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ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

SOCIAL SCIENCE INSTITUTE

EFFECTS OF PERSONALITY TRAITS AND WORKPLACE OSTRACISM ON POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR, WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS, AND BURNOUT

MASTER THESIS

İrem ÖZMEN

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION DEPARTMENT

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SUPERVISED BY

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ANKARA, 2023

APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis study titled as “EFFECTS OF PERSONALITY TRAITS AND WORKPLACE OSTRACISM ON POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR, WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS, AND BURNOUT” prepared by İrem ÖZMEN was approved unanimously by the following jury as a master thesis in Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Social Sciences Institute, in the program of Business Administration.

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PLAGIARISM PAGE

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Tezimin başından sonuna kadar bilgi birikimini ve deneyimiyle her zaman yanımda olan, karşılaştığım zorluklar karşısında destek ve katkısını esirgemeyen çok değerli hocama sonsuz teşekkürlerimi sunuyorum.

Eğitimim boyunca bana destek olan sevgili aileme teşekkürlerimi sunuyorum.

ÖZET

KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİ VE ÖRGÜTSEL DIŞLANMANIN POZİTİF İŞ DAVRANIŞI, GERİ ÇEKİLME DAVRANIŞLARI VE TÜKENMİŞLİK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ

Bu araştırmada kişilik özellikleri, örgütsel dışlanma, pozitif iş davranışı, geri çekilme davranışları ve tükenmişlik arasındaki ilişkiler akademisyenler üzerinde incelenmiştir. Bu araştırmanın iki amacı vardır. Birincisi cinsiyet, eğitim düzeyi, medeni durum ve akademik unvanın örgütsel dışlanma, pozitif iş davranışı, geri çekilme davranışları ve tükenmişliğe göre anlamlı olarak farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını tespit etmektir. İkincisi ise beş faktör kişilik özellikleri ve örgütsel dışlanmanın pozitif iş davranışı, geri çekilme davranışları (psikolojik ve fiziksel) ve tükenmişliği yordama düzeylerini incelemektir.

Araştırmada veri toplamak için kişisel bilgi formunun yanısıra “Örgütsel Dışlanma Ölçeği”, “"Beş Faktör Kişilik Özellikleri Envanteri”, "Pozitif İş Davranışı Ölçeği", “Geri Çekilme Davranışları Ölçeği” ve “Maslach Tükenmişlik Envanteri” kullanılmıştır. Verileri analiz ederken yüzde, frekans, aritmetik ortalama ve standart sapma gibi betimsel istatistikler faktör analizi ve güvenirlik analizi, bağımsız gruplar için t-testi, varyans analizi, Pearson korelasyon analizi ve hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Türkiye'de devlet üniversitelerinin iktisadi ve idari bilimler fakültelerine bağlı bölümlerinde görev yapan akademisyenler araştırmanın evrenini oluşturmaktadır. Veriler kolayda örnekleme yöntemiyle toplanmıştır. Çevrimiçi anket formunun linki akademisyenlere e-posta olarak iletilmiştir. Araştırmaya 57 üniversiteden 446 akademisyen (188’i kadın, 258’i erkek) dönüş sağlamıştır. Katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 39.59'dur (S = 10.25). Katılımcıların 296'sı evli, 150'si bekardır.

Sonuçlar, erkeklerin kadınlara göre daha fazla örgütsel dışlanma algıladığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, evli akademisyenler, bekarlara göre daha fazla örgütsel dışlanma algılamakta, daha fazla pozitif iş davranışı ve fiziksel geri çekilme davranışı sergilemektedirler. Doktora derecesine sahip akademisyenler, yüksek lisans derecesine sahip akademisyenlere göre daha fazla pozitif iş davranışı sergilemektedir. Araştırma görevlileri, doçent ve profesörlere göre daha fazla tükenmişlik algılamaktadır. Ayrıca öğretim görevlileri ve doktor öğretim üyeleri, profesörlere göre daha fazla tükenmişlik algılamaktadır. Doçentler, araştırma görevlilerine

göre daha pozitif çalışma davranışları göstermektedir. Araştırma görevlileri, profesörlere göre daha yüksek düzeyde psikolojik ve fiziksel geri çekilme davranışlarına sahiptir.

