296^{**}$, respectively). In addition, while the relationships between ICT demands and agreeableness and openness to experience are statistically significant ($r = -.231^{**}$ and $r = -.188^{**}$, respectively), the relationships with the other dimensions are not significant.

Table 3 shows that while EWB is moderately related to the subjective well-being sub-dimension, it is highly related to the other three sub-dimensions and the relationships between these four sub-dimensions are also significant. Similarly, FFM has significant relationships with all sub-dimensions and the relationships between these sub-dimensions are also significant. Lastly, there are moderately significant relationships between EWB and all personality traits.

Table 3. Correlations between Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ICT demands	1											
Employee well-being	-,329**	1										
Subjective well-being	-,227**	,696**	1									
Psychological well-being	-,218**	,734**	,590**	1								
Social well-being	-,272**	,835**	,402**	,402**	1							
Workplace well-being	-,296**	,829**	,504**	,472**	,559**	1						
Big five personality	-,208**	,588**	,528**	,619**	,377**	,426**	1					
Extraversion	-,113	,439**	,423**	,456**	,279**	,315**	,710**	1				
Openness to experience	-,104	,319**	,204**	,385**	,159*	,290**	,681**	,368**	1			
Conscientiousness	-,106	,333**	,320**	,374**	,203**	,227**	,714**	,313**	,329**	1		
Agreeableness	-,231**	,366**	,253**	,227**	,367**	,261**	,612**	,197**	,265**	,485**	1	
Neuroticism	-,188**	,577**	,618**	,669**	,325**	,379**	,747**	,504**	,338**	,408**	,315**	1

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

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

6.4. The Moderating Role of Big Five Personality Traits

Regression analysis was conducted to examine the moderating effect of personality traits on the relationship between ICT demands and EWB and to test hypotheses. Before proceeding to the regression analysis, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable was examined to test the assumptions ($\beta = -.329$; $p = .000$). Then, in order to eliminate multicollinearity, the independent variable and the variables considered to be moderators were standardized and Z-scores were created, and interaction terms were also created. Afterwards, first the independent variable and the variable considered to be a moderator were entered into the regression and then the interaction term was included in the analysis with the enter method.

Hypothesis 2a regarding the role of the moderating effect suggests that extraversion personality trait negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the extraversion trait in individuals is higher.

When the results of the analysis are examined, the effect of ICT demands and extraversion on EWB is significant, but since the interaction term included in the analysis is not significant ($p = .252$), it is concluded that extraversion does not have a moderating effect, that is, it does not have an increasing, decreasing or changing role in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Therefore, hypothesis 2a is rejected (Table 4).

Table 4. The Moderating Role of Extraversion Personality Trait

Model summary		ANOVA					Coefficients		
Dependent variable	Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	P	B	t	P
Employee well-being	Step 1	,521	,272	,265	39,562	,000			
	ICT demands						-,242	-4,795	,000
	Extraversion						,348	6,902	,000
	Step 2	,526	,276	,266	26,854	,000			
	ICT demands						-,247	-4,884	,000
	Extraversion						,349	6,923	,000
	Interaction						-,054	-1,149	,252

Hypothesis 2b regarding the role of the moderating effect suggests that openness to experience negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the openness-to-experience trait is higher.

When the results of the analysis are examined, the effect of ICT demands and openness to experience on EWB is significant, but since the interaction term included in the analysis is not significant ($p=.185$), it is concluded that openness to experience does not have a moderating role in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Therefore, hypothesis 2b is rejected (Table 5).

Table 5. The Moderating Role of Openness to Experience Personality Trait

Dependent variable	Model summary		ANOVA				Coefficients		
	Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	P	B	t	P
Employee well-being	Step 1	,436	,190	,183	24,929	,000			
	ICT demands						-,256	-4,813	,000
	Openness to experience						,247	4,641	,000
	Step 2	,444	,197	,186	17,270	,000			
	ICT demands						-,255	-4,810	,000
	Openness to experience						,257	4,796	,000
	Interaction						-,061	-1,331	,185

Hypothesis 2c regarding the role of the moderating effect suggests that conscientiousness personality trait negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the conscientiousness trait in individuals is higher.

When the results of the analysis are examined, the effect of ICT demands and conscientiousness on EWB is significant, but since the interaction term included in the analysis is not significant ($p=.162$), it is concluded that conscientiousness does not have a moderating role, that is, it does not have an increasing, decreasing or changing role in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Therefore, hypothesis 2c is rejected (Table 6).

Table 6. The Moderating Role of Conscientiousness Personality Trait

Model summary		ANOVA					Coefficients		
Dependent variable	Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	P	B	T	P
Employee well-being	Step 1	,445	,198	,190	26,169	,000			
	ICT demands						-,254	-4,799	,000
	Conscientiousness						,258	4,874	,000
	Step 2	,453	,205	,194	18,183	,000			
	ICT demands						-,265	-4,962	,000
	Conscientiousness						,268	5,032	,000
	Interaction						-,059	-1,404	,162

Hypothesis 2d regarding the role of the moderating effect suggests that agreeableness personality trait negatively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being less strongly when the agreeableness trait is higher.

When the results of the analysis are examined, the effect of ICT demands and agreeableness on EWB is significant, but since the interaction term included in the analysis is not significant ($p=.459$), it is concluded that agreeableness does not have a moderating role in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Therefore, hypothesis 2d is rejected (Table 7).

Table 7. The Moderating Role of Agreeableness Personality Trait

Model summary		ANOVA					Coefficients		
Dependent variable	Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	P	B	T	P
Employee well-being	Step 1	,444	,197	,190	26,030	,000			
	ICT demands						-,221	- 4,078	,000
	Agreeableness						,262	4,848	,000
	Step 2	,446	,199	,188	17,499	,000			
	ICT demands						-,228	- 4,141	,000
	Agreeableness						,270		,000
	Interaction						-,035	4,895 -,742	,459

Hypothesis 2e regarding the role of the moderating effect suggests that neuroticism positively moderates the relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being such that ICT demands influence employee well-being more strongly when the neuroticism trait is higher.

When the results of the analysis are examined, the effect of ICT demands and neuroticism on EWB is significant, but since the interaction term included in the analysis is not significant ($p=.752$), it is concluded that neuroticism does not have a moderating role in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Therefore, hypothesis 2e is rejected (Table 8).

Table 8. The Moderating Role of Neuroticism Personality Trait

Dependent variable	Model summary		ANOVA				Coefficients		
	Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	P	B	T	P
Employee well-being	Step 1	,619	,383	,377	65,725	,000			
	ICT demands						-,196	-4,159	,000
	Neuroticism						,457	9,711	,000
	Step 2	,619	,383	,374	43,664	,000			
	ICT demands						-,193	-4,012	,000
	Neuroticism Interaction						,457	9,696	,000
							,014	,316	,752

6.5. Differences Observed in Information and Communication Technologies Demands and Employee Well-Being Variables According to Demographic Characteristics

Significant differences were observed between the variables and gender and experience in the current workplace, while no significant differences were observed between the variables and age, marital status, sector, educational level, type of work and all experience.

Independent T-test was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to gender. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that there is a significant difference between the EWB scores of men and women ($p = .042$). Men's employee well-being is significantly higher than women's employee well-being (Table 9).

Table 9. Employee Well-Being by Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	Female	129	5,05	,8599	,042
	Male	86	5,30	,8336	

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to age groups. As a result of the analysis, age groups did not create a significant difference in EWB ($p = ,164$) (Table 10).

Table 10. Employee Well-Being by Age Groups

	Age Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	18-29	96	5,07	,8290	,164
	30-39	84	5,12	,8590	
	40-49	30	5,47	,8724	
	50 ve üstü	5	5,28	1,0487	

Independent T-test was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to marital status. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the EWB scores of single and married employees (Table 11).

Table 11. Employee Well-Being by Marital Status

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	Single	138	5,14	,8702	,706
	Married	77	5,18	,8343	

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to education levels. As a result of the analysis, education level did not make a significant difference in EWB ($p=,414$) (Table 12).

Table 12. Employee Well-Being by Education Levels

	Education Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	High school	12	5,24	,8028	,414
	Associate degree	8	5,45	,9412	
	Undergraduate	101	5,06	,8635	
	Graduate	94	5,22	,8474	

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to working types. As a result of the analysis, working types did not make a significant difference in EWB ($p=,768$) (Table 13).

Table 13. Employee Well-Being by Working Types

	Working Type	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	From the office	125	5,18	,8616	,768
	Remote working	20	5,04	,7005	
	Hybrid working	70	5,13	,8927	

Independent T-test was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to sector. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the EWB scores of public and private sectors ($p= .364$) (Table 14).

Table 14. Employee Well-Being by Sector

	Sector	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	Public	77	5,08	,9413	,364
	Private	138	5,19	,8051	

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to total work experiences. As a result of the analysis, total work experience did not make a significant difference in EWB ($p=,067$) (Table 15).

Table 15. Employee Well-Being by Work Experiences (in total)

	Work Experiences (in total)	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	0-1 year	38	4,99	,9535	,067
	2-10 years	122	5,09	,8101	
	11-20 years	45	5,38	,8694	
	≥ 21 years	10	5,54	,7610	

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine how EWB differ according to work experiences at current workplace. As a result of the analysis, EWB scores differ according to experience in the current workplace ($p=,017$). LSD post hoc analysis showed that the EWB scores of employees with 21 years or more experience at the same workplace differed from all other experience groups. The well-being of employees with 21 or more years of experience at the same workplace is higher than those with 0-1 year of experience ($I-J=1,704$ and $p=,005$), 2-10 years of experience ($I-J=1,652$ and $p=,006$) and 11-20 years of experience ($I-J=1,400$ and $p=,024$) (Table 16).

Table 16. Employee Well-Being by Work Experiences (at Current Workplace)

	Work Experiences (at Current Workplace)	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Employee well-being	0-1 year	73	5,07	,9286	,017
	2-10 years	109	5,12	,7854	
	11-20 years	31	5,37	,8300	
	≥21 years	2	6,77	,0642	

7. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

7.1. The Relationship between Information and Communication Technologies Demands and Employee Well-Being

As a result of the analysis, the research hypothesis that "There is a relationship between ICT demands and employee well-being" was supported ($r = -.329^{**}$; $p = .000$). In addition, the relationship between ICT demands and the sub-dimensions of EWB was also examined and it was found that ICT demands and all sub-dimensions had negative and statistically significant relationships, albeit at a weak level. These results show that ICT demands, to which employees are exposed day by day, are related to employees' subjective well-being, psychological well-being, social well-being and workplace well-being, and as ICT demands increase, employees' subjective well-being, psychological well-being, social well-being and workplace well-being decrease.

This finding is consistent with some findings in the literature. Similar to the findings of Day et al. (2010) that ICT demands negatively affect employees' well-being, Barber and Jenkins (2014) and Santuzzi and Barber (2018) also mentioned that excessive ICT demands reduce employees' well-being. Researchers have reported that demands for availability and response expectancy (Potter et al., 2022), demands for overwork (Ilies et al., 2010; Porter & Kakabadse, 2006), demands for monitoring (Miller & Weckert, 2000; Mishra & Crampton, 1998; Stanton & Weiss, 2000), demands for control (Coover & Thompson, 2003; Hair et al., 2007; Mikkelsen et al., 2002; O'Driscoll et al., 2010), communication issues (Day et al., 2010; Marcus, 1994; Ramirez et al., 2002) and hassles (Hudiburg et al., 1993, 1994; Thomée et al., 2007) are negatively related to employee well-being. Moreover, Maiti and Awasthi (2019) mentioned that ICT positively affects well-being in developed countries, it affects developing countries such as Turkey, which is the sample group of this study, less positively.

7.2. Big Five Personality Traits as the Moderator

Since it was hypothesized that the personality traits of the employees would affect the employees' well-being towards the ICT demands they are exposed to, the moderating effects of extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness and neuroticism personality traits were examined one by one. Although these personality traits are thought to have moderating effect on the relationship between ICT demands and EWB, none of the hypotheses were supported.

Studies in the literature show that extraverted individuals have more positive feelings about work-related issues due to their social and active nature (Watson & Clark, 1997), they evaluate the events that take place in the workplace more positively, and they have a higher potential to regulate their behaviors quickly and positively (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Grant & Langan-Fox, 2007). Devaraj et al. (2008) also mentioned that extraverts attach importance to their social image within the organization and are willing to use technologies. Therefore, it was thought that extraverts are open to ICT demands, they are willing to use these demands in order to increase their power at work, and it was thought that more extraverted employees' employee well-being would be less negatively affected by ICT demands, but this hypothesis was not supported.

Openness to experience personality trait, which includes components such as flexibility of thought, openness and willingness to new ideas and experiences, and curiosity (McCrae & Costa, 1991), is also open and curious about innovations in their work (Devaraj et al., 2008). In the light of this information, it was thought that open to experience employees would also be open and curious towards ICT demands and that these employees would be less affected by employee well-being, which is negatively related to ICT demands, but this hypothesis was not supported.

A similar hypothesis was considered for the personality trait of conscientiousness and although it was based on the idea that conscientious people with self-control and intrinsic motivation for achievement and results orientation (Costa et al., 1991) are likely to view ICT demands as a path to success as they tend to prioritize technological demands (Devaraj et al., 2008), the hypothesis that these employees

would be less affected by the low EWB associated with high ICT demands was also rejected.

Agreeableness personality trait includes being in agreement with others and avoiding conflict (McCrae & Costa, 1991). These individuals are prone to cooperation (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997) and similarly, they are seen to adapt to the use of technology in the workplace and its consequences (Devaraj et al., 2008). The hypothesis that these employees, who have a high tendency to accept and implement ICT demands sincerely as a result of their personality traits, will be less negatively affected by ICT demands and their EWB will be less affected was not supported.

Finally, neurotic personality trait is characterized by insecurity, anxiety, instability and they may perceive even neutral work-related situations negatively (Barrick & Mount, 2001; Smith et al., 1983; Judge et al., 1999; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Neurotic employees exposed to ICT demands are likely to perceive these demands as threats and exhibit negative emotions and behaviors. Therefore, although it was thought that neurotic personality trait would strengthen the negative relationship between ICT demands and EWB, the hypothesis was rejected.

When all the results regarding the moderating role of Big Five Personality Traits are evaluated, it is seen that personality does not change the direction or strength of the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Based on the lack of research examining the moderating role of the Big Five personality traits in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB in the literature, although this study concludes that the Big Five personality traits do not have a moderating role, it is possible to make some inferences.

The reasons for not finding the moderating effect of the five personality traits may be related to the nature of these personality traits. That is to say, open to experience people will be eager for ICT demands and will not feel them as a threat. The fact that these individuals experience both positive and negative effects of ICT demands at the same time may eliminate the moderating effect of openness to experience personality trait. Similarly, the social nature of extraverted employees that emphasizes interaction and communication and the result- and achievement-oriented nature of conscientious employees may have rendered the effect of ICT demands on their well-being insignificant. On the other hand, the natural tendency of agreeable employees

to comply with ICT demands may have rendered the possible moderating effect of this personality trait meaningless. Lastly, since neurotic employees already had low EWB scores, ICT demands may not have further reduced this low EWB.

Moreover, analyzing "aspects of traits" rather than personality traits as a whole may change these results. Periard and Burns (2014) emphasize that using all aspects of traits may weaken the relationship between the broad trait and the broad criterion. For instance, aspects of extraversion that are unrelated to employee well-being may reduce the strength of the link between extraversion and employee well-being. Therefore, using only some aspects of these personality traits may produce different and perhaps significant results.

7.3. Demographic Variables

The relationships between the demographic characteristics of the sample and the research variables were analyzed with independent T-test and one-way ANOVA.

In line with previous studies in the literature, it was found that the EWB scores of men were significantly higher than the EWB scores of women and EWB scores of employees who have 21 years or more experience in the current workplace are significantly higher than all other experience groups (Day et al., 2010; Ragu-Nathan et al., 2008). Working in the same workplace for a long time may reinforce the comfort zone of these employees and may result in less adverse effects from ICT demands.

On the other hand, there were no significant differences in age groups, marital status, education levels, sectors, work types and total work experience.

8. CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS, FUTURE DIRECTION

8.1. Contributions

This research contributes to literature in several ways. First, while previous literature studies have focused on ICT uses and the use of specific ICT tools (e.g. mobile telephony, e-mail), technostress, telepressure, etc., the current research focuses on ICT demands.

Secondly, unlike previous studies, in this study, well-being was not associated with issues such as organizational stress, productivity, work-life balance, job satisfaction, job commitment, etc. Instead, it directly addressed employee well-being and its dimensions of psychological well-being, subjective well-being, social well-being and workplace well-being, and thus a comprehensive conceptualization and analysis of well-being was made.

Third, this study not only analyzed how ICT demands relate to employee well-being, but also, unlike previous literature, conceptualized and empirically examined the personality traits that are thought to have a moderating effect using the five-factor personality model. This is particularly important because different personality traits may have different effects on well-being. In these aspects, this research is one of the first studies to empirically investigate the moderating effect of the Big Five Model on the negative relationship between ICT demands and EWB and its dimensions.

Consequently, the current research draws attention to the moderating role of personality by incorporating employees' personality traits as a possible reason for this inconsistency in previous studies that produced inconsistent results in the relationship between ICT demands and EWB. Hence, the current research aimed to address the previous contradictory findings. For all these reasons, this research is vital for academia in the sense that it contributes to the existing literature on the dark side of ICTs, and also for organizations in the sense that out-of-office work, accelerated by the pandemic, has increased ICT use and demands and is expected to

increase further in the future. The results of this research show that organizations should also be careful about the relationship between ICT demands and EWB.

8.2. Limitations & Future Direction

As in many other studies, this study has several limitations, and it would be useful for researchers to pay attention to these limitations for future studies.

The main limitation of the current study is related to the sample, the survey was conducted with 215 number of employees in Turkey and since this is a relatively small sample, its representativeness is also limited. Increasing the sample size and increasing the representativeness of the population in future studies may provide more accurate estimates, and it is also recommended that future studies be conducted with employees in other countries in order to generalize the results.

Another limitation is related to the methodology, and the questionnaires used in the research are in the form of personal reports, and the answers of the participants may vary according to their current feelings, which will affect the results of the research. Also, the outcome on ICT demands and their relationship with well-being are time-sensitive, and it would be more appropriate to conduct a longitudinal study. In addition, the honesty of the respondents stands out as a result of using the self-report questionnaire. Especially in questions related to employee well-being and personality, participants may tend to see themselves differently, interpret and reflect themselves differently than they are. In order to prevent this, it may be more appropriate to obtain data by other methods rather than survey method.

Moreover, future studies should investigate additional moderators of the proposed relationships. In addition to personality traits, organizational factors such as organizational culture, organizational social support, workplace norms may also play moderating role and mediating variables may also play a role in this relationship.

Lastly, further research is needed to replicate the findings as this study is the first to include the Big Five traits as well as linking ICT demands and EWB.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Demographic Information Form

Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın () Erkek ()

Yaşınız:

Medeni Durumunuz: Evli () Bekâr ()

Eğitiminiz: İlköğretim () Ortaöğretim () Lise ()
Ön Lisans () Lisans () Lisansüst ()

Mesleğiniz:

Çalıştığınız Sektör:

Çalışma Tipi: Ofisten Çalışma () Uzaktan Çalışma ()
Hibrit Çalışma ()

Kaç yıldır bu işi yapıyorsunuz:

Şu an çalışmakta olduğunuz firmada kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız:

Appendix 2. Information and Communication Technology Demands Scale

BİLGİ VE İLETİŞİM TEKNOLOJİLERİ TALEPLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ							
	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
İşteyken e-posta mesajlarına hemen yanıt vermem bekleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşteyken telefon çağrılarına/mesajlara hemen yanıt vermem bekleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Her zaman erişilebilir olmam bekleniyor (örneğin çağrı cihazı, cep telefonu, anlık mesajlaşma yoluyla).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teknoloji, birlikte çalıştığım insanların her an benimle iletişim kurmasını sağlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ofis dışındayken e-posta ve/veya sesli postayı/aramaları/mesajları kontrol etmem bekleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Normal çalışma saatlerinin dışında işle ilgili sorunlar hakkında benimle iletişime geçiliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İnsanlar e-postalarımı/telefon mesajlarımı doğru yorumluyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meslektaşlarımdan ve/veya müşterilerimden kaba e-postalar/mesajlar alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gelen e-postaların/mesajların anlamını doğru yorumluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş yerinde teknolojiyi nasıl kullandığımı üzerinde kontrole sahibim (örneğin; telefon aramalarına ve e-postalara istediğim zaman dönüş yaparım).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşimde kullandığım teknoloji türlerini seçerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teknoloji, işimi istediğim zaman ve yerde yapma esnekliği sağlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş için kullandığım bilgisayarım donuyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İnternet bağlantıyla ilgili sorunlar yaşıyorum (ör. hız, erişim, indirmeler).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bilgisayar virüsleri işimi tamamlamamı engelliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bilgisayarım çöktüğü için dosyaları kaybediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Yazılım hataları yaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurumum işimi izlemek için teknolojiyi kullanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurumum internet kullanımımı izliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurumum e-postalarımı izliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurumum telefon aramalarımı izler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşimle ilgili teknolojik gelişmeler konusunda güncel kalmam bekleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşime doğrudan uygun olmayan bilgisayar programlarını öğrenmem bekleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kullandığım teknoloji hızla değişiyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teknoloji benim için daha fazla iş yaratıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teknolojinin bir sonucu olarak, ofiste ve ofis dışında daha uzun saatler çalışıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İnterneti kullanmak iş yükümü artırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 3. Employee Well-Being Scale

ÇALIŞAN İYİ OLUŞ ÖLÇEĞİ	Kesinlikle		Biraz		Kesinlikle		
	katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	katılıyorum
Öznel İyi Oluş							
Çoğunlukla mutlu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İyimser bir insanım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kendim hakkında iyi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hayatım çoğunlukla hüzünlü.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Psikolojik İyi Oluş							
Hayatımdaki günlük değişikliklere kolayca uyum sağlıyorum ve sorumluluklarımı iyi yönetiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Başkaları için önemli olan şeylere değil, benim için önemli olan şeylere önem veririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mantıklı bir insan olduğumu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Esnek yapılı bir insanım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Benden beklenenleri anlıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Karar verme yeteneğine sahip olduğumu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Günlük hayatın stresinden ve taleplerinden dolayı depresyonda hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hayatta bir amacım ve yönüm olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hayatın sürekli bir öğrenme süreci olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kendine güvenen bir insanım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sosyal İyi Oluş							
İş ekibimin ve organizasyonun önemli bir parçasıyım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş ekibimde insanlar güvenilirlerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurumumdaki ekip arkadaşlarıma yakıным.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş ekibim harika bir sosyal destek kaynağıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Görüşlerim ekip arkadaşlarım tarafından iyi karşılanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş ekibimdeki insanlar zor zamanlarda birbirlerine yardım ederler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş ekibimin önemli karar verme faaliyetlerinde aktif rol alırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ekip arkadaşlarımla vakit geçirmeyi seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sorunlarımı iş arkadaşlarımla özgürce paylaşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Günlük aktivitelerim iş ekibimin faydalarına katkı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş Yeri İyi Oluşu							
İşimden oldukça memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Anlamlı işlerden hoşlanırım/eğlenirim.	1	2	3	4		6	7
İşime çok değer veriyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş başarıım genellikle motivasyon kaynağıdır.	1	2	3	4	5		7
İşyerim çok elverişli.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşim, kariyer gelişimi için geniş bir alan sağlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İş ve ev hayatı arasında bir denge kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşverenim çalışanlarımı çok önemsiyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
İşim becerilerimi geliştirmek için mücadeleler sunuyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 4. Big Five Inventory

BEŞ FAKTÖR KİŞİLİK ENVANTERİ	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
Dışadönüklük					
Kendimi konuşkan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi enerji dolu biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi sessiz yapılı biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi bazen utangaç, çekingen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi girişken ve sosyal biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi ketum, ağzı sıkı biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi coşku, heyecan yaratabilen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi iddialı, atılgan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Uyumluluk					
Kendimi başkalarında hata arayan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi yardımsever olan ve çıkarıcı olmayan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi başkalarıyla tartışan, didişen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi affedici yapıda biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi genelde başkalarına güvenen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi mesafeli ve soğuk biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi neredeyse herkese karşı kibar ve düşünceli davranan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi bazen başkalarına kaba davranabilen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi başkalarıyla iş birliği yapan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Sorumluluk					
Kendimi işini düzgün yapan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi biraz umursamaz biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi dağınık olma eğilimli biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi tembel olma eğilimli biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi bir görevi tamamlayıncaya kadar sabırlı davranabilen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi işleri verimli bir şekilde yapan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi planlar yapan ve planları takip eden biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi dikkati kolayca dağılan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi güvenilir biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Deneyime Açıklık					
Kendimi orijinal, yeni fikirler ortaya koyan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi çok farklı, değişik konuları merak eden biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi zekice, derin düşünen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi hayal gücünü aktif şekilde kullanan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

Kendimi yaratıcı, keşfedici biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi sanata ve estetik değerlere önem veren biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi rutin işleri yapmayı tercih eden biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi sanatla çok az ilgilenen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi sanat, müzik ve edebiyatta çok bilgili olan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi fikirler geliştiren, düşünmekten hoşlanan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Duygusal Denge					
Kendimi depresif, bunalımlı, melankolik biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi endişeli biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi stresle kolayca baş edebilen, rahat biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi gergin biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi duygusal olarak dengeli, kolayca keyfi kaçmayan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi stresli ortamlarda sakin kalabilen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi kolayca sinirlenen biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Kendimi bir anı bir anını tutmayan biri olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5