

**THE REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
BAHÇEŞEHİR UNIVERSITY**

**THE IMPACT OF PERSONALITY STRUCTURES AND
PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL ON WORK ENGAGEMENT
IN E-COMMERCE SECTOR IN ISTANBUL**

Master's Thesis

Ala' Abu Attallah

ISTANBUL, 2020

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MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

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ABSTRACT

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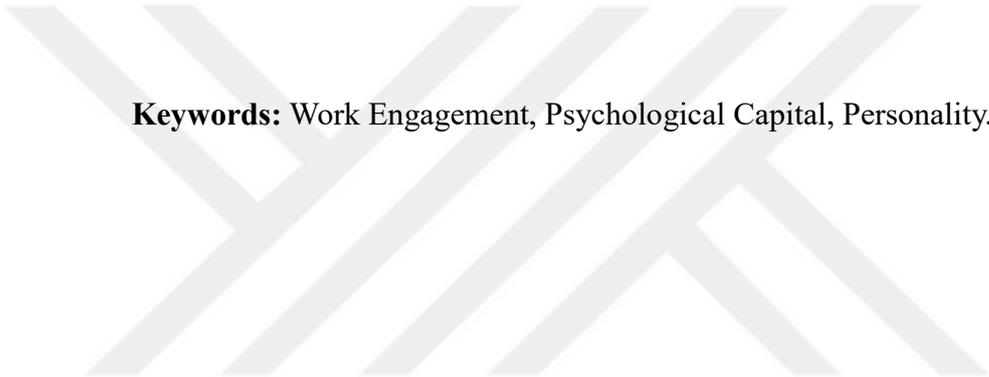
In this study, it was aimed to investigate the effect of personality structures and psychological capital on the work engagement attitudes of white collar employees. It is also aimed to obtain information about the direction and severity of the relationship between individuals' personality structures and psychological capital levels.

For the purposes of the research, descriptive scanning model and relational scanning model were used in this study. The universe of the research consists of white collar employees over 18 years old who work in e-commerce companies in Istanbul. In the research, easy sampling method was used as sampling method. In the research, a questionnaire, one of the quantitative research methods, was used as a data collection tool. The questionnaire prepared by the researcher was filled out by accessing the participants through online platforms. As a result of the research, IBM SPSS 20 program was used to analyze the data of white collar employees. Distribution of white-collar employees according to their demographic and working life characteristics are specified in frequency and percentage. The control of whether the scores obtained from the Big Five Inventory-10, psychological capital scale and utrecht work engagement scale and their sub-dimensions match the normal distribution were determined by considering the kurtosis and skewness values. Since the scale and sub-dimensions of the white-collar workers were found to have a normal distribution, differences between groups were investigated with t-test for independent samples and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The Tukey test was used to determine the groups in which the sub-dimension

and scale scores of groups with three and more than three differed, since the group variances from the post hoc tests were homogeneously distributed. Findings obtained as a result of the research were taken into consideration at the level of 95% confidence. Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the factor structures of the scale, and multiple regression analysis was used in the test of hypotheses

As a result, it has been determined that the personality structures of white-collar employees have a statistically significant effect on their work engagement attitudes, and also the psychological capital levels of white-collar employees have a statistically significant effect on their work engagement attitudes.

Keywords: Work Engagement, Psychological Capital, Personality.



ÖZET

KİŞİLİK YAPILARININ VE PSİKOLOJİK SERMAYENİN İŞ BAĞLANTISINA ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışmada kişilik yapılarının ve psikolojik sermayenin work engagement üzerindeki etkisinin varlığı araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Ayrıca bireylerin kişilik yapıları ile psikolojik sermaye düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkinin yönü ve şiddeti hakkında bilgi edinilmesi de amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın amaçları kapsamında bu çalışmada betimsel tarama modeli ve ilişkisel tarama modeline başvurulmuştur. Araştırmanın evrenini İstanbul ilinde e-ticaret firmalarında çalışan, 18 yaşından büyük beyaz yakalı çalışanlar oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada örnekleme yöntemi olarak kolayda örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak nicel araştırma yöntemlerinden anket kullanılmıştır. Araştırmacı tarafından düzenlenen anket formu katılımcılarla online platformlar üzerinden ulaşılarak doldurulmuştur. Araştırmanın sonucu beyaz yakalı çalışanlara ait verilerin analizinde IBM SPSS 20 programı kullanılmıştır. Beyaz yakalı çalışanların demografik ve çalışma hayatı ile ilgili özelliklerine göre dağılımları frekans ve yüzde olarak belirtilmiştir. Araştırmada kullanılmış olan Big Five Inventory-10, Psychological Capital Scale ve Utrecht Work Engagement Scale ve bunların alt boyutlarından alınan puanların normal dağılıma uyup uymadıklarının kontrolü basıklık ve çarpıklık değerleri göz önünde bulundurularak saptanmıştır. Beyaz yakalı çalışanların ölçek ve alt boyutları puanlarının normal dağılım gösterdiği tespit edildiğinden gruplar arası farklılıklar parametrik testler olan bağımsız örneklemler için t-testi ve tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) dir. Üç ve üçten fazla olan grupların alt boyut ve ölçek puanlarının farklılaşma gösterdiği grupların tespiti için post hoc testlerinden grup

varyansları homojen dađıldığından Tukey testi kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda elde edilen bulgular %95 güven düzeyinde dikkate alınmıştır.Ölçeklerin faktör yapılarının tespit edilmesinde açımlayıcı faktör analizi kullanılmış olup, hipotezlerin testinde çoklu regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır.

Sonuç olarak sonucunda beyaz yakalı çalışanların kişilik yapılarının işe gönülden adanma tutumları üzerinde istatistiksel bakımdan anlamlı bir etkisinin olduğu, ayrıca yine benzer şekilde beyaz yakalı çalışanların psikolojik sermaye düzeylerinin işe gönülden adanma üzerinde istatistiksel bakımdan anlamlı bir etkisinin olduğu tespit edilmiştir.



TABLE OF CONTENT

ABSTRACT	I
TABLE OF CONTENT	II
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1. THEORETICAL FRAMWORK	2
2.1. WORK ENGAGEMENT	2
2.1.1. Concept of Work Engagement	2
2.1.2. Factors Associated With Work Engagement	6
2.1.2.1. Role Clarity	6
2.1.2.2. Age	6
2.1.2.3. Race	6
2.1.2.3. Gender	7
2.1.2.5. Tenure	7
2.2. PERSONALITY	7
2.2.1. Concept of Personality	7
2.2.2. Theories About Personality	9
2.2.2.1. Allport’s Approach	12
2.2.2.2. Cattell’s Approach	12
2.2.2.3. Eysenck’s Approach	14
2.2.3. Five Factor Personality Traits	16
2.2.3.1. Extraversion	17
2.2.3.2. Agreeableness	17
2.2.3.3. Conscientiosness	18
2.2.3.4. Neuroticism	19
2.2.3.5. Openness to Experience	20
2.3. PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL	21
2.3.1. Positive Psychology	21
2.3.2. Positive Organizational Behavior	23
2.3.3. Psychological Capital	24
2.3.4. Dimensions of Psychological Capital	26

2.3.4.1. Hope.....	26
2.3.4.2. Optimism.....	27
2.3.4.3. Self-Efficacy	28
2.3.4.4. Resilience.....	29
2.3.5. Consequences of Psychological Capital	30
2.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES.....	31
3. METHODOLOGY	34
3.1 THE RESEARCH MODEL.....	34
3.2. HYPOTHESES	34
3.3. WORKING SAMPLE	35
3.4. MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT	35
3.5. DATA ANALYSIS	39
4. FINDINGS	41
4.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	41
4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SCALES.....	42
4.3. HYPOTHESES TESTING	44
5. CONCLUSION	71
5.1. DISCUSSION.....	7
5.2. THEORITICAL CONTRIBUTION	76
5.3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	77
REFERENCES.....	80
APPENDIX.....	102

1. INTRODUCTION

The relationships between the different variables, which were tried to be explained in the previous sections, were gathered under a model as given below. When the literature review is made, it is seen that the variables mentioned under the positive psychology trend are examined by considering them as double or triple dimensions in different structures. In the results obtained in these studies, positive relations were recorded between the relations subject to the examination. However, as mentioned earlier, the findings obtained in the studies are scattered in the literature.

It is observed that especially personality structures and work engagement levels of employees are associated with very different dimensions in the organizational field. The concept of work engagement is one of the issues that are subject to intense interest both in psychological and organizational fields. The importance of work engagement in the organizational field is based on the thesis of a happy and productive employee. In this context, the subject that is intriguing by the researchers is what or what causes work engagement. Recently, the effects of the individual's personality traits and psychological capital on work engagement are examined in different studies.

Accordingly, this study aimed to investigate the presence of personality structures and the effect of psychological capital on work engagement. It is also aimed to obtain information about the direction and severity of the relationship between individuals' personality structures and psychological capital levels.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Work Engagement

2.1.1. Concept of Work Engagement

Since the last couple of years, numerous discussions and analyses have been conducted within the domain of employee engagement. Studies have increasingly focused on how the work engagement impacts the organization. Work engagement can be defined as an emotional state that includes increased dedication, absorption and vigour (Bakker, 2011). The concept has been also defined as a positive, increasingly fulfilling, work related mind, that is been characterized by dedication, absorption and vigour (Naithani et al., 2009). Vigour indicates high levels of the energy and the increases mental resilience while working and enhances willingness to invest efforts in the work. Dedication means remaining highly persistent in the face of difficulties and challenges. Engagement is also interlinked with the concept of the absorption or the flow, that is characterized by being completely concentrated engrossed in the work.

According to Bakker's (2011) study, an evidence-based model of work engagement, major predictors of the work engagement are personal resources (e.g., optimism, resilience, hope and self-efficacy) and job resources (e.g., stimulation of personal growth, learning, and development). Bakker (2011) have also highlighted that most of these resources can gain overall salience when job demands such as work load, emotional demand and mental demand are high. Previous studies have indicated a positive relationship between work engagement and similar constructs including organizational commitment, extra-role behavior, job involvement, personal initiative and the workaholic (Rapp, Mathieu, and Schillewaert, 2006). Studies have also showed that engaged workers generally report low burnout rate, their neuroticism level is low, and their extraversion level is really high. Their physical and mental health is found to be better than the workers who are less engaged (Chen et al., 2011).

Bakker (2011) stated that engaged employees are highly connected with their work roles in their tasks. They have a lot of energy, great dedication to work and are immersed in the work activities. The research has considered that engaged employees focus on their work tasks, are open to the new information and highly productive and are willing to pivot all possible changes within the organization.

As we stated before in the academic literature there is a number of definitions of work engagement. In light of Goffman's view of role embracement, Kahn (1990) established a theoretical framework to understand where and why individuals invest varying degrees of themselves in work role performance. For Kahn (1990), individuals engage themselves to the extent their investment of themselves along the above mentioned three dimensions (physical, cognitive, and emotional). An illustration of engagement is made by Kahn. Kahn (1990) also states that, three conditions; *meaningfulness, safety, and availability*, influence an individual's personal engagement (Kahn, 1990: 703). *Experienced meaningfulness* is a feeling that one finds his or her job worthwhile, useful and valuable. People can experience *safety* when they can trust other people around without fear of negative outcomes (Kahn, 1990: 703; Bal, 2008).

Along with meaningfulness and safety, the availability of mental, social, emotional, and physical resources are also very important to engage individual's self in a work role. In accordance with the amount of physical and emotional energy one has, this *sense of availability* might be versatile at different times. In addition, a sense of availability is influenced by the different work/life demands with which one must cope (Kahn, 1990: 714-716). Although Kahn presents a comprehensive theoretical model of psychological presence, he does not propose an operationalization of the construct (Schaufeli et al., 2002, 73).

More recently, burnout researchers define engagement as the opposite or positive antithesis of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001: 418). Maslach, Leiter and Schaufeli (2001) are the first researchers who operationalized the construct. This is why Schaufeli suggested measuring burnout and work engagement by different scales. For his purpose Schaufeli, Salanova et al. (2003) developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

(UWES). Until then Maslach-Burnout Inventory (MBI) had been used in engagement studies (Schaufeli et al., 2002: 74).

Rothbard defines engagement as psychological presence and states that it involves two critical components: attention and absorption. Attention refers to cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role while absorption means being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role (Rothbard, 2001: 656)

The following definition which is one of the most definitive and descriptive definition of work engagement is made by Robinson, Perryman and Hayday (2004: 9) from the Institute of Employee Studies (IES);

“a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organization and its values. An engaged employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organization. The organization must work to nurture, maintain and grow the engagement, which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee.”

Robinson et al. (2004) discuss employee engagement as being the reciprocal relationship between an employee and their employing organization. In this relationship both the employee and the organization provide a benefit to each other. Unlike having a simple transactional relationship; the organization provides something extra to the employee in return for increased engagement levels. An example of the two-way relationship is evident in the organization providing a child care centre, for the employees where this facility is relevant, it could increase their feelings of good towards the organization and give them a personal sense of feeling valued (Ferrer, 2005: 4; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 875).

Research has so far revealed that work engagement influences employee outcomes either directly or indirectly and contributes positively to the organizational goals and objectives (Derks et al. 2015). This is because engaged workers and employees are more creative,

more motivated and more productive in comparison to the less engaged workers. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) have stated that an organization plays an immense role in enhancing engagement of employees at work. The authors introduced many ways and perspectives through which employees' work engagement can be improved, such as empowering the employees and providing them comfortable working environment (Saks, 2006: 603).

Previous research has also provided reasoning and explanations about why engaged employees perform well. Researchers have emphasized that engaged employees often tends to have, (a) positive emotions, (b) good health, (c) ability to mobilize resources, and (d) cross over of engagement.

Scholars have emphasized that employees who are more engaged will experience real emotions while performing any given task (Schaufeli and Van Rhenen, 2006). Employees with good intentions and happy mood are sensitive to work opportunity and such employees are found to be more outgoing and helpful to others. Positive emotions could be joy, employee interest, and contentment. Fredrickson and Losada (2005) showed that when employees experience positive emotions, they ask more questions, resulting in better performance.

Previous studies have also indicated that highly engaged employees positively influence employee health. Schaufeli and Bakker, (2004) found in their research that more engaged employees have better health. In addition to these studies, it has been argued that one of the work engagement dimensions (i.e., vigor) has a positive impact on physical and mental health (Shirom, 2003).

Another important reason behind why engaged employees bring productivity is that engaged employees have a special ability to create their own resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Scholars have found that engaged employees exhibit more effective performance.

2.1.2. Factors Associated With Work Engagement

2.1.2.1. Role Clarity

Role clarity is described as the extent to which employees in the work environment have adequate information and guidance about their job description and expected performance from them. Mandes and Stander (2011) states that role clarity consists of two attributes (a) role conflict; (b) role ambiguity. Role conflict occurs when conflicting job requirements arise, whereas role ambiguity refers to the lack of clarity of outcomes of behaviors. Previous studies illustrated that low conflict and low ambiguity often results in enhancing role clarity which increases employees' work engagement.

2.1.2.2. Age

Although there are no specific research findings on the relationship between age and employee engagement (Peterson, 2000), few findings have reported that older employees generally demonstrate more work engagement than young employees (Bakker and Xanthopoulou, 2009). Similarly, Mostert and Rothmann, (2006) argued that there is marginal difference in vigor and dedication, based on age factor. However, there are also other studies which suggested that there is no difference in employees' engagement levels in relation to age (Bakken et al., 2000; Salamonson, Andrew and Evertte, 2009).

2.1.2.3. Race

Previous studies have not illustrated any specific explanation of work engagement with regard to racial differences. Despite some studies revealing some few racial differences in South Africa, existing studies found no significant differences in employees' work engagement levels in different racial groups (Bakken et al., 2000).

2.1.2.4. Gender

Researchers have argued that gender differences in relation to work engagement may exist. Research by Peterson (2000) also suggested that employees' work engagement is gender sensitive. Bakker et al. (2004) also found gender-based differences in experiences of employee engagement. Other researchers also found marginal differences in vigor and dedication, between males and females (Mostert and Rothmann, 2006). Archer et al. (2007) found higher level of vigor among females in comparison to males.

2.1.2.5. Tenure

Past research suggested that engaged employees have social, physical and organizational resources needed to enable them to deal with their job demands. Engaged employees always invest their energy and time, with their intentions to develop vigor and dedication over a period time (Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008).

Therefore, researchers argued that employees who have been employed in an organization for longer period, remain more engaged. Similarly, few studies suggested that employees who have been working for a longer period of time tend to experience lower levels of work engagement (Wetter, 2008).

2.2. PERSONALITY

2.2.1. Concept of Personality

There are many different views on the definition of personality. Psychologists have not reached a complete consensus on the clear definition of personality. However, personality in general is defined as "the characteristic behavior patterns, patterns and ways of thinking that determine a person's adaptation to the environment" (Atkinson, 2007: 228-230).

Personality is a coherent and structured form of relationship that distinguishes the

individual from other people with his/her inner world and outer environment. According to Loehlin and Martin (2018), personality describes the person's perception, learning, thinking, coping and behavioral patterns, which arise from immanent sources today, and which generally dominates one's behavior, including biological nature and what is learned by trial and error. "The basic function of personality is to perceive, feel, think, and integrate all of these into purposeful behavior" (Schultz and Schultz, 1998). The basic point of personality types is that people are not homogeneously distributed in the field of psychological traits. Individuals are grouped only in terms of certain common characteristics and characterized by the characteristics of the group in which they are included (Loehlin and Martin, 2018).

In order to fully express the content of the concept of personality, Allport (1961) states that more than fifty definitions can be used by using the perspective of many different disciplines such as "philosophy, theology, sociology, psychology, law". According to Furnham and Heaven (1999), personality is a very complex concept which is tried to be defined by the discipline of psychology". Therefore, this complexity of the concept not only explains the concept in a simple way, but also causes it to be expressed in more than one way due to different approaches.

In line with scientific studies, according to psychologists, personality consists individual's specific, characteristic, and distinctive behaviors. It is specific and characteristics since it stands for the individual's most frequent or most typical behavior. It is distinctive since these behaviors distinguish one from the other. However, personality term refers to the relatively consistent characteristics of the individual, that distinguish him them from the other individuals, and form the basis of our predictions on future behaviors of the individual (Morgan, 2005).

According to Pervin, Cervone and John (2005), personality is comprehensive. Personality indicates to individual's psychological attributes that contribute to steady patterns how one feels, thinks, and behaves. Personality is the considered as a well- shaped sytem that represents one's greater psychological subsystems with the collective movements (Mayer, 2007). Another definition of the personality draws attention to how one's

interactions, adjustment skills are affected by these mechanisms and psychological traits set that are called as personality. Individuals are relatively consistent within this set and they are under effect of these traits and mechanisms set while they interact in social content (Larsen and Buss, 2009). Most of the psychologists, psychiatrists and philosophers share the view that 1- personality is a psychological system, 2- is formed as component groups, 3- that interact, 4- evolve, and 5- affects how individual behave (Mayer, 2007).

2.2.2. Theories About Personality

In the past, various theories about personality have been proposed by philosophers. However, forming the theories of personality from scientific approach occurred in the end of the 18th century. Opinions that initially developed out of clinical observations were investigated thoroughly by Charcot, Janet, Freud, Jung, and McDougall. Another influence on personality theories was the Gestalt approaches and holistic views that began with William Stern. Experimental psychology, learning theories and controlled empirical research was influential in the development of personality theories in their field. Measurement/evaluation technologies and individual differences in psychometry and human behavior were also played substantial role in the development of personality theories. It is stated that developments in fields such as genetic, social anthropology, sociology, and economics have both impact and contribution to contemporary personality theories from various aspects (Burger, 2014).

Personality psychology is interested in people's authentic style of behaving, feeling, and thinking. Hence, the predictions of each theory for the personality development are diversified. There are six main personality theories that explain and analyze personality.

Psychoanalytic Theory explains the interpersonal behavioral difference with unconscious processes, while Biological Theory explains individual differences with hereditary characters and physical processes. Trait Theory is a concept that distinguishes individuals due to the levels of possession of a certain number of personality characteristics, while the Humanistic Theory suggests that the differences are driven by a sense of personal

responsibility and self-approval. Behavioral and Social Learning Theory argues that interpersonal differences are the result of various conditioning and expectations, as Cognitive Theorists explain these differences as differences in the information processing process. These six concepts that are explaining the personality, do not contradict each other, disagreement is based on the difference in behavior patterns (Burger, 2014).

Personality is tried to be identified beginning from the early stages of mankind. Same phenomenon is tried to be explained with different theories. In addition to this, there are difficulties to examine human beings objectively because of the emotional quality. When we look at the last 30 years in the field of personality, it is seen that the biggest discussions are between person - situation approaches to the person. Trait theorists focus on here and now, how adults' personalities differentiate one from another rather than what is and is not personality and how it develops in the first childhood experiences. For this reason they define themselves as trait personality theorists. They emphasize that people have differentiated personality traits such as addiction, aggression, compassion, and helpfulness. Personality traits indicate that there are consistent patterns in the way individuals behave, think, and feel. Trait theorists aim to measure psychological attributes of personality as objective and reliable as those found in the physical sciences (Cervone and Pervin, 2015).

Immeasurable aspects of personality psychology have not been taken into account since measurability has a significance in these theories. Trait theories show a superficial approach to personality and focus on conscious and concrete aspects of personality. Unconscious and abstract statements on behavior do no matter to trait theories (Masood, 2009).

The common characteristic of trait theories is that they emphasize that all of these theories have personality traits that reflect the tendency of individuals to behave in a certain way. The strong tendency of this behavior means that the individual is predominant in relation to the personality trait. According to trait theorists, the levels of characteristics that differentiate individuals from others are different from one individual to others. Trait

theories have three basic assumptions about personality. These assumptions are as follows (Bernstein et al., 2007):

- Personality traits are relatively continuous. For this reason, they are predictable over time and they do not change over time.
- Personality traits are also continuous from situation to situation. That is why we can explain why individuals behave in similar ways in many different situations. For example, an individual who is highly competitive in his workplace will likely be similarly competitive in a sports event.
- People differ according to their level of having a certain personality trait. There are not two people in the world who have exactly the same personality traits. As a result of this situation, a myriad of unique personalities are antagonized.

There are two main purposes of trait theorists:

- (1) to predict how an individual will behave in a particular situation,
- (2) to predict how the individual will behave at a certain point in the continuity of the differential characteristic.

Another distinguishing feature of the trait approach is that it does not mention the underlying reasons for behavior as much as other approaches. However, the trait theories researchers do not just define the distinctive features. Determining the traits is the first step in predicting human behavior for them (Burger, 2014).

Supporters of the trait approach, which is one of the most popular methods used in the psychology of personality (have determined a set of behaviors that can be shown on a continuum and claim that they can place the behavior at a point on this continuum (Masood, 2009).

Cervone and Pervin (2015) stated that many psychologists who put forward ideas in the field of personality psychology today and who have different opinions on this subject use their distinctive features and distinctive feature measures in their studies. Contributions of the first trait theorists have a great importance on this approach becoming popular. The first known studies in this area have been conducted by Allport, Cattell, and Eysenck.

2.2.2.1. Allport's Approach

Allport (1961) stated that two people would never look exactly like each other. According to Allport, each person's behavior is unique to him, and the most effective term in the study of behaviors and individual differences is the concept of "trait". He believed that basic units of the personality are traits (Cervone and Pervin, 2015).

Allport (1961) defined the trait concept as a personality dimension that classifies individuals according to their specific personality characteristics and to what extent they reflect this characteristic. According to Allport, Trait Approach is formed on two basic assumptions. The first supposition is that traits do not change over time; the second assumption argues that individuals continue to use the same personality traits consistently in different situations. According to these assumptions, a person who is extroverted and social will continue to exhibit these characteristics consistently for years. These characteristics, that the person possesses, will show consistency in different situations; the person will exhibit an extrovert and social personality both in the workplace and outside and at home.

As the explanations above suggests, Allport (1961) has mainly tried to determine basic personality traits and to what extent people have certain personality traits. According to Allport, it is possible to determine the authentic and unique composition of the characteristics that form the personality of the individual. For this reason, while trying to determine individuals' personalities, they have examined them within themselves rather than placing them in pre-determined classes (Burger, 2014; Cervone and Pervin, 2015).

2.2.2.2. Cattell's Approach

Cattell argued that many human characteristics, especially intelligence, are determined by genes. However, he did not ignore the existence of environmental influences (Burger, 2014). He provided two conceptual distinctions that are surface traits and source traits.

These two groups of traits represent different levels of analysis. He believed that there is a hierarchy between among trait concepts. Surface traits represent superficial behavioral tendencies that can be observed. On the other hand, source traits are underlying internal psychological structures that cause observable behavioral tendencies (Cervone and Pervin, 2015).

Cattell worked to discover basic personality traits; claimed that the basic structure of an individual can be determined by grouping concepts that are close and related to each other and by separating the concepts that are independent of each other. After working with the factor analysis method, he identified 16 basic personality traits. He developed a 16-factor personality questionnaire by naming them “key personality traits” and published this questionnaire in 1949 (Burger, 2014).

The table below shows the personality structure of Cattell with 16 factors.

Table 2.1. Cattell's 16 Personality Factor

Reserved	Outgoing
Less Intelligent	More Intelligent
Stable, ego strength	Emotionality/neuroticism
Humble	Assertive
Sober	Happy-go-lucky
Expedient	Conscientious
Shy	Venturesome
Tough-minded	Tender-minded
Trusting	Suspicious
Practical	Imaginative
Forthright	Shrewd
Placid	Apprehensive
Conservative	Experimenting
Group dependent	Self-sufficient
Undisciplined	Controlled
Relaxed	Tense

Source: (Cervone and Pervin, 2015)

2.2.2.3. Eysenck's Approach

Eysenck (1997) suggests that your personality is shaped by their biological structures, not as a result of your parents' actions or mistakes. Hence, he has drawn attention to biological factors affecting personality. In other words, he suggests that the differences in personality between individuals are caused by biological differences between individuals. For example, he argued that the difference between extravert and introvert is caused by the “Reticular Activating System” associated with the brain. According to this, while the introverts need to move away from the social environment because they are more stimulated by the influence of this system, extraverts feel the need to enter new social environments as they perceive the stimuli at a low level (Eysenck, 1997).

Eysenck (1991) argued that essential personality traits such as extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism are mainly determined by inheritance; environmental factors in personality development are not very important. According to Eysenck, three-quarters of the person is determined by genetic factors. In other words, Eysenck says that 75% of the variance observed in this three-person dimension is inherited; While 25% could be explained by environmental impact.

Eysenck used secondary factor analysis to identify independent factors. The secondary factors are traits that are consistent emotions or behaviors distinguishing one from another, continuous dimensions with a high and low end. The highest level of the hierarchy of traits is called super factors. (Cervone and Pervin, 2015). Eysenck and Eysenck (1976) structured his first personality theory on the dimension of two personality dimensions, ie, “extraversion and neuroticism”. In his first personality typology, he distinguished four distinct groups of individuals from each other in two-polar two-dimensional forms. The other end of the extraversion dimension is introversion. The other point of neuroticism dimension is emotionally stable. Eysenck's (1976) Two- Polar Two-Dimensional Personality Typology is demonstrated in Table 2.

Table 2.2. Eysenck and Eysenck's (1976) Two-Polar Two-Dimensional Personality Typology

	Stable	Neurotic
Introvert	Calm Even-tempered Reliable Controlled Peaceful Thoughtful Careful Passive	Quiet Unsociable Reserved Pessimistic Sober Rigid Anxious Moody
Extrovert	Leadership Carefree Lively Easygoing Responsive Talkative Outgoing Sociable	Active Optimistic Impulsive Changeable Excitable Aggressive Restless Touchy

Source: (Burger, 2014)

In the following years, Eysenck and Eysenck (1976) added a third personality dimension to his theory called “psychotism”. Individuals who score high on it are considered as self-centered, selfish, aggressive, insensitive, insensitive to others’ rights, impulsive, and rebellious against others.

2.2.3. Five Factor Personality Traits

Most trait researchers who tried to classify individual differences found that one or more traits grouped under more than one main factor. There were/are many suggestions on numbers and names for the main factors. However many studies showed that there are five factors under which different traits belong. That is instead of naming all different defining words or adjectives; they classified under basic factors, which observed universally, in terms of their relatedness. Being friendly and talkative are both related to a higher factor, extraversion, they were grouped under this factor. Recently Five- factor model is accepted as the most extensive and well- established model for structuring personality (Digman, 1990; John, Naumann, and Soto, 2008; McCrae and Costa, 1985). In contrast to psychological theories that dominantly deal with the internal dynamics of personality, this model deals with the observable, interpersonal components of the personality, like behavior patterns (Costa and McCrea, 1995). It assumes that similar behavioral patterns coded into any language. All languages have terms for defining similar types of qualifications. That is, although the words are different for a similar behavior pattern, we can say this pattern can be seen in any culture, so is universal. Although all factors found in many cultures, a number of factors and meanings of them can be different (McCrae and Costa, 1997). There are many debates on this issue, whether these factors are sufficient or not in order to define individuals from different cultures? Are they really reflect the same pattern across cultures, or are the numbers of factors are enough or not?

What are these factors? Why this model is the most accepted one? Five dimensions of this model are listed as; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (John, Naumann, and Soto, 2008). They are all two-tailed dimensions and rather than assessing if one of them exists in a person or not, individuals rated on each dimension in order to find which one they belong to. Why this model accepted universally and counted as the most reliable one? This model based on biological factors, which have the same effects on behaviors across cultures. Show

consistency with the definitions of traits in natural languages. Also, longitudinal studies and interobserver studies showed the definition power of these factors. Each personality dimensions have six facets:

2.2.3.1. Extraversion

This dimension has similarities with the Eysenck's Extraversion trait. These individuals look for social interactions in order to balance their arousal levels. Extravert individuals defined as being full of life, joyful, talkative, social, excited and easygoing. They tend to have positive emotions across situations. They find it easy to form new relationships and generally comfortable with belonging big groups. As they have high self-confidence levels, they do not feel anxious while dealing with new groups, environment or life transactions. Being better and craving for rewards are their basic motivation (Barrick, Stewars, and Piotrowski, 2002). They can easily part in simultaneous activities and generally prefer to be leaders. Meeting with many people in the same day or finishing many tasks is not a problem for them. McCrea and Costa (1985) represented this dimension with warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, sensation seeking and positive emotionality subfactors in their personality inventory.

Cloninger (2000) in his study found that extrovert individuals stated more sense of intimacy and control on their daily lives, and their friends, social environment perceived them more friendly, emotionally and talkative when compared to other dimensions. On the other hand, Introverts are described as being quieter, shy, withdrawn and crave for being on their own. This also has lots to do with the arousal levels; they are assumed to have higher arousal levels even they do nothing during the day. As socialization brings many new stimuli, they feel so tired even after meeting with one person or doing a few tasks. So, as extroverts have higher energy levels, they create more and feel less tired in a day. While loading more to reach arousal levels, they feel less stressed because of being optimistic (McCrae and John, 1992).

2.2.3.2. Agreeableness

This dimension represented with six facets: trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness. Social adaptability and likability terms sometimes used in terms of agreeableness; these individuals are generally found friendly, compliant, helpful, forgiving and loving. They generally avoid having conflicts and try to be sympathetic. They do not try to dominance or lead any relationship they had, generally be the one who tries to solve problems without arguing. They generally stated as the supportive individuals within their social environments. This dimension assumed to develop during socialization and learning process rather than related solely to internal dynamics and biological reasons. Agreeableness is important in order to continue harmonious social relations/ life because positive and long-term relations generally based on being adaptive (Graziano, Jensen Campbel and Hair, 1996). People with high agreeableness score especially try to be more patient and more respectful to other whether they know or do not know. These individuals prefer to work for charities or any campaigns related to any kind of help. While extraversion mostly related to the social stimulus, agreeableness mostly related to the relationship quality. This personality factor also affects self- perception, and results in more altruistic behaviors.

People lows in Agreeableness are generally aggressive, uncooperative, suspicious and ruthless. They have inflated self-perceptions and do not try to solve problems without conflict. Hostility is one of the basic motivations of these people, and they generally try to assert power in any situation (McCrae and Costa, 1992). However, being really high on this dimension does not good either, this simply means being so dependent, self-destructive, working only for others, doing what others want all the time (McCrea and Costa, 1987). What is more, if self-monitoring is high in this factor, then having high self-monitoring skills might result in a very strict lifestyle, which is highly sensitive to rules and regulations.

2.2.3.3. Conscientiousness

While extraversion mostly related with social stimulus and agreeableness mostly related to the relationship quality, this dimension of personality reflects discipline and impulse control levels of an individual. They are well organized, punctual and ambitious, so their

GPA levels and income levels expected to be high because of experiencing high stress when doing not complete given tasks on time. This dimension's facets are; competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation. Individuals who are high on this dimension, regulate their behaviors and make plans in order to reach their goals (Szalma and Taylor, 2011), their motivation for achievement is high. On the other hand, people low on this dimension is unreliable, do not care for achievement and continuously change their aims. They cannot work on anything if it is not stimulating or their attention is distracted, because of low self-discipline levels. Ferguson (2000) found that conscientious individuals perform better at university, especially in medical school. Their job satisfaction levels are higher, on the other hand, their evaluations done by bosses are better (Barrick and Mount, 1991). This dimension does not directly relate to relationships, organization/ being organized and aim-focused is the main theme here. As their motivation is achievement and they organize for their goals, they are known as successful in their social environment, this, in turn, makes them have higher self-esteem levels (Costa, 2003).

2.2.3.4. Neuroticism

Neuroticism characterized by a stable tendency towards depression, anxiety, tension, hostility, self-pity, impulsivity, and low self-esteem (Penley and Tomaka, 2002). They are more prone to develop maladaptive behaviors and social relationships, because of continuously experiencing distress. Their perceptions distorted, especially they are harsh on their selves, and this makes them have unrealistic thinking patterns. They have ineffective coping strategies even though they are always in stress. This makes them more prone to health problems when faced with problems they try to use emotional coping strategies and do not call for help, which in turn increases the levels of stress. Feeling of incapability increases after each before mentioned unsuccessful coping trial. People who score low on this dimension can cope with stress easily with a tendency to be calm, self-satisfied and self-confident because they are less sensitive to negative stimuli.

The term “neuroticism” used interchangeably with the term “negative affectivity” (McCrae et al., 1996; Ormel and Wohlfarth, 1991; Schwebel and Suls, 1999). Things

perceived as less stressful can be stressful according to these individuals. Even a small detail can make them anxious. Anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability are the facets of this dimension. Emotionally stable individual low on neuroticism are less vulnerable to stress and have effective coping skills. What is more, they are more satisfied with their lives and happier (Costa, 2003).

2.2.3.5. Openness to Experience

Openness to experience consists of fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas and values facets. Costa and McCrea (1985), in their personality factor studies, stated that Eysenck's three-factor model is not capable enough to explain these kinds of individuals. According to Fruyt et al (2000), this is the dimension with the most difficult description. However, intellectual interests and craving for aesthetics, searching for new things are the leading motivations for Openness to Experience. Costa, McCrea and Robert (1992) found that, liberal people, people who are more open to minorities generally classified high on this dimension. They refuse traditional gender-related roles and flexible across rules. Being independent is very important for them, and they love variability so they can focus on / learn many things, which are curious about. On the other hand, low scores on Openness to Experience shows high obedience, simple living style. These individuals are more traditional and conservative; they adopt rigid working conditions and rules. Rather than the adjectives intelligent or rational; intellectual, open minded and explorer was found to be more related to this dimension. As they have high levels of imagination and creativeness, many real artists might have high scores on Openness to Experience.

Number of dimensions have always been questioned, whether they are capable enough or not? Many studies conducted in different cultures, such as Dutch (Fruyt, Mervielde, Hoekstra, and Rolland, 2000; Hendriks, Hofstee, and De Raad, 1999), German, Estonian and Finnish (Pulver, Allik, Pulkkinen, and Hamalainen, 1995), Flemish, Italian (cited in Pulver et al., 1995), Czech (Hrebickova, 1995 cited in John and Srivastava, 1999), Norwegian, Hebrew (Almagor, Tellegen, and Waller, 1995), Chinese (Yang and Bond, 1990), Japanese (cited in Pulver et al., 1995), Russian (Shmelyov and Pokhilko, 1993 cited in John and Srivastava, 1999) and Turkish (Somer and Goldberg, 1999). They all

supported the validity of the big five dimensions. Research in other languages and cultures can determine the existence of universal aspects in addition to culturally specific dimensions of personality traits. All these dimensions are enough to define all individual differences within all cultures. According to Pauonen, Sampo and Jackson (2000) there are many facets that cannot be classified under these five dimensions, and these can even lead to a 'sixth' dimension. The main thing here is that even though gathering all factors under five dimensions makes us get more stable data across the world, the adjectives that form facets or the facets themselves might have specific features. Studies on these facets might give us a more extensive understanding of personality traits. Culture accepted as one of the most important determinants these debates since studies on personality mostly done with the samples from Western cultures, five-factor model criticized for having a Western point of view (Katigbak, Church and Akamine, 1996). Noguchi, Gohm, Dalsky and Sakamoto (2007), stated that self-enhancement strategies that settled during child rearing process lead focusing on positive or negative characteristics. Western cultures talk more about positive characteristics where an Eastern culture teaches to make harsh self-criticisms. As a result 'negative valence' can be the sixth dimension, while individuals in Western countries focus on their positive traits, in Eastern countries focus on their negative traits (Fiske, Kitayama, Markus, and Nisbett, 1998). McCrea and Costa (1996) said that negative valence could be classified under five dimensions; where positive valence would be related with low agreeableness and negative valence would be related to depression and satisfaction (neuroticism).

2.3. PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

2.3.1. Positive Psychology

Positive psychology is the term that is studied by Maslow, Fromm and Rogers in 1954, but introduced to the literature by Seligman in 1998. Seligman and his colleagues define the term positive psychology as a science of positive experiences, behaviors. (Seligman, Duckworth, and Steen, 2005) Gable and Haidt made description of the term positive psychology as science of situations and period of individuals', institutions' and groups' development for optimal one (Gable and Haidt, 2005). Sheldon and King identified

positive psychology as a science of individuals' optimum strengths (Sheldon and King, 2001).

According to Seligman, main aim of positive psychology is to find out, analyze and develop personal qualities of humans (Seligman, 1998). Positive characteristics of individuals or groups help them to gain positive experiences and develop positive features. According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, positive psychology is interested in experiences including well-being, gratification, and inner calm for past, optimism and hope for future, felicitousness at present at subjective level; personal qualifications such as love and job capacity, braveness, communication ability, precision, endurance, talent etc. at personal level and institutions and civic virtues including responsibility, moderation, altruism, nurturance, work ethics at group level (Csikszentmihalyi and Seligman, 2000).

Positive psychology is interested in to develop strengths and provide well-being to humans rather than psychopathologies. Although, researches are focused on psychopathologies of humans since World War II, interest to positive psychology has increased in recent years. (Seligman, Duckworth, and Steen, 2005) Between World War II and 20th century, psychology focused on analyzing and treating mental disorders of individuals. In the last period of 20th century, psychology has headed toward positive psychology. As of the last period of 20th century, psychology's main aims changed to two goals which are making individuals lives more efficient and discover potentials of humans. Positive psychology seeks average person by evaluating methods working, improving and correct to thrive humans to satisfy and be happy (Sheldon and King, 2001). Positive psychology is the actual psychology for Sheldon and King. Positive psychology is not denying negative sides of the lives but it makes individuals' lives more efficient.

According to David Buss, reaching positive mind is difficult for people because of past experiences' influence. There are three reasons that affect reaching to condition of positive mind negatively including environmental divergences between past and present, distress mechanisms of people and competitive selection and its outcomes.

(Csikszentmihalyi and Seligman, 2000) Afterwards, Massimini and Delle Fave continued to study on this approach and analyzed cultural and psychological evolutions.

Four different personalities that contribute to positive psychology were studied by many researchers. Subjective well-being is studied by Edward Diener and described as how people evaluate and feel about their living conditions. (Diener and Suh, 2003) Christopher Peterson researched optimism and thought that it has 3 components which are motivational, emotional and cognitive (Peterson and Bossio, 1991) According to him, people who have high optimism have better mood, better physical health and they are more successful people. According to David Myers, happiness is the third personality and Ryan and Deci considered autonomy for fourth personality. Autonomy is one of the needs of self-determination and if these needs are met, people can fulfill their potential, become motivated and seek for new challenges to develop themselves. (Csikszentmihalyi and Seligman, 2000)

Besides positive psychology has effect on individuals' mental health, it also affects society and organizations. Thanks to its specific effects, positive psychology took the lead of conduction of many terms like psychological capital.

2.3.2. Positive Organizational Behavior

Luthans (2002: 59) defined positive organizational behavior as “the study and application of positively oriented human resources, strengths and psychological capabilities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace.”

Although positive organizational behavior and psychological capital are new concepts in organizational studies, researchers are paying significant attention to the effects of psychological capital in the workplace. Several studies have noted the relationship between Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and desired employee behaviors, attitudes (e.g., satisfaction and commitment) and performance (Luthans et al., 2007).

Other studies have shown that there is a significant relationship between psychological capital and other organizational behavior concepts. Toor and Ofori (2010) found that Psychological Capital plays an important role in positive organizational and individual outcomes; transformational leaders with greater psychological capital generate more positive leadership outcomes (effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction). Walumbwa et al. (2011) stated that psychological capital leads to employees' positive behavior such as organizational citizenship.

2.3.3. Psychological Capital

There are several types of capitals that are significant for advantage to compete. Traditional economic capital describes belongings and analyzes financial situations and tangible assets, and other types of capitals focuses on intangible assets such as human capital examines knowledge and evaluates humans' education, experiences, ability, knowledge and notions, social capital measures contact network, relationships, and friends and positive psychological capital investigates hope, confidence, resilience and optimism of individuals.

Although, there are many types of capital, positive psychological capital has shined out last years. When it is necessary to contrast these capitals, psychological capital is unique for companies and provides great percent of competitive advantage to organizations. Thanks to development of psychological capital is cheaper and makes a quick comeback, companies started to gravitate to develop psychological capital. (Luthans, Luthans, and Luthans, 2004)

Psycap is the term that bases on positive psychology and introduced to the literature by Fred Luthans and his colleagues in 2004. When the literature is analyzed, there are thousands of researches that look for relationship between emotions and employees' performance and efficiency since Hawthorne's management studies. However, according to Luthans, these studies focused on negative subjects including stress, exhaustion and alienation rather than positive subjects that may discover the importance of psychological capital (Peterson, 2000).

Psychological capital focuses on human's strengths and psychological sources of individuals and related to the theory of positive psychological capital. Psychological capital is defined as analyzing period of elements including positive approach and critics to develop human, groups or institutions. An organization's success and competitive advantage directly relates to psychological capital, physical contribution and management of them in an efficient way (Luthans and Yousef, 2004).

According to Luthans, psychological capital lays emphasis on development of individuals rather than their stable characteristics. Psychological capital is the positive organizational and individualistic characteristics that can be directed or developed.

Psychological capital has unstable basement depends on the situation rather than stationary features. Motivation, cognitive process, striving to be successful and performance in workplace of individuals are related with psychological capital which can be defined as significant capacity. According to researches, psychological capital is the factor that supports individuals to organizational or societal citizenship by adding values and feelings. They determined four dimensions of psychological capital as confidence, hope, optimism and resilience thanks to Stajkovic's work motivation research factors (Luthans, Luthans, and Luthans, 2004). These four elements constitute psychological capital and help to improve work performance. According to Luthans, these four dimensions constitute this complex construct. First dimension is self- efficacy and determined as in challenging situations, putting the necessary effort to become successful (Pajares, 1996). Second dimension is optimism and identified as having positive perspective to be successful at present and future (Peterson, 2000). Third dimension is hope and explained as keeping on individuals' aims and trying ways to achieve these aims (Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman, 2007). Last and forth dimension is resilience and stated as to achieve success sustaining and recovering troubled situations (Masten, 2001). These four dimensions are independent of each other and influence of combination of these elements which is psychological capital is more than effect of each dimension separately (Luthans, 2002a, Luthans, 2002b).

2.3.4. Dimensions of Psychological Capital

Thanks to positive characteristics, ideas and positive experiences and relationships, a group or individual's psychological capital become sustainable. Page and his colleagues, positive experiences sharp psychological capital efficiently and make people to achieve high performance by using their full performance. However, four dimensions of psychological capital have an important impact on organizations' activities. If they are managed and developed carefully and efficiently, individuals can achieve success easier (Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman, 2007).

Development of these four dimensions is beneficial for both individuals and organizations. According to Bandura, development of self-efficacy support individuals with deep knowledge experiences (Bandura, 1982). Development of hope provides individuals to direct their path to achieve their goals and development of optimism teaches individuals the way of learning from their experiences and achieving success. Also, resilience can be developed by focusing on the asset, risk and organization process and provide long term learning journey to individuals.

2.3.4.1. Hope

Hope is widely used in everyday language. However, hope as a concept is more complex. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defined hope as "to want something to happen or to be true, and to believe it is possible." Snyder, Irving and Anderson (1991: 287) defined hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency (goal-directed energy) and pathways (planning to meet goals)". Snyder and colleagues established hope theory, which is widely recognized in clinical and positive psychology (Snyder et al., 1996, Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 2002). In several studies, they found that hope was linked to academic and athletic success (Snyder, 2000; Snyder 2002).

Snyder, Rand and Sigmon (2002: 257) claimed that "hopeful thought reflects the belief that one can find pathways to desired goals and become motivated to use those pathways".

Snyder (1995) stated that individuals with higher hope are likely to approach a goal with positive feelings, a sense of challenge and thoughts of success. Those with lower hope may focus more closely on deficiencies, negative feelings and thoughts of failure.

Snyder and his colleagues suggested that one component on its own is not sufficient for hope; individuals must have a task to focus on, the will to succeed at the task, as well as the practical means or ways to accomplish that task (Luthans et al., 2008). From the information above, then, it can be suggested that the mechanism of agency appears to support organizational members to be motivated towards accomplishing work-related goals, which in turn positively affects their performance. Pathways thinking provides managers and their employees with the capacity to generate multiple ways to attain a given goal (e.g., a contingency plan), especially when pathways become blocked (Luthans et al., 2010).

Hope has been shown to relate to performance in various domains, including the workplace. Many studies have shown the relationship between hope and employees' positive reactions. Luthans and his colleagues examined hope among Chinese factory workers and found that it was positively related to performance (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, Li, 2005). Peterson and Luthans (2003) found a strong relationship between hope and unit financial performance, employee satisfaction and retention. Youssef and Luthans (2007) discovered a strong relationship between hope and employee performance, satisfaction, happiness and commitment.

2.3.4.2. Optimism

Seligman (1998) is the founder of optimism theory and in his positive organizational behavior studies considered optimism as a strength. Seligman (1998) used an attribution framework (i.e. explanatory style) to define optimism as making internal, relatively stable and global attributions of positive events, such as goal achievement. Pessimism is making an external, relatively unstable and specific attribution of negative events, such as failure to reach a goal (Luthans et al., 2008).

In Scheier and Carver's (1985) study, positivism was considered a dispositional characteristic. Seligman (1998) suggested that optimism can be developed, and he referred to it as learned optimism. Later, Carver and Scheier (2002) concluded that a person's outlook could change over time. Schneider (2001) maintained that optimism can be learned and developed through recognized approaches such as leniency towards the past, appreciation for the present and seeking opportunity for the future.

Luthans and his colleagues stated that positive organizational behavior tends to emphasize realistic optimism (Luthans, 2002; Youssef and Luthans, 2007) rather than false optimism, underscoring that optimism is not based on an unchecked process that has no realistic assessment. Realistic optimism includes an objective assessment of what one can accomplish in a specific situation, given the available resources at that time (Peterson, 2000). Luthans and his colleagues employed realistic optimism in the objective research discussed below.

From the above studies, it can be said that optimism is the attribution style of an individual who attribute positive events to personal, permanent and pervasive causes; believing that good things always happen to him or her. Conversely, pessimism is the attribution style of individual who attributes negative events as external, temporary and situation-specific; believing that bad things happen to him or her.

2.3.4.3. Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy as a positive construct is based on Bandura, Adams and Beyer's (1977) comprehensive theory and extensive research. Self-efficacy was conceptualized as "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982: 122, cited in Hodges, 2010) and "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997: 3, cited in Hodges, 2010).

While Bandura (2007) linked self-efficacy to positive psychology, it was Stajkovic and Luthans (1998: 66). who applied it to the workplace, defining it as “one’s conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” In their meta-analysis, they found a strong positive relationship between self- efficacy and work-related performance.

In addition, Luthans recent studies demonstrate that there are relationship between self- efficacy and desired consequences in organizations including organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and organizational effectiveness (Luthans, Luthans, and Luthans, 2004).

Allowing employees to achieve success is the best way to develop self-efficacy according to many researches such as Bandura and Luthans. Accession to high performance on a specific task improves employees’ self-efficacies and confidences. It is important to know that an employee can gain confidence only when he is over against a task which is achievable and clear for him. Also, empirical exercises, trainings on jobs, imaginable experiences, and observation to mentors, coaching, social persuasion, positive feedback, mental and physical health, and psychological arousals support employees on developing self-efficacy (Luthans and Youssef, 2004).

2.3.4.4. Resilience

According to the positive organizational behavior perspective, resilience is a learnable capacity that can be developed in ordinary people (Youssef and Luthans, 2007). Luthans (2002: 702) described resilience as “the developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure or even positive events, progress and increased responsibility”.

However, it is a development process that maintains lifelong. To develop resiliency, three strategies may be used by companies which are asset- focused, risk- focused and process- focused (Luthans and Youssef, 2004). Risk-focused strategies aim to expelling risks and stressors that may result unwelcomed consequences (Luthans and Youssef, 2004). Organizations use risk focused strategies to protect their employees from risks and stressors harmful effects. It is not possible to prevent all of their hazardous outcomes. Due to this situation, companies use asset- focused strategies to increase positive outcomes of enhanced resources. Assets are used as factors to increase resiliency (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman, 2007).

Luthans and Youssef (2004) noted that developing human and capital resources increase positive outcomes and protect employees from negative results of risks and stressors. Process- focused strategies use adaptation systems for assets to control risk.

2.3.5. Consequences of Psychological Capital

Desired Behaviors: Psychological capital is generally associated with positive and desired employee behaviors which are job satisfaction, performance, motivation, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and psychological well-being (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre, 2011). According to research, psychological capital is generally related to desired behaviors in a positive way. Job satisfaction is defined as positive mood and attitudes of employees to their occupations. According to Skaalvik et al.'s research, job satisfaction is related to self-efficacy in a positive way that is one of dimensions of psychological capital. Performance is a critical issue for organizations. According to Forbes's research, self-efficacy affects performance positively and also, resiliency has direct and positive relationship with performance. Employees who have higher psychological capital have higher performance in workplace. In a research, there is evidence that demonstrates strong relationship between psychological capital and high performance of employees (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Li, 2005). According to researches, both motivation and self- efficacy affect performance positively that results an effective service quality. Well- being is one of sub dimensions of psychological capital and it affects psychological capital also in a positive

way. Organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior are also affected by psychological capital positively. Researches show that psychological capital generally influences desired behaviors and attitudes positively.

Undesired Behaviors: Psychological capital generally has a negative relationship with undesired behaviors which are employee cynicism, employee resistance, turnover intentions, anxiety, employee stress and deviance (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre, 2011). Development of psychological capital is one of the main way to prevent undesired behaviors and attitudes in workplace. Positive resources of employees which are psychological capital and positive emotions decrease negative organizational behaviors which are cynicism and deviance (Avey, Wernsing, and Luthans, 2008). Also, psychological capital affects job burnout negatively and protects employees from job burnout. (Peng et al., 2013) Furthermore, psychological capital diminishes negative effects of job stress (Abbas and Raja, 2015). In addition to that, psychological capital and intention to leave job have negative relationship. According to researches, psychological capital generally affects undesired behaviors and attitudes in workplace in a negative way.

2.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES

Personality characteristics of employees can change their attitudes towards work. In this context, personal qualities such as self-efficacy, hope, optimism, psychological endurance, self-esteem, and emotion management are important variables that affect work engagement (Schaufeli, 2012; Xanthopoulou et al, 2007). In addition, the level of work engagement varies according to the personality traits of the employees. Therefore, under similar conditions, personal characteristics of employees directly affect the level of work engagement. A situation that affects one employee may be insignificant to the other employee. In the literature, Akhtar et al. (2015) found a significant relationship between five-factor personality traits and work engagement. In this direction, positive and significant relationships were found between basic personality traits such as extroversion and responsibility and work engagement. In the same study, significant relationships were found between personal characteristics such as emotional intelligence, interpersonal sensitivity and ambition and work engagement. Similar to these findings, Inceoglu and

Warr (2011) found a positive relationship between extraversion, responsibility and emotional stability and work engagement. Schaufeli, (2012) revealed a significant relationship between personality traits and work engagement. Zaidi et al. (2013) revealed a negative relationship between neuroticism and work engagement. These findings show that work engagement differs according to personality traits. Accordingly, it is possible to say that personality traits are an important factor affecting work engagement.

When the researches about psychological capital are examined, it is seen that personal qualities are focused. The experiences of the individuals add to the personality structures and psychological states (Diener, 1984). When the studies on what causes the strengthening of psychological capital are examined, it is seen that the first period studies focused on factors such as demographic characteristics and income status of individuals (Diener et al., 2003).

Another factor that psychological capital was associated with was health. At this point, it is seen that psychological capital is related to mental health of people (Diener et al., 2003). However, in some studies, it was found that demographic factors such as gender, income status and health were insufficient to explain the level of psychological capital in individuals (Diener et al., 2003).

In this direction, researchers' attention is directed to internal rather than external factors. Research has been conducted to reveal that personal characteristics are one of the factors that affect psychological capital directly (DeNeve and Cooper, 1998: 197). Many studies conducted in this direction have found that there is a strong relationship between psychological capital and personality traits (Diener et al, 1999: 279). It is accepted that there is a strong relationship between psychological capital and personality traits and subjective well-being (DeNeve and Cooper, 1998).

Personality characteristics express tendencies towards stable patterns in individuals' behaviors and thoughts (Schmutte and Ryff, 1997). In line with this pattern, individuals develop their perceptions about the world positively and negatively. In other words, an individual's perception of the world as positive or negative is influenced by the fixed

patterns created by his or her personality. In general, the personality structure of an individual is shaped by the experiences he has gained throughout his life. Another study emphasizing that psychological capital is influenced by personality traits was conducted by Diener and Fujita (1997). According to this research, psychological capital is affected by performance and personality traits. Lyubomirsky and Ross (1997) stated that happy people often compare themselves with the lives of unhappy people. According to Lubomirsky and Ross (1997), downward social comparisons have a positive effect on self-confidence and self-approval. This situation strengthens psychological capital. Upward social comparisons have negative effects on self-confidence and psychological capital level.

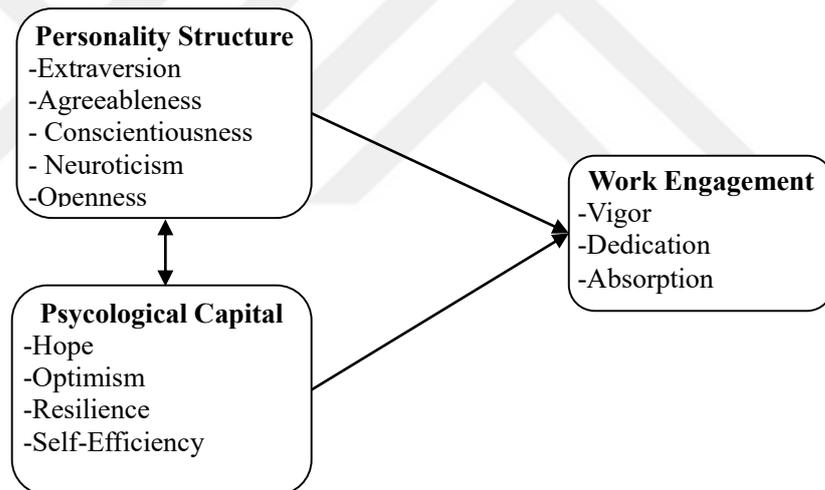
On the other hand, there are some studies suggesting that some sub-dimensions of personality traits have more effect on psychological capital. When the relationship between psychological capital and personality traits is examined, it is seen that most of the studies are on positive psychology and extraversion and neuroticism dimensions of personality traits (Diener et al., 2003: 408). The relationship between extroversion and psychological capital of individuals has been the subject of many studies (Lucas and Fujita, 2000).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 THE RESEARCH MODEL

For the purposes of the study, descriptive scanning model and relational scanning model were used in this study (Cohen at all., 2007). Descriptive screening model aims to identify an existing situation without interfering with it, and in the relational screening model, the degree and direction (positive or negative) of the relationship between the determined variables of the research is investigated. Accordingly, the model of the research is given in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Model of the Research



In the research, abbreviations "PS" for Personality Structure, "PC" for Psychological Capital and "WE" for Work Engagement were used.

3.2. HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses prepared for the purpose of the research are as follows:

H₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between PS and PC levels of white collar employees.

H₂: The PS of white collar employees has a significant effect on their level of PC.

H₃: The PS of white collar employees has a significant effect on their level of WE.

H₄: The PC levels of white collar employees has a positive and significant effect on their level of WE.

H₅: PS, PC and WE of white-collar workers differ according to their demographic characteristics.

H₆: PS, PC and WE of white collar employees differ according to their work life characteristics.

3.3. WORKING SAMPLE

The universe of the research consists of white collar employees over 18 years old who work in e-commerce companies in Istanbul. In the research, easy sampling method was used as sampling method. Easy sampling involves selecting the units to be included in the sampling by non-random methods (Robson, 2002). The sample volume collected is 302 people, the scales were created through the "GoogleForm" questionnaire site and linked to the white collar employees in the universe with Linkedn, Facebook, Twitter etc.were distributed with the participants. It was reached via social media sites and e-mail, the survey link was shared, and they were allowed to participate.

3.4. MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

In the research, a questionnaire, one of the quantitative research methods, was applied as a data collection tool. The questionnaire form prepared by the researcher was filled out by accessing the participants through online platforms. The survey form consists of 5 parts:

1-Demographic Features

2-Features Related to Working Life

3- Psychological Capital Scale

4-Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

5- Big Five Inventory-10

In the demographic features section, there are 5 questions in total for white collar employees to have information about gender, age, educational status, marital status and income status.

In the Features Related to Working Life section, information about the working time of the white collar employees in the e-commerce sector and their current companies is provided.

Psychological Capital Scale was brought to the literature by Lorenz et al. (2016) after a validity and reliability study was conducted as a result of a study with a sample group of 321 people. The scale consists of 12 expressions and 4 sub-dimensions. The scale was evaluated with a 5-point Likert type rating, "Disagree Strongly (1.00-1.79)", "Disagree A Little (1.80-2.59)", "Neither Agree Nor Disagree (2.60- 3,39) ", " Agree A Little (3,40-4,19) "and" Agree Strongly (4,20-5,00) ". Among the items of this scale, there is no item to be coded in reverse.

Checking the construct validity and internal consistency of the scale is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Psychological Capital Scale Validity and Reliability Study

Subdimentions	Scale Items	Factor Load	Factor Explanatory (%)	Reliability Value (Cronbach Alpha)
Hope	1	0,917	27,284	0,830
	3	0,779		
	2	0,623		
Optimism	5	0,904	26,548	0,850
	6	0,865		
	4	0,832		
Self-Efficieny	10	0,750	20,957	0,735
	12	0,701		
	11	0,604		

Resilience	9	0,935	11,950	0,896
	7	0,740		
	8	0,637		
	Total Variance		86,739	0,931
Kaizer Meyer Scale Validity			0,731	
Barlett's Sphericity Test chi square			3964,744	
df			66	
p value			0,000	

Before the exploratory factor analysis to be performed to determine the validity of the Psychological Capital Scale, it is necessary to make determinations that the preliminary assumptions of the factor analysis are provided. Accordingly, as a result of the KMO test, the KMO value was determined to be 0.731 and it was determined to be greater than 0.60. Yet another preliminary assumption, as a result of Barlett's sphericity test, p assumed less than 0.05, this assumption was also provided. In factor analysis, principal components analysis was used and varimax method was applied as rotation. As a result of the factor analysis, the factor structure of the scale was found to be compatible with the original scale. The sub-dimensions and Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients of the scale change to 0.735-0.931.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale has been brought to the literature by Seppala et al. (2008) after the validity and reliability study of 5 sample groups (Health care, Young managers, Managers, Education, Dentists) on the sample groups of 736 people. The scale consists of 9 expressions and 3 sub-dimensions. The scale was evaluated with a 7-point Likert-type rating, "Never (1.00-1.85)", "Almost Never (1.86-2.75)", "Rarely (2.75-3.60)" , "Sometimes (3,61-4,45)", "Often (4,46-5,30)", "Very Often (5,31-6,15)", "Always (6,16-7, 00) ". Among the items of this scale, there is no item to be coded in reverse.

Checking the construct validity and internal consistency of the scale is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Validity and Reliability Study

Subdimensions	Items	Factor Load	Factor Explanatory (%)	Reliability Value (Cronbach Alpha)
Dedication	6	0,843	34,528	0,944
	4	0,717		

	5	0,650		
Vigor	2	0,906	27,999	0,881
	1	0,829		
	3	0,642		
	9	0,933		
Absorption	8	0,825	25,813	0,876
	7	0,843		
	Total Variance			
Kaizer Meyer Scale Validity			0,819	
Barlett's Sphericity Test chi square			3208,116	
df			36	
p value			0,000	

Before the exploratory factor analysis to be performed to determine the validity of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, it is necessary to make determinations that the preliminary assumptions of the factor analysis are provided. Accordingly, as a result of the KMO test, the KMO value was determined to be 0.819 and it was determined to be greater than 0.60. Yet another preliminary assumption, as a result of Barlett's sphericity test, p assumed less than 0.05, this assumption was also provided. In factor analysis, principal components analysis was used and varimax method **was applied as rotation**. As a result of the factor analysis, the factor structure of the scale was found to be compatible with the original scale. The sub-dimensions and Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients of the scale change to 0.888-0.944 in the final scale.

Big Five Inventory-10 was introduced to the literature by Rammstedt and John (2007) as an alternative and short version of Big Five Inventory (BFI-44). Rammstedt and John (2007) developed a short version of the scale by separately making it to two groups of 726 people. The scale consists of 10 expressions and 5 sub-dimensions. The scale was evaluated with a 5-point Likert type rating, and it was "Disagree Strongly (1.00-1.79)", "Disagree A Little (1.80-2.59)", "Neither Agree Nor Disagree (2, 60-3.39) ", "Agree A Little (3.40-4.19) "and" Agree Strongly (4.20-5.00) ". Expressions numbered 1-3-4-5-7 were reversed in the scale. Checking the construct validity and internal consistency of the scale is shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Big Five Inventory-10 Validity and Reliability Studym

Subdimensions	Scale Items	Factor Load	Factor Explanatory (%)	Reliability Value (Cronbach
---------------	-------------	-------------	------------------------	-----------------------------

				Alpha)
Extraversion	1	0,916	23,393	0,845
	6	0,833		
Agreeableness	2	0,918	19,709	0,893
	7	0,841		
Conscientiousness	8	0,878	15,587	0,715
	3	0,666		
Neuroticism	4	0,864	15,252	0,703
	9	0,641		
Openness	5	0,902	11,310	0,713
	10	0,802		
	Total Variance		85,536	
Kaizer Meyer Scale Validity			0,845	
Barlett's Sphericity Test chi square			1975,142	
df			45	
p value			0,000	

Before the exploratory factor analysis to be performed to determine the validity of the Big Five Inventory-10, it is necessary to make determinations that the preliminary assumptions of the factor analysis are provided. Accordingly, as a result of the KMO test, the KMO value was determined to be 0.845 and it was determined to be greater than 0.60. Yet another preliminary assumption, as a result of Barlett's sphericity test, p assumed less than 0.05, this assumption was also provided. In factor analysis, principal components analysis was used and varimax method was applied as rotation. As a result of the factor analysis, the factor structure of the scale was found to be compatible with the original scale. The sub-dimensions and Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients of the scale change to 0.703-0.893.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

In the process of analyzing the data collected in this research, SPSS20 computer program was used. The distribution of the descriptive characteristics of the individuals participating in the research are indicated by frequency and percentage.

The control of whether the scores obtained from the Big Five Inventory-10, Psychological Capital Scale and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale and their sub-dimensions match the normal distribution were determined by considering the kurtosis and skewness values.

These values can be between $-\infty$ and $+\infty$. It was stated that these values should be between -3 and +3 in some studies and between -2 and +2 in some studies to determine that the data set shows normal distribution (Cohen et al., 2003). Since the scale's values of white-collar employees are found to have a normal distribution, the t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for independent samples with differences between groups are parametric tests.

Findings obtained as a result of the research were taken into consideration at the 95% confidence level.

The extent and direction of the relationship between the Big Five Inventory-10 and Psychological Capital Scale subscales used in our study were analyzed with Pearson correlation coefficient. The dimensions of the correlations between the subdimensions scores were evaluated according to the intervals below (Cohen et al., 2003):

r	relationship
0.00-0.25	Very weak
0.26-0.49	Weak
0.50-0.69	Medium
0.70-0.89	High
0.90-1.00	Very high

Cronbach Alpha coefficient was used to calculate the internal consistency of Big Five Inventory-10, Psychological Capital Scale and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale and their sub-dimensions. In the studies in the literature, Cronbach Alpha coefficient is used the most in determining the reliability of the scale and values greater than 0.6 of this number are taken into account (Pai and Chary, 2013).

Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the factor structures of the scales, and multiple regression analysis was used in the test of hypotheses.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The frequency and percentage distributions of the descriptive characteristics of the white-collar employees who participated in the study were specified before the data obtained from the research were analyzed by statistical methods.

Table 4.1. Distribution of Demographic and Working Life Related Characteristics of White Collar Employees

Groups		n	%
Gender	Female	143	47,4
	Male	159	52,6
Age	18-25 years	42	13,9
	26-33 years	136	45,0
	34-41 years	96	31,8
	42 years and more	28	9,3
Education	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	70,2
	Master's Degree or over	90	29,8
Income	2000-3000 TL	107	35,4
	3001-5000 TL	85	28,1
	5001-8000 TL	50	16,6
	8001 TL and over	60	19,9
Marital Status	Married	121	40,1
	Single	181	59,9
Working Time in the Company	0-1 year	82	27,2
	2-4 years	115	38,1
	5-8 years	73	24,2
	9-12 years	32	10,6
Working Time in the Sector	0-1 year	50	16,6
	2-4 years	89	29,5
	5-8 years	65	21,5
	9-12 years	56	18,5
	13 years and over	42	13,9

52.6% of the employees participating in the study are men and 47.4% are women. 45.0%

of the participants are between the ages of 26-33, 31.8% between the ages of 34-41, 13.9% between the ages of 18-25 and 9.3% over the age of 42. 70.2% of white-collar employees are associate / bachelor's degree and 29.8% are Master's Degree or over graduates. In addition, the monthly income of 35.4% of the participants is between 2000-3500 TL and 59.9% are single. In e-commerce companies, 38.1% of white-collar employees at various levels have been working in their current company for 2-4 years, and 29.5% have been working in the industry for 2-4 years.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics For Scales

The average of the scores received by the white-collar employees from the sub-dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10, the standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values and the degree of evaluation corresponding to the average values are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics For Big Five Inventory-10

Sub-dimensions	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Rating
Extraversion	302	3,84	0,96	-0,31	-0,93	Agree A Little
Agreeableness	302	4,09	0,63	-0,55	-0,84	Agree A Little
Conscientiousness	302	3,52	0,66	-0,31	-1,17	Agree A Little
Neuroticism	302	2,55	0,67	-1,21	0,61	Disagree A Little
Openness	302	3,82	0,75	0,90	-1,10	Agree A Little
Big Five Inventory-10	302	3,62	0,36	0,14	-1,38	Agree A Little

The average score of white collar employees participating in the study on the "Extraversion" personality structure sub-dimension is $X = 3.84$ ($sd = 0.96$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from the "Agreeableness" personality structure sub-dimension is $X = 4.09$ ($sd = 0.63$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from the "Conscientiousness" personality structure sub-dimension is $X = 3,52$ ($sd = 0,66$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from the "Neuroticism" personality structure sub-dimension is $X = 2.55$ ($sd = 0.67$; Disagree A Little); The average score they got from the "Openness" personality structure sub-dimension is $X = 3.82$ ($sd = 0.75$; Agree A Little);

The average score they got from the "Big Five Inventory-10" scale was determined to be $X = 3.62$ ($sd = 0.75$; Agree A Little).

The skewness and kurtosis values of the participants' scores from the scale were between -2 and +2. In this case, it can be stated that the scores obtained by the participants showed a normal distribution.

The average of the values received by the employees from the sub-scales of the Psychological Capital Scale, the standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values and the degree of evaluation corresponding to the average scores are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Descriptive Statistics For Psychological Capital Scale

Sub-dimensions	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Rating
Hope	302	4,05	0,74	-0,72	-0,42	Agree A Little
Optimism	302	4,16	0,76	-1,03	1,30	Agree A Little
Resilience	302	4,01	0,82	-0,81	0,27	Agree A Little
Self-Efficiency	302	4,10	0,77	-1,01	0,74	Agree A Little
Psychological Capital Scale	302	4,08	0,67	-1,09	1,56	Agree A Little

The average score of white-collar employees participating in the study from the "Hope" subscale is $X = 4.05$ ($sd = 0.74$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from the sub-dimension "Optimism" is $X = 4.01$ ($sd = 0.76$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from the sub-dimension "Resilience" is $X = 4.10$ ($sd = 0.82$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from the "Self-Efficiency" sub-dimension is $X = 4.10$ ($sd = 0.77$; Agree A Little); The average score they got from "Psychological Capital Scale" was determined as $X = 4.08$ ($sd = 0.67$; Agree A Little).

The skewness and kurtosis values of the participants' scores from the scale were between -2 and +2. In this case, it can be stated that the scores obtained by the participants showed a normal distribution.

The average of the scores received by the white-collar employees from the sub-dimensions of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, standard deviation, skewness and

kurtosis values and the degree of evaluation corresponding to the mean scores are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Descriptive Statistics For Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Sub-dimensions	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Rating
Vigor	302	4,82	1,20	0,30	-0,74	Often
Dedication	302	5,32	1,38	-0,60	-0,35	Very Often
Absorption	302	4,79	1,46	-0,36	-0,69	Often
Work Engagement Scale	302	4,97	1,24	-0,41	-0,69	Often

The average score of white-collar employees participating in the study from the sub-dimension "Vigor" is $X = 4.82$ ($sd = 1.20$; Often); The average score they got from the "Dedication" sub-dimension is $X = 5.32$ ($sd = 1.38$; Very often); The average score they got from the "Absorption" sub-dimension is $X = 4.79$ ($sd = 1.46$; Often); The average score they got from the "Work Engagement Scale" was determined to be $X = 4.97$ ($sd = 1.24$; Often).

Since the kurtosis and skewness scores of the scores obtained from the scale and sub-dimensions were between -2 and +2, it was determined that the data showed normal distribution.

4.3. HYPOTHESES TESTING

In this part of the study, there are correlation, regression and difference tests in which the hypotheses of the research will be tested.

4.3.1. Correlation Analysis

The results of Pearson Correlation analysis conducted in the examination of the relationship between the PS, PC and WE levels of employees are mentioned in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Correlation of Variables

Sub-dimensions		Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness	Hope	Optimism	Resilience	Self-Efficiency	Vigor	Dedication	Absorption
Extraversion	r	1,000	,451	,314	-,257	,405	,350	,245	,104	,322	,380	,281	0,014
	p		0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,070	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,813
Agreeableness	r		1,000	,125	-,453	,361	,348	,560	,499	,593	,220	,217	,174
	p			0,030	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,002
Conscientiousness	r			1,000	-,442	-,210	0,108	-,101	-,147	,179	,606	,520	,311
	p				0,000	0,000	0,061	0,081	0,011	0,002	0,000	0,000	0,000
Neuroticism	r				1,000	-0,112	-,193	-,431	-,318	-,576	-,794	-,550	-,510
	p					0,051	0,001	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Openness	r					1,000	-,171	,128	-,065	,079	-,064	-,235	-,319
	p						0,003	0,026	0,262	0,170	0,268	0,000	0,000
Hope	r						1,000	,369	,613	,678	,358	,617	,486
	p							0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Optimism	r							1,000	,608	,624	,175	,202	0,060
	p								0,000	0,000	0,002	0,000	0,296
Resilience	r								1,000	,884	,336	,474	,357
	p									0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Self-Efficiency	r									1,000	,607	,666	,492
	p										0,000	0,000	0,000
Vigor	r										1,000	,840	,670
	p											0,000	0,000
Dedication	r											1,000	,816
	p												0,000
Absorption	r												1,000
	p												

The findings of the results in Table 4.5 are summarized in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Relationship Between PS,PC and WE Levels

Relationship	Result	Direction	Degree
Extraversion ↔ Hope	Significant	Positive	weakly
Extraversion ↔ Optimism	Significant	Positive	weakly
Extraversion ↔ Resilience	No significant	N/A	N/A
Extraversion ↔ Self-Efficiency	Significant	Positive	weakly
Extraversion ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	moderately
Extraversion ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	weakly
Extraversion ↔ Absorption	No significant	N/A	N/A
Agreeableness ↔ Hope	Significant	Positive	weakly
Agreeableness ↔ Optimism	Significant	Positive	moderately

Agreeableness ↔ Resilience	Significant	Positive	weakly
Agreeableness ↔ Self-Efficiency	Significant	Positive	moderately
Agreeableness ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	weakly
Agreeableness ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	weakly
Agreeableness ↔ Absorption	Significant	Positive	weakly
Conscientiousness ↔ Hope	No significant	N/A	N/A
Conscientiousness ↔ Optimism	No significant	N/A	N/A
Conscientiousness ↔ Resilience	No significant	N/A	N/A
Conscientiousness ↔ Self-Efficiency	Significant	Positive	weakly
Conscientiousness ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	moderately
Conscientiousness ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	moderately
Conscientiousness ↔ Absorption	Significant	Positive	moderately
Neuroticism ↔ Hope	Significant	Negative	weakly
Neuroticism ↔ Optimism	Significant	Negative	weakly
Neuroticism ↔ Resilience	Significant	Negative	weakly
Neuroticism ↔ Self-Efficiency	Significant	Negative	moderately
Neuroticism ↔ Vigor	Significant	Negative	moderately
Neuroticism ↔ Dedication	Significant	Negative	moderately
Neuroticism ↔ Absorption	Significant	Negative	moderately
Openness ↔ Hope	No significant	N/A	N/A
Openness ↔ Optimism	No significant	N/A	N/A
Openness ↔ Resilience	No significant	N/A	N/A
Openness ↔ Self-Efficiency	No significant	N/A	N/A
Openness ↔ Vigor	No significant	N/A	N/A
Openness ↔ Dedication	Significant	Negative	weakly
Openness ↔ Absorption	Significant	Negative	moderately
Hope ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	moderately
Hope ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	moderately
Hope ↔ Absorption	Significant	Positive	moderately
Optimism ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	weakly
Optimism ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	weakly
Optimism ↔ Absorption	No significant	N/A	N/A
Resilience ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	moderately
Resilience ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	moderately
Resilience ↔ Absorption	Significant	Positive	moderately
Self-efficiency ↔ Vigor	Significant	Positive	moderately
Self-efficiency ↔ Dedication	Significant	Positive	moderately
Self-efficiency ↔ Absorption	Significant	Positive	moderately

4.3.2. Regression Analysis

The results of regression analysis performed to examine the effect of employees' personality structures on psychological capital are mentioned in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. The Effect of PS on PC

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	t	p	F	Model (p)	Adjusted R ²
		B	Std. Error						
Psychological Capital	Constant	4,788	0,402		11,901	0,000	63,733	0,000	0,511
	Extraversion	0,186	0,036	0,266	5,137	0,000			
	Agreeableness	0,536	0,054	0,504	9,906	0,000			
	Conscientiousness	-0,404	0,052	-0,401	-7,795	0,000			
	Neuroticism	-0,342	0,051	-0,339	-6,718	0,000			
	Openness	-0,389	0,044	-0,439	-8,877	0,000			

As a result of multiple linear regression solution, it was mentioned that personality structures had a statistically significant effect on psychological capital ($F = 63,733$; $p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.511$). Accordingly, it has been determined that "Extraversion ($\beta = 0,186$)" and "Agreeableness ($\beta = 0,504$)" personality structures have a positive effect. In addition, "Conscientiousness ($\beta = -0,401$)", "Neuroticism ($\beta = -0,339$)" and "Openness ($\beta = -0,439$)" personality structures were determined to have a negative effect.

The results of regression analysis performed to examine the effect of employees' personality structures on work engagement are mentioned in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. The Effect of PS on WE

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	t	p	F	Model (p)	Adjusted R ²
		B	Std. Error						
WE	Constant	8,725	0,702	-	12,424	0,000	81,419	0,000	0,572
	Extraversion	0,255	0,063	0,197	4,048	0,000			
	Agreeableness	-0,074	0,094	-0,038	-0,789	0,431			
	Conscientiousness	0,202	0,090	0,108	2,235	0,026			
	Neuroticism	-1,152	0,088	-0,617	-13,02	0,000			

	Openness	-0,569	0,076	-0,345	-7,469	0,000			
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As a result of multiple linear regression solution, it was mentioned that personality structures had a statistically significant effect on work engagement ($F = 81,419$; $p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.572$). Accordingly, it has been determined that "Extraversion ($\beta = 0,197$)" and "Conscientiousness ($\beta = 0,108$)" personality structures have a positive effect. In addition, "Neuroticism ($\beta = -0,617$)" and "Openness ($\beta = -0,345$)" personality structures were determined to have a negative effect.

The results of regression analysis performed to examine the effect of employees' psychological capital levels on work engagement are mentioned in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. The Effect of Psychological Capital on Work Engagement

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	t	p	F	Model (p)	Adjusted R ²
		B	Std. Error						
Work Engagement	Constant	1,326	0,314	-	4,224	0,000	101,20	0,000	0,571
	Hope	0,289	0,087	0,172	3,336	0,001			
	Optimism	-0,538	0,080	-0,330	-6,705	0,000			
	Resilience	-0,838	0,123	-0,556	-6,795	0,000			
	Self-Efficiency	0,370	0,146	0,215	13,520	0,000			

As a result of the multiple linear regression analysis, it was mentioned that the "Psychological Capital" levels of white-collar employees had a statistically significant effect on work engagement ($F = 101,201$; $p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.571$). Accordingly, it was determined that "Hope ($\beta = 0,172$)" and "Self-Efficient ($\beta = 0,215$)" levels had a positive effect. "Optimism ($\beta = -0,330$)" and "Resilience ($\beta = -0,556$)" levels were determined to have a negative effect.

The results of regression analysis performed to examine the effect of white collar employees' personality structures and psychological capital levels on work engagement are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. The Effect of PS and PC on Work Engagement

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	t	p	F	Model (p)	Adjusted R ²
		B	Std. Error						
WE	Constant	7,310	0,672	-	10,870	0,000	119,65	0,000	0,780
	Extraversion	0,097	0,051	0,074	1,888	0,060			
	Agreeableness	-0,255	0,083	-0,129	-3,078	0,002			
	Conscientiousness	0,052	0,102	0,027	0,505	0,614			
	Neuroticism	-0,960	0,082	-0,514	-11,76	0,000			
	Openness	-0,409	0,082	-0,248	-4,987	0,000			
	Hope	0,362	0,081	0,216	4,482	0,000			
	Optimism	-0,563	0,066	-0,345	-8,588	0,000			
	Resilience	-0,261	0,169	-0,173	-1,546	0,123			
	Self-Efficiency	1,018	0,217	0,628	4,692	0,000			

As a result of multiple linear regression analysis, it was found that personality structures and psychological capital level had a statistically significant effect on work engagement ($F = 119,65$; $p < 0.05$; $R^2 = 0.780$). Accordingly, it has been determined that "Agreeableness ($\beta = -0,129$)", Neuroticism ($\beta = -0,514$)" and "Openness ($\beta = -0,248$)" personality structures were found to have a negative effect. It was mentioned that "Hope ($\beta = 0,216$)" and "Self-Efficient ($\beta = 0,628$)" levels had a positive effect. In addition, "Optimism ($\beta = -0,345$)" levels were found to have a negative effect.

4.3.3. Variance Analysis

The differences of the scores of the participants according to their introductory

characteristics are examined in this section.

4.3.3.1. Differentiation of Participants' Big Five Inventory Scale Scores According to Descriptive Features

t-test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the gender variable and is shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. Differentiation of the Scores for the Sub-Dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10 (Gender)

Sub Dimensions	Gender	N	X	sd	t	p
Extraversion	Female	143	3,69	1,02	-2,709	0,007
	Male	159	3,98	0,88		
Agreeableness	Female	143	3,30	0,58	-0,571	0,348
	Male	159	3,38	0,66		
Conscientiousness	Female	143	3,31	0,83	-1,295	0,227
	Male	159	3,25	0,38		
Neuroticism	Female	143	2,67	0,81	3,223	0,001
	Male	159	2,27	0,48		
Openness	Female	143	3,66	0,76	-3,528	0,000
	Male	159	3,97	0,72		

"Extraversion" subscale scores of male employees ($X = 3.98$) were higher than female employees ($X = 3.69$) ($t = -2.709$; $p < 0.05$).

"Neuroticism" subscale scores of male employees ($X = 2.27$) were found lower than female employees ($X = 2.67$) ($t = 3.223$; $p < 0.05$).

"Openness" subscale scores of male employees ($X = 3.97$) were higher than female employees ($X = 3.66$) ($t = -3.528$; $p < 0.05$).

It was mentioned that the values of the participants in the sub-scales "Agreeableness" and "Conscientiousness" did not differ by gender ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the age

variable and is shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. The Differentiation of the Scores from the Sub-Dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10 According to Age

Sub Scales	Age	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Extraversion	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,14	0,84	34,444	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	4,03	0,97			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,95	0,72			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	4,17	0,51			
Agreeableness	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,03	0,55	26,342	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	3,55	0,56			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,27	0,74			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	3,53	0,47			
Conscientiousness	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,64	0,84	1,766	0,154	
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	3,57	0,60			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,41	0,68			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	3,46	0,51			
Neuroticism	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,14	0,23	22,745	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	2,29	0,84			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	2,66	0,24			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	2,54	0,51			
Openness	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,07	0,63	20,923	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	3,75	0,84			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,82	0,48			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	3,80	0,51			

The "Extraversion" subscale scores of white collar employees ($X = 3.14$) between the ages of 18-25 were found lower than the white-collar workers who aged 26-33 years old ($X = 4.03$), 34-41 years old ($X = 3.95$) and 42 years old and over ($X = 4.17$) ($F = 34,444$; $p < 0.05$).

The "Agreeableness" subdimensions points of employees between the ages of 18-25 ($X = 3,03$) were found lower than the white-collar workers who aged 26-33 years old ($X = 3,55$), 34-41 years old ($X = 3,27$) and 42 years old and over ($X = 3,53$) ($F = 26,342$; $p < 0,05$).

The "Neuroticism" subdimensions points of white collar employees between the ages of 18-25 ($X = 3,14$) were found higher than the white-collar workers who aged 26-33 years

old (X=2,29), 34-41 years old (X=2,66) and 42 years old and over (X=2,54) (F=22,745; p<0,05).

The "Openness" subscale scores of white collar employees between the ages of 18-25 (X= 3,07) were found lower than the white-collar workers who aged 26-33 years old (X=3,55), 34-41 years old (X=3,27) and 42 years old and over (X=3,53) (F=26,342; p<0,05).

It was mentioned that the points of the participants taken from the "Conscientiousness" sub-dimension did not differ by age (p> 0.05).

t-test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the education variable and is shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. The Differentiation of Scores from the Sub-Dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10 Acc. to Education

Sub Dimensions	Education	N	X	sd	t	p
Extraversion	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,69	0,97	0,443	0,810
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,51	0,82		
Agreeableness	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	4,43	0,56	1,705	0,089
	Master's Degree and over	90	4,30	0,76		
Conscientiousness	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,55	0,74	-1,663	0,095
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,67	0,38		
Neuroticism	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	2,46	0,74	-1,639	0,111
	Master's Degree and over	90	2,56	0,37		
Openness	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,78	0,82	-1,579	0,115
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,93	0,55		

It was found that the scores of the participants from the sub-dimensions "Extraversion", "Agreeableness", "Conscientiousness", "Neuroticism" and "Openness" did not differ according to the education (p> 0.05).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the income variable and is shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. Differentiation of Scores from the Sub-Dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10 According to Income Status

Sub Dimensions	Income	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Extraversion	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,88	0,61	2,496	0,060	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,77	1,29			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,60	0,93			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	4,08	0,89			
Agreeableness	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,86	0,59	1,034	0,341	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,75	0,55			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,57	0,84			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	3,77	0,45			
Conscientiousness	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,76	0,46	1,249	0,247	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,59	0,82			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,68	0,65			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	3,75	0,44			
Neuroticism	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	2,58	0,82	1,483	0,164	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	2,49	0,75			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	2,71	0,25			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	2,52	0,34			
Openness	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,31	0,78	0,842	0,615	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,43	0,46			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,49	0,40			

It was determined that the scores of the participants from the sub-dimensions "Extraversion", "Agreeableness", "Conscientiousness", "Neuroticism" and "Openness" did not differ according to monthly income status ($p > 0.05$).

t-test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the marital status variable and is shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. The Differentiation of Scores from the Sub-Dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10 Acc. to the Marital Status

Sub Dimensions	Marital Status	N	X	sd	t	p
Extraversion	Married	121	3,78	1,25	-0,891	0,374
	Single	181	3,88	0,70		
Agreeableness	Married	121	3,85	0,46	1,598	0,090

	Single	181	3,75	0,70		
Conscientiousness	Married	121	3,50	0,75	-1,822	0,065
	Single	181	3,66	0,55		
Neuroticism	Married	121	2,50	0,65	-1,184	0,237
	Single	181	2,59	0,67		
Openness	Married	121	3,78	0,56	1,231	0,375
	Single	181	3,59	0,78		

It was found that the points of the participants from the subscales "Extraversion", "Agreeableness", "Conscientiousness", "Neuroticism" and "Openness" did not differ according to the marital status ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the working time in the company variable and is shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. The Differentiation of the Scores from the Sub-Dimensions of Big Five Inventory-10 According to the Working Time in the Company

Sub Dimensions	Working Time At Company	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Extraversion	0-1 year	82	3,52	0,83	0,912	0,447	
	2-4 years	115	3,69	1,00			
	5-8 years	73	3,71	0,97			
	9-12 years	32	3,42	0,66			
Agreeableness	0-1 year	82	4,30	0,51	0,768	0,513	
	2-4 years	115	4,45	0,71			
	5-8 years	73	4,31	0,50			
	9-12 years	32	4,27	0,75			
Conscientiousness	0-1 year	82	3,36	0,75	1,378	0,258	
	2-4 years	115	3,49	0,41			
	5-8 years	73	3,33	0,65			
	9-12 years	32	3,22	0,50			
Neuroticism	0-1 year	82	2,55	0,76	1,874	0,168	
	2-4 years	115	2,65	0,73			
	5-8 years	73	2,76	0,43			
	9-12 years	32	2,78	0,25			
Openness	0-1 year	82	3,43	0,63	1,474	0,315	
	2-4 years	115	3,55	0,89			
	5-8 years	73	3,59	0,64			

	9-12 years	32	3,58	0,20			
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It was found that the points of the participants from the subscales "Extraversion", "Agreeableness", "Conscientiousness", "Neuroticism" and "Openness" did not differ according to the working time in the company ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Big Five Inventory-10 Scale differ according to the working time at the sector variable and is shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17. Differentiation of Scores from Big Five Inventory-10's Sub-Dimensions Acc. to Working Time in the Sector

Sub Dimensions	Working Time At Sector	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Extraversion	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	3,82	0,94	0,965	0,440	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,85	0,93			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,52	1,01			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,60	0,83			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	4,46	0,68			
Agreeableness	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	3,58	0,60	0,777	0,508	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,57	0,45			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,39	0,71			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,50	0,63			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	3,69	0,66			
Conscientiousness	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	3,57	0,72	1,365	0,268	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,63	0,54			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,40	0,72			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,46	0,69			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	3,40	0,58			
Neuroticism	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	2,60	0,81	1,898	0,111	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	2,39	0,83			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	2,65	0,67			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	2,58	0,27			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	2,64	0,37			
Openness	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	3,42	0,89	1,454	0,127	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,39	0,84			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,46	0,70			

	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,63	0,41			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	3,53	0,41			

It was found that the points of participants from the subscales "Extraversion", "Agreeableness", "Conscientiousness", "Neuroticism" and "Openness" did not differ according to the working time in the sector ($p > 0.05$).

4.3.3.2. Differentiation of Participants' Psychological Capital Scale Scores According to Descriptive Features

t-test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the gender variable and is shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. Differentiation of the Scores from the Psychological Capital Scale Sub-Dimensions According to Gender

Sub Dimensions	Gender	N	X	sd	t	p
Hope	Female	143	3,95	0,78	-2,054	0,041
	Male	159	4,13	0,69		
Optimism	Female	143	4,17	0,50	7,134	0,000
	Male	159	3,89	0,85		
Resilience	Female	143	4,05	0,58	3,726	0,000
	Male	159	3,85	0,96		
Self-Efficiency	Female	143	4,03	0,57	0,987	0,547
	Male	159	3,99	0,90		

"Hope"s scores of male employees ($X = 4.13$) were higher than female employees ($X = 3.95$) ($t = -2.054$; $p < 0.05$).

"Optimism"s scores of female employees ($X = 4.17$) were found higher than male employees ($X = 3.89$) ($t = 7.143$; $p < 0.05$).

"Resilience"s scores of female employees ($X = 4.05$) were higher than male employees ($X = 3.85$) ($t = 3.726$; $p < 0.05$).

It was determined that the scores taken from the "Self-efficiency" sub-dimension did not

differ according to gender.

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the age variable and is shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. The Differentiation of the Scores from the Psychological Capital Scale Sub-Dimensions Acc. to Age

Sub Dimensions	Age	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Hope	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,76	0,56	1,652	0,112	
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	4,13	0,75			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,79	0,67			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	3,95	0,68			
Optimism	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,56	0,15	19,680	0,000	4-1 4-2 4-3
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	3,66	0,65			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,76	0,94			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	4,02	0,34			
Resilience	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,80	0,40	15,201	0,000	2-1 2-3 2-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	4,12	0,81			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,65	0,93			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	3,80	0,51			
Self-Efficiency	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	3,76	0,44	22,579	0,000	2-1 2-3 2-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	4,01	0,64			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	3,75	0,85			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	3,85	0,68			

In the study, the scores of employees aged 42 and over ($X = 4.02$) from the sub-dimension of "Optimism" were found higher than employees aged between 18-25 years ($X = 3.56$), 26-33 years ($X = 3.66$), 34-41 years ($X=3.76$).

In the study, the scores of employees aged between 26-33 years ($X = 4.12$) from the sub-dimension of "Resilience" were found higher than employees aged between 18-25 years ($X = 3.80$), 34-41 years ($X = 3.65$) and 42 years and over ($X=3.80$).

In the study, the scores of employees aged between 26-33 years ($X = 4.01$) from the sub-dimension of "Self-Efficiency" were found higher than employees aged between 18-25 years ($X = 3.80$), 34-41 years ($X = 3.75$) and 42 years and over ($X=3.85$).

It was found that the scores taken from the "Hope" did not differ according to age ($p > 0.05$).

t- test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the education variable and is shown in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20. Differentiation of Scores from Psychological Capital Scale's Sub-Dimensions According to Educational Status

Sub Dimensions	Education	N	X	sd	t	p
Hope	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,85	0,68	1,954	0,051
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,79	0,82		
Optimism	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,89	0,63	1,678	0,111
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,76	0,94		
Resilience	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,36	0,53	1,684	0,090
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,20	0,82		
Self-Efficiency	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	3,57	0,54	1,021	0,212
	Master's Degree and over	90	3,47	0,86		

It was determined that the points taken from the sub-dimensions of the Psychological Capital Scale did not differ according to the education ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the income variable and is shown in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21. Differentiation of the Scores from the Psychological Capital Scale Sub-Dimensions According to Income Status

Sub Dimensions	Income	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Hope	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,10	0,40	5,134	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,65	0,69			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,59	0,88			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	3,68	0,46			
Optimism	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,18	0,48	3,694	0,004	1-2 1-3 1-4
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,52	0,58			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,54	1,27			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	3,66	0,61			

Resilience	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,32	0,88	1,375	0,258	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,25	0,36			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,44	1,27			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	3,58	0,40			
Self-Efficiency	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	3,35	0,72	4,471	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	3,58	0,55			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	3,61	1,15			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	3,98	0,46			

It was found that the employees with monthly income between 2000-3500 TL ($X = 3.10$) were lower than those in the other income group ($F = 5,134$; $p < 0.05$).

It was found that the employees with monthly income between 2000-3500 TL ($X = 3.18$) were lower than the employees in the other income group ($F = 3.694$; $p < 0.05$).

It was found that the employees with monthly income between 2000-3500 TL ($X = 3.35$) were lower than the employees in the other income group ($F = 4.471$; $p < 0.05$).

t- test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the marital status variable and is shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22. Differentiation of the Scores from the Psychological Capital Scale Sub-Dimensions According to the Marital Status

Sub Dimensions	Marital Status	N	X	sd	t	p
Hope	Married	121	3,85	0,67	-3,916	0,000
	Single	181	4,18	0,76		
Optimism	Married	121	4,13	0,47	5,241	0,000
	Single	181	3,68	0,86		
Resilience	Married	121	4,07	0,58	2,794	0,006
	Single	181	3,71	0,94		
Self-Efficiency	Married	121	4,08	0,43	2,890	0,004
	Single	181	3,75	0,91		

It was found that the scores of single white collar employees ($X = 4.18$) from the "Hope" sub-dimension were higher than the married ones ($X = 3.85$) ($t = -3.916$; $p < 0.05$).

It was found that the points of single white collar employees ($X = 3.68$) from the "Optimism" sub-dimension were lower than the married ones ($X = 4.13$) ($t = 5.224$; p

<0.05).

It was determined that the points of single white collar employees ($X = 3.71$) from the "Resilience" sub-dimension were lower than the married ones ($X = 4.07$) ($t = 2.794$; $p < 0.05$).

It was determined that the points of single white collar employees ($X = 3.75$) from the "Self-Efficiency" subscale were lower than the married ones ($X = 4.08$) ($t = 2.890$; $p < 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the working time at the company variable and is shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23. The Differentiation of the Scores from the Psychological Capital Scale Sub-Dimensions According to the Working Time At The Company

Sub Dimensions	Working Time At Company	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Hope	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	3,96	0,70	1,407	0,299	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	3,89	0,84			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	3,95	0,67			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	4,02	0,28			
Optimism	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	4,24	0,62	1,891	0,131	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	4,09	1,01			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	4,27	0,56			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	3,97	0,18			
Resilience	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	3,79	0,77	2,015	0,091	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	4,01	0,96			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	3,86	0,73			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	3,89	0,23			
Self-Efficiency	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	3,60	0,61	2,595	0,064	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	3,56	1,01			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	3,81	0,56			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	3,68	0,24			

It was found that the points taken from the subscales of Psychological Capital Scale did not differ according to the working time in the company ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of

participants received from the Psychological Capital Scale differ according to the working time at the sector variable and is shown in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24. The Differentiation of the Scores from the Psychological Capital Scale Sub-Dimensions According to the Working Time At The Sector

Sub Dimensions	Working Time At Sector	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Hope	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	3,92	0,67	5,921	0,001	1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,61	0,98			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,60	0,48			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,78	0,54			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	3,70	0,50			
Optimism	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	4,18	0,49	2,133	0,061	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	4,04	0,67			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,84	0,99			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,94	0,86			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	4,07	0,56			
Resilience	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	4,01	0,46	7,678	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,71	0,85			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,64	1,01			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,64	0,82			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	3,53	0,46			
Self-Efficiency	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	4,07	0,44	6,878	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	3,84	0,78			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	3,79	0,98			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	3,72	0,69			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	3,73	0,53			

It was found that the scores of employees working in the sector between 0-1 years ($X = 4,22$) from the "Hope" sub-dimension were higher than the others ($F = 5,921$; $p < 0,05$).

It was found that the scores of the employees working in the sector between 0-1 years ($X = 4,01$) from the "Resilience" sub-dimension were higher than the others ($F = 7,678$; $p < 0,05$).

It was found that the scores of employees working in the sector between 0-1 years ($X = 4,07$) were higher than others ($F = 6,878$; $p < 0,05$).

It was found that the scores obtained from the sub-dimension "Optimism" did not differ according to the working time in the sector ($p > 0.05$).

4.3.3.3. Differentiation of Participants' Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Scores According to Descriptive Features

t- test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the gender variable and is shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25. Differentiation of the Scores from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Sub-Dimensions Acc.to Gender

Sub Dimensions	Gender	N	X	sd	t	p
Vigor	Female	143	4,89	1,46	0,951	0,342
	Male	159	4,76	0,91		
Dedication	Female	143	5,18	1,68	-1,638	0,102
	Male	159	5,44	1,03		
Absorption	Female	143	4,66	1,44	-1,405	0,161
	Male	159	4,90	1,47		

It was found that the points taken from the sub-dimensions of "Work Engagement Scale" did not differ according to gender ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the age variable and is shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26. Differentiation of the Scores from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Sub-Dimensions According to Age

Sub Dimensions	Age	N	X	SD	F	p	Difference
Vigor	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	4,52	1,03	8,393	0,000	2-1 2-3 2-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	5,19	1,33			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	4,57	0,50			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	4,37	1,86			
Dedication	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	5,29	1,28	27,688	0,000	2-1

	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	5,97	1,23			2-3 2-4
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	4,75	0,54			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	4,77	2,37			
Absorption	18-25 years ⁽¹⁾	42	4,59	0,83	6,015	0,001	2-1 2-3 2-4
	26-33 years ⁽²⁾	136	5,12	1,56			
	34-41 years ⁽³⁾	96	4,72	0,98			
	42 years and older ⁽⁴⁾	28	4,67	2,37			

It was found that the employees ($X = 5.19$) between the ages of 26-33 were more than the other age groups ($F = 8,393$; $p < 0.05$).

It was found that the employees ($X = 5.97$) between the ages of 26-33 received more scores from the "Dedication" sub-dimension than the other age groups ($F = 27,688$; $p < 0.05$).

It has been found that the employees ($X = 5.12$) between the ages of 26-33 have higher scores in the "Absorption" sub-dimension than the other age groups ($F = 6,015$; $p < 0.05$).

t- test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the education variable and is shown in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27. The Differentiation of Scores from the Sub-Dimensions of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale According to Educational Status

Sub Dimensions	Education	N	X	sd	t	p
Vigor	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	5,01	1,17	1,357	0,235
	Master's Degree and over	90	4,87	1,15		
Dedication	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	5,36	1,23	1,100	0,333
	Master's Degree and over	90	4,91	1,40		
Absorption	Associate or Bachelor's Degree	212	5,07	1,40	1,530	0,111
	Master's Degree and over	90	4,81	1,37		

It was found that the scores taken from the sub-dimensions of "Work Engagement Scale" did not differ according to the education ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the

income variable and is shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28. Differentiation Status of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Scores According to Income Status

Sub Dimensions	Income	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Vigor	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	4,28	1,12	2,185	0,089	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	4,59	1,40			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	4,36	0,28			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	4,55	1,36			
Dedication	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	5,12	0,78	2,177	0,088	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	4,89	1,53			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	4,71	0,59			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	4,74	1,68			
Absorption	2000-3500 TL ⁽¹⁾	107	5,01	1,41	2,187	0,090	
	3501-5000 TL ⁽²⁾	85	4,82	1,42			
	5001-8000 TL ⁽³⁾	50	4,69	1,33			
	8001 TL and over ⁽⁴⁾	60	4,42	1,64			

It was determined that the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions of "Work Engagement Scale" did not differ according to monthly income status ($p > 0.05$).

t- test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the marital status variable and is shown in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29. Differentiation of the Scores from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Sub-Dimensions According to the Marital Status

Sub Dimensions	Marital Status	N	X	sd	t	p
Vigor	Married	121	4,76	1,25	-0,745	0,457
	Single	181	4,87	1,17		
Dedication	Married	121	5,06	1,24	-2,710	0,007
	Single	181	5,49	1,45		
Absorption	Married	121	4,36	1,62	-4,265	0,000
	Single	181	5,07	1,26		

In the study, "Dedication" subscale scores of single white collar workers ($X = 5,49$) were found higher than married employees ($X = 5,06$) ($t = -2,710$; $p < 0.05$).

The "Absorption" subscale scores of single white collar workers ($X = 5.07$) were found higher than married employees ($X = 4.36$) ($t = -4.265$; $p < 0.05$).

It was found that the points taken from the sub-dimension "Vigor" did not differ according to the marital status ($p > 0.05$).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the working time at the company variable and is shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30. Differentiation of the Scores from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale's Sub-Dimensions According to the Working Time At the Company

Sub Dimensions	Working Time At Company	N	X	sd	F	p	Difference
Vigor	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	4,98	1,24	9,002	0,000	1-3
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	5,14	1,17			1-4
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	4,31	1,23			2-3
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	4,48	0,55			2-4
Dedication	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	5,68	1,30	15,051	0,000	1-3
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	5,68	1,13			1-4
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	4,59	1,68			2-3
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	4,74	0,65			2-4
Absorption	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	82	5,18	1,27	10,960	0,000	1-3
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	115	5,08	1,47			1-4
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	73	4,13	1,52			2-3
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	32	4,23	1,00			2-4

The scores received by the white collar employees working in the firm for 0-1 years ($X = 4.98$) and 2-4 years ($X = 5.14$) from the "Vigor" sub-dimension has been determined to be higher than employees who have worked for 5-8 years ($X = 4.48$) 9-12 years ($X = 4.48$) ($F = 9.002$; $p < 0.05$).

The scores received by the white collar employees working in the firm for 0-1 years ($X = 5,68$) and 2-4 years ($X = 5,68$)) from the "Dedication" sub-dimension has been determined to be higher than employees who have worked for 5-8 years ($X = 4,59$) 9-12 years ($X = 4,74$) ($F = 9.002$; $p < 0.05$).

The scores received by the white collar employees working in the firm for 0-1 years (X

= 5,18) and 2-4 years (X = 5,08) from the "Dedication" sub-dimension has been determined to be higher than employees who have worked for 5-8 years (X = 4,13) 9-12 years (X = 4,23) (F = 9.002; p < 0.05).

One-way analysis of variance test was performed to check whether the scores of participants received from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale differ according to the working time at the sector variable and is shown in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31. Differentiation of the Scores from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale's Sub-Dimensions According to the Working Time At the Sector

Sub Dimensions	Working Time At Sector	N	X	ss	F	p	Difference
Vigor	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	4,81	1,28	1,998	0,111	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	4,90	1,23			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	4,65	1,19			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	4,61	0,78			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	4,60	1,31			
Dedication	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	5,29	1,28	8,772	0,000	1-2 1-3 1-4 1-5
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	4,96	0,98			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	4,93	1,37			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	4,77	0,96			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	4,73	1,64			
Absorption	0-1 year ⁽¹⁾	50	4,29	1,46	1,550	0,201	
	2-4 years ⁽²⁾	89	4,65	1,07			
	5-8 years ⁽³⁾	65	4,47	1,37			
	9-12 years ⁽⁴⁾	56	4,51	1,26			
	13 years and more ⁽⁵⁾	42	4,55	1,60			

It was found that the employees working in the sector for 0-1 years (X = 5.29) have higher scores than the other groups (F = 8.772; p < 0.05).

It was found that the scores taken from the sub-dimensions "Vigor" and "Absorption" did not differ according to the working time in the sector (p > 0.05).

The results of the tests performed for the determination of the differentiation status of the scores received by the white-collar employees from the scales according to their introductory characteristics are presented in Table 4.32.

Tablo 4.32. The Results Of the Tests Performed For The Determination Of The Differentiation Status Of The Scores

Sub-dimensions	Variables	Diffirence	t / F	Sig.
Extraversion	Gender	Male>Female	-2,709	p<0,05
	Age	18-25 years<26-33 years 18-25 years<34-41 years 18-25 years<42 years and older	34,444	p<0,05
	Education	-	0,443	p>0,05
	Income	-	0,060	p>0,05
	Maritual Status	-	-0,891	p>0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	0,912	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	0,965	p>0,05
Agreeableness	Gender	-	-0,571	p>0,05
	Age	18-25 years<26-33 years 18-25 years<34-41 years 18-25 years<42 years and older	26,342	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,705	p>0,05
	Income	-	0,341	p>0,05
	Maritual Status	-	1,598	p>0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	0,768	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	0,777	p>0,05
Conscientiousness	Gender	-	-1,295	p>0,05
	Age	-	1,766	p>0,05
	Education	-	-1,663	p>0,05
	Income	-	0,247	p>0,05
	Maritual Status	-	-1,822	p>0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	1,378	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	1,365	p>0,05
Neuroticism	Gender	Female>Male	3,223	p<0,05
	Age	18-25 years<26-33 years 18-25 years<34-41 years 18-25 years<42 years and older	22,745	p<0,05
	Education	-	-1,639	p>0,05
	Income	-	0,164	p>0,05
	Maritual Status	-	-1,184	p>0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	1,874	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	1,898	p>0,05
Openness	Gender	Male>Female	-3,528	p<0,05
	Age	18-25 years<26-33 years 18-25 years<34-41 years 18-25 years<42 years and older	20,923	p<0,05
	Education	-	-1,579	p>0,05
	Income	-	0,615	p>0,05
	Maritual Status	-	1,231	p>0,05

	Working Time At Company	-	1,474	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	1,454	p>0,05
Hope	Gender	Male>Female	-2,054	p<0,05
	Age	-	1,652	p>0,05
	Education	-	1,954	p>0,05
	Income	2000-3500 TL<3501-5000 TL 2000-3500 TL<5001-8000 TL 2000-3500 TL<8001 TL and over	5,134	p<0,05
	Marital Status	Married<Single	-3,916	p<0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	1,407	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	0-1 year>2-4 years 0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 0-1 year>13 years and more	5,921	P<0,05
Optimism	Gender	Female>Male	7,134	p<0,05
	Age	42 years and older>18-25 years 42 years and older>26-33 years 42 years and older >34-41 years	19,680	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,678	p>0,05
	Income	2000-3500 TL<3501-5000 TL 2000-3500 TL<5001-8000 TL 2000-3500 TL<8001 TL and over	3,964	p<0,05
	Marital Status	Married<Single	5,241	p<0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	1,891	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	2,133	p>0,05
Resilience	Gender	Female>Male	3,726	p<0,05
	Age	26-33 years>18-25 years 26-33 years>34-41 years 26-33 years>42 years and older	15,201	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,684	p>0,05
	Income	-	1,375	p>0,05
	Marital Status	Married<Single	2,794	p<0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	2,015	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	0-1 year>2-4 years 0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 0-1 year>13 years and more	7,678	P<0,05
Self-Efficiency	Gender	-	0,987	p>0,05
	Age	26-33 years>18-25 years 26-33 years>34-41 years 26-33 years>42 years and older	22,579	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,202	p>0,05
	Income	2000-3500 TL<3501-5000 TL 2000-3500 TL<5001-8000 TL 2000-3500 TL<8001 TL and over	4,471	p<0,05

	Marital Status	Married<Single	2,890	p<0,05
	Working Time At Company	-	2,595	p>0,05
	Working Time At Sector	0-1 year>2-4 years 0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 0-1 year>13 years and more	6,878	P<0,05
Vigor	Gender	-	0,951	p>0,05
	Age	26-33 years>18-25 years 26-33 years>34-41 years 26-33 years>42 years and older	8,393	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,357	p>0,05
	Income	-	2,185	p>0,05
	Marital Status	-	-0,745	p>0,05
	Working Time At Company	0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 2-4 years>5-8 years 2-4 years>9-12 years	9,002	p<0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	1,998	p>0,05
Dedication	Gender	-	-1,638	p>0,05
	Age	26-33 years>18-25 years 26-33 years>34-41 years 26-33 years>42 years and older	27,688	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,100	p>0,05
	Income	-	2,177	p>0,05
	Marital Status	Single>Married	-2,710	p<0,05
	Working Time At Company	0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 2-4 years>5-8 years 2-4 years>9-12 years	15,051	p<0,05
	Working Time At Sector	0-1 year>2-4 years 0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 0-1 years>13 years and more	8,772	p<0,05
Absorption	Gender	-	-1,405	p>0,05
	Age	26-33 years>18-25 years 26-33 years>34-41 years 26-33 years>42 years and older	6,015	p<0,05
	Education	-	1,530	p>0,05
	Income	-	2,187	p>0,05
	Marital Status	Single>Married	-4,265	p<0,05
	Working Time At Company	0-1 year>5-8 years 0-1 year>9-12 years 2-4 years>5-8 years 2-4 years>9-12 years	10,960	p<0,05
	Working Time At Sector	-	1,550	p>0,05

5. FINDINGS

5.1 DISCUSSION

In businesses operating in today's business world, human resources are not only an element of trading, but also assets and investments that are important and necessary for the business to be managed efficiently in order to achieve sustainable competitive advantages among competitors (Luthans and Youssef, 2004). Luthans (2002) drew attention to the need to emphasize the strengths of people and businesses and to emphasize their importance by supporting them with scientific research. In addition to this view, he advocated the importance of proactive and positive approaches.

Psychological capital has a positive effect on sustainable competition. It is expected that the positive effects of psychological capital will reduce the negative effects by decreasing the costs in the organization. In today's constantly changing business world, human resources are a necessity, but they are accompanied by different management philosophies and methods. Human resources play a central role in the success of almost all businesses and require careful and effective analysis.

There are various factors that affect the level of work engagement that individuals have in their business life. It was foreseen that the personality structures of employees could be one of these factors and in addition, it was assumed that the psychological capital levels of individuals might have an impact on work engagement. Accordingly, research was conducted on white-collar employees in private companies that carry out e-commerce activities in Istanbul. 52.6% of the white collar employees participating in the study are male, 45.0% are between 26-33 years old, 70.2% are associate / undergraduate graduates, and 35.4% of their monthly income is between 2000-3500 TL. 59.9% are single. It has been determined that 38.1% of white-collar employees in e-commerce

companies have been working in their current company for 2-4 years and 29.5% have been working in the industry for 2-4 years.

It has been found that the employees participating in the research are extravert, harmonious, honest and open and not neurotic. In addition, it has been concluded that white-collar employees are hopeful and optimistic, and also have resilience and self-efficiency. An investigation was also made regarding the work engagement levels of the participants. Accordingly, it was determined that the white-collar participants who participated in the study were often vigorous, very often devoted to work and often lost themselves to work.

In the research, the relationship between the personality structures of employees and their psychological capital levels was examined. Accordingly, positive and weak relationships were determined between extraversion and hopefulness, optimism, resilience and feeling of self-efficacy. In the study, a weak or moderate and positive correlation was found between agreeableness personality structures of white collar employees and their hopeful, optimistic, resilience and self-efficiency. There was no significant relationship between the conscientiousness personality structures of white-collar employees and their hopeful, optimistic and resilience. A negative and weak or moderate relationship was found between the neurotic personality structures of the employees and their hopefulness, optimism, resilience and self-efficiency. Finally, there was no statistically significant relationship between the employees' openness attitudes and their hopefulness, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy. Many studies conducted in this direction have found that there is a strong relationship between psychological capital and personality traits (Diener et al, 1999). It is accepted that there is a strong relationship between psychological capital and personality traits and subjective well-being (DeNeve and Cooper, 1998). On the other hand, there are some studies suggesting that some sub-dimensions of personality traits have more effect on psychological capital. When the relationship between psychological capital and personality traits is examined, it is seen that most of the studies are on positive psychology and extraversion and neuroticism dimensions of personality traits (Diener et

al., 2003: 408). The relationship between extroversion and psychological capital of individuals has been the subject of many studies (Lucas and Fujita, 2000). Theresa and Vijayabanu (2014) drew attention to the existence of a positive relationship between extraversion and psychological capital.

Taken together and evaluated, the above-mentioned statistical findings reveal significant effects in terms of developing and improving working life qualifications. Organizations should not only develop an organizational structure and future, but also concentrate on uncovering positive personality traits and healthy psychological capital systems. This will be possible by creating an understandable organizational culture, simple business formalities and giving them the chance to be hopeful and optimistic about the future.

As a result of multiple linear regression solution, it was mentioned that personality structures had a statistically significant effect on psychological capital. Accordingly, it has been determined that "Extraversion" and "Agreeableness" personality structures have a positive effect and "Conscientiousness", "Neuroticism" and "Openness" personality structures were determined to have a negative effect on psychological capital. Positive personality traits are generally associated with psychological capital, and the relationship between these variables has been tried to be analyzed by looking at the previous findings and by different studies of the previously mentioned authors. Luthans et al. (2008) stated that personality is more consistent than psychological capital and therefore psychological capital can be easily managed and developed. Brandt et al. (2011) talked about the connections between personality and psychological capital with their positive aspects and emphasized that "certain personality types are naturally more optimistic, durable, hopeful and effective in their cultural frameworks". Psychological capital has many positive effects on people's personalities, and undoubtedly positive aspects will affect satisfaction, loyalty, motivation and performance. Luthans et al. (2005) pointed out in their research that the positive states of individuals, especially employees, such as hope, resilience and optimism are positively related to their performance in the workplace. In the study of Cho

and Lee (2014), it is emphasized that there is a relationship between the psychological capital and motivations, performances, intentions of job change, personal well-being and professional happiness of the employees under the control of five great personality traits. Psychologically positive people can also develop their own positive aspects in their personalities, and positive people also have positive contacts with other members of the organization or individuals who exist in their environment, such as customers. This brings customer satisfaction and competitive advantage.

Statistically significant results were obtained in the investigation of factors affecting the work engagement levels of white collar employees, which are among the main objectives of the research. Accordingly, as a result of multiple linear regression analysis, it has been determined that personality structures have a statistically significant effect on work engagement. In addition, it has been determined that "Extraversion" and "Conscientiousness" personality structures have a positive effect and "Neuroticism" and "Openness" personality structures have a negative effect. In the literature, Akhtar et al. (2015) found a significant relationship between five-factor personality traits and work engagement. In this direction, positive and significant relationships were found between basic personality traits such as extroversion and responsibility and work engagement. In the same study, significant relationships were found between personal characteristics such as emotional intelligence, interpersonal sensitivity and ambition and work engagement. Similar to these findings, Inceoglu and Warr (2011) found a positive relationship between extraversion, responsibility and emotional stability and work engagement. Schaufeli, (2012) revealed a significant relationship between personality traits and work engagement. Zaidi et al. (2013) revealed a negative relationship between neuroticism and work engagement. These findings show that work engagement differs according to personality traits. Accordingly, it is possible to say that personality traits are an important factor affecting work engagement.

Similarly, as a result of multiple linear regression analysis, it has been determined that "Psychological Capital" levels of white collar employees have a statistically significant

effect on work engagement. Accordingly, it was determined that the employees' hopefulness and self-efficacy had a positive effect, and the optimism and resilience of the employees had a negative effect. According to the study of Sweerman and Luthans (2010), there is a direct relationship between the components of the employment contract and individuals' perceptions of psychological capital. Accordingly, it can be stated that there is a relationship between the concepts of work engagement and psychological capital. Again, Sweerman and Luthans (2010) stated that more resources will increase the capacity of the employees and improve the participation of the employees. Based on this, it can be stated that approaches such as flexibility, hope, self-efficacy and optimism contribute to employee participation. It can also be stated that psychological capital is an important indicator of participation in work. As Avey et al (2011) suggested, "having a high level of psychological capital enables to organizational actors to target high goals (hope), to provide self-confidence about their success (efficacy), think positively (optimism), and are more resistant to deal with problems (resilience)". Such processes play an active role in employee participation (Lorente et al., 2014).

In the study, it was determined that male employees are more extroverted than women, men are less neurotic than women and behave more openly than women. In addition, white-collar workers between the ages of 18-25 were found to be less extroverted, less compatible, more neurotic, less open than other age groups. It was found that the personality structures of the employees participating in the research did not differ according to their educational status, monthly income status, marital status and working time at the sector.

It was determined that male employees are more hopeful and more optimistic than female employees, and women's durability is higher than male. Also, it has been determined that white-collar employees older than 42 are more optimistic, and employees between the ages of 26-33 feel more durable and more adequate. It has been found that employees, who have an income of 2000-3500 TL from the participants, are less hopeful, less

optimistic and less self-sufficient than those in other income groups. In the study, it was found that employees who were single were more hopeful about work life compared to married ones, but had less optimism, less resilience and less self-efficacy. In addition to these, it has been determined that white-collar employees have been more hopeful, more durable and more self-sufficient since 0-1 years in the sector. It has been determined that the psychological capital levels of the participants do not differ according to their education level and working time in the company.

In the study, it was investigated that the differences of work engagement attitudes according to descriptive characteristics of employees. Accordingly, it has been found that employees between the ages of 26-33 are more vigor than other age groups, are more committed to their jobs and more concentrated. However, it has been determined that single-collar white-collar employees are more dedicated and concentrated on their work. In addition, it has been determined that white-collar employees who work in the company for 0-1 years and 2-4 years are more dedicated, more vigor and more concentrated in their jobs than other groups. It was determined that the level of work engagement did not differ according to the education level, gender and monthly income level of employees.

In today's world, organizations should realize that the human is an important factor that prepares them for the future in a strong competitive environment. Individuals need to be aware of and know their personal characteristics in order to be able to make the right decision, improve their personal relationships and beind in harmony with their environment. On the other hand, the harmony between individuals' organizational goals is necessary and important in achieving personal and organizational goals.

5.2 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION

Since the variables mentioned under the positive psychology trend are examined by considering them as double or triple dimensions in different structures. This study aimed to contribute in describing what or what causes work engagement, how the different personality traits as well as individual's psychological capital may affect this engagement in upcoming field as e-commerce sector. Additionally, it contributes in understanding the direction and severity of the relation between individuals' structure and psychological capital. The rapidly changing environment facing today's organizations, demand to have better understanding to current culture and the changes needed for different management approaches, where some important points should be kept in mind and taken into consideration for future works.

The development and testing of a more integrative, multivariate model will be helpful to our understanding of the role of personality in predicting and explaining the personality-work engagement relationship. Further, it is important for organizational researchers to continue to move beyond the personality traits to the facet level or to more narrow traits. For example, Conscientiousness has been found to be a complex trait as it has two different facets (dutifulness and achievement striving) playing differential roles in explaining work attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Moon, 2001).

Further studies are also suggested to cover the theory of organizational citizenship behavior, including personal characteristics as well as other intermediate factors such as culture.

5.3 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Positivity in the workplace has been recognized in the field of organizational behavior (OB) since its very beginning and present in the works of its founding fathers such as Abraham Maslow and Douglas McGregor.

However, current economic conditions and a rapidly changing environment facing today's organizations demand an even stronger emphasis on a positive approach in managing and developing human resources. The context in which positivity research is now taking place refers to a highly competitive business environment characterized by globalization and technological advances; changing expectations of employers (e.g. organizational citizenship behavior vs. in-role performance) and employees (flexible work settings, professional development, personal growth, work-life balance and alternative career paths vs. employment based on seniority security).

Since its inception a decade ago Psychological capital (PsyCap) has become a mainstream subject in the field of organizational behavior and supported with many studies that implied the strong Implications for work-related attitudes and behaviors, as well as performance outcomes going beyond human and social capital, PsyCap has also been identified as a source of sustained competitive advantage in today's turbulent global environment.

Fred Luthans and colleagues (Luthans, Youssef, Avolio, 2007) propose that such an advantage can only be accomplished through investing, developing and managing psychological capital. Hence, investigating what organizations can do in order to develop and manage employee psychological capital, the authors propose the following two mechanisms: a) psychological capital training interventions, and b) authentic leadership development.

I. Psychological Capital Training Interventions

Unlike personality traits – which are fixed, and other established positive trait-like constructs connected to performance outcomes, psychological capital is state-like which means open and malleable to change.

PsyCap is developed through brief (up to three hours) and highly focused micro interventions, based on exercises and group discussions designed to impact the participants' level of hope, optimism, resilience and efficacy. This psychological capital intervention (PCI) model initially proposed and tested by Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman and Combs (2006) has been demonstrated to significantly increase (around 2%) the level of individual psychological capital.

On-line PsyCap training has also been a subject of interest among researchers in the field of positive organizational behavior. More specifically, web-based training interventions have been proposed as an operationalization of the PCI model that minimizes the time and costs connected to its implementation (Luthans, Avey and Patera, 2008).

▪ AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Initial conceptual framework of authentic leadership suggests that authentic leadership can be developed (Avolio and Luthans, 2006; Luthans and Avolio, 2003). Positive psychological capacities combined with a positive organizational context and certain trigger events lead to positive self-development (self-awareness and self-regulation behaviors) and the product of the authentic leader. The key mechanisms through which such effects are accomplished are: modeling of positive values, psychological states and behaviors or “leading by example” (Gardner et al., 2005), positive contagion effects (Fredrickson, 2001) and, finally, the creation of positive and ethical organizational context characterized by open and honest interactions and leaders who are supportive of their employees' personal and professional development.

In conclusion, Measurable and open to organizational leadership and human resource development, psychological capital can be significantly enhanced through the following two mechanisms elaborated in the paper: authentic leadership development (ALD) and psychological capital interventions (PCI). More specifically, individual levels of PsyCap can be developed relatively easily, in short training programs resulting in high return on investment, which can be of great relevance to organizations with limited time and financial resources.

PERSONALITY

Personality is certainly one of the key ingredients in determining engagement in workplace. According to Spector (2011), “personality has the potential to affect the counterproductive work behavior process at every step. It can affect people’s perceptions and appraisal of the environment, their attributions for causes of events, their emotional responses, and their ability to inhibit aggressive and counterproductive impulses”. Prior research has consistently shown that high levels of Conscientiousness and Agreeableness may lower individuals’ propensity to engage in workplace deviance.

As per the findings in prior researches and what found in this research, suggestion that Agreeableness be considered in addition to Conscientiousness in employment decision making wherever commitment, compliance, and cooperation are critical to organizational functioning. Mount, Barrick, and Stewart (1998) advanced this suggestion a decade ago, but Agreeableness has not received its due attention in the literature and in the practice of personnel selection; this is partly due to not further distinguishing sub-dimensions of performance. Agreeableness and Conscientiousness are crucial factors in integrity testing often used in the selection process and are also key to determining who may take part in deviant behavior.

To limit workplace deviance, it is important for organizations to screen for those personality traits to attempt to avoid hiring those predisposed to engage in deviant behavior



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APPENDIX

-Survey-

1-What is your gender?

Female Male

2- What is your age?

18-25 years 26-33 years 34-41 years 42 years and older

3-What is your education?

Primary High School University

4-What is your income status?

2000-3500 TL 3501-5000 TL 5001-8000 TL

8001 TL and above

5-What is your marital status?

Single married

6- What is your working time in the company?

0-1 years 2-4 years 5-8 years 9-12 years

13 years and over

7- What is your working time in the sector?

0-1 years 2-4 years 5-8 years 9-12 years

13-16 years 17 years and over

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale		Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	I am enthusiastic about my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	My job inspires me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	I am proud of the work that I do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	I am immersed in my work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	I get carried away when I'm working.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Psychological Capital Scale		Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither Agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
1	If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	I am looking forward to the life ahead of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	The future holds a lot of good in store for me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7	Sometimes I make myself do things whether I want to or not.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	When I'm in a difficult situation, I can usually find my way out of it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	It's okay if there are people who don't like me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Big Five Inventory-10		Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither Agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly
	I see myself as someone who...					
1	...is reserved	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	...is generally trusting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	...tends to be lazy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	...is relaxed, handles stress well	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	...has few artistic interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	...is outgoing, sociable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	...tends to find fault with others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	...does a thorough job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	...gets nervous easily	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	...has an active imagination	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>