Hiyerarşik regresyon analizi sonuçları, dışadönüklük, sorumluluk ve deneyime açıklık kişilik özelliklerinin pozitif ve anlamlı olarak pozitif iş davranışını yordadığını göstermektedir. Sorumluluk kişilik özelliği negatif yönde, nevrotiklik ve örgütsel dışlanma pozitif yönde psikolojik geri çekilme davranışını yordamaktadır. Sorumluluk ve deneyime açıklık negatif yönde, nevrotiklik ve örgütsel dışlanma ise pozitif yönde fiziksel geri çekilme davranışını yordamaktadır. Son olarak, dışadönüklük, uyumluluk ve sorumluluk pozitif yönde, nevrotiklik ve örgütsel dışlanma ise pozitif yönde tükenmişliği yordamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Beş faktör kişilik özellikleri, örgütsel dışlanma, pozitif iş davranışı, geri çekilme davranışları, tükenmişlik, akademisyenler

ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF PERSONALITY TRAITS AND WORKPLACE OSTRACISM ON POSITIVE WORK BEHAVIOUR, WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS, AND BURNOUT

In this study, the relationships between personality traits, workplace ostracism, positive work behavior, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout have been examined among academicians. There are two purposes in this study. The first one is to determine whether gender, educational level, marital status, and academic title significantly differ regarding workplace ostracism, positive work behavior, withdrawal behaviours and burnout. The second one is to study predictive levels of five factor personality traits, workplace ostracism, positive work behavior and withdrawal behaviours (physical and psychological) and burnout.

In order to gather data, in addition to demographic information form "Workplace Ostracism Scale", "Big Five Personality Traits Inventory", "Positive Work Behavior Scale", "Psychological Withdrawal Scale", "Physical Withdrawal Scale", and "Maslach Burnout Inventory" have been used in the study. While analyzing the data, descriptive statistics such as percentage, frequency, arithmetic mean and standard deviation factor analysis and reliability analysis, t-test for independent groups, analysis of variance, Pearson correlation analysis and hierarchical regression analysis have been used. The academicians working in the departments of business faculties and economic and administrative sciences faculties of state universities in Turkey establish the scope of this research. The data have been gathered through convenience sampling method. The link of online survey form has been sent to academicians via e-mail. 446 academicians from 57 universities, 188 of whom are women and 258 of whom are men, responded to the survey. The average age of the participants is 39.59 (S = 10.25). 296 of the participants are married and 150 of them are single.

Findings have shown that males experience workplace ostracism more than females. Moreover, married academicians experience more workplace ostracism than the singles and thus they display more positive work behavior and physical withdrawal behaviour. Academicians with PhD display more positive work behavior than academicians with Master's degrees. Research assistants experience burnout more than associate professors and professors. In addition, lecturers and lecturers with PhD experience burnout more than professors. Associate professors show more positive work behaviors than research assistants.

Research assistants have higher levels of psychological and physical withdrawal behaviours than professors.

The hierarchical regression analysis results show that the personality traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience positively and significantly predict positive work behavior. Conscientiousness personality trait predict psychological withdrawal behaviour in a negative way and neuroticism and workplace ostracism predict psychological withdrawal behaviour in a positive way. Conscientiousness and openness to experiences predict physical withdrawal behaviour in a negative way, and neuroticism and workplace ostracism predict psychological withdrawal behaviour in a positive way. Finally, extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness predict burnout in a positive way and neuroticism and workplace ostracism predict burnout in a positive way.

Keywords: Five factor personality traits, workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, burnout, academician

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Problem Statement and Research Purpose

“Man is by nature a social creature: an individual who is unsocial naturally and accidentally is either beneath our notice or more than human. Society is something innature that precedes the individual. Anyone who either can not lead the common life or is so self-sufficient as not to need to and therefore does not partake of society is either a beast or a god.” (Aristotle, B.C.328) Aristotle uttered these words centuries ago. Humanity know the need of belonging to a group or a social community for centuries. After Aristotle, Maslow emphasized that need, as well; in the ‘A Theory of Human Motivation’ and named it hierarcy of needs. “-- If both the physiological and the safety needs are fairly well gratified, then there will emerge the love and affection and belongingness needs, and the whole cycle already described will repeat itself with this new center. Now the person will feel keenly, as never before, the absence of friends, or a sweetheart, or a wife, or children. He will hunger for affectionate relations with people in general, namely, for a place in his group, and he will strive with great intensity to achieve this goal. He will want to attain such a place more than anything else in the world and may even forget that once, when he was hungry, he sneered at love.” (Maslow, 1943: 381)

Humankind, from Aristotle to Maslow, have always wanted to be a part of a society, group, etc. and implied sense of belonging. Because of this pre-historic need, ostracism is the darkest nightmare for all of us in our homes, at the school, in the workplace, etc. In 1995, Baumeister and Leary hypothesized in their article that “the need to belong” can be considered a fundamental human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) and ostracism is a serious threat for this need. “Human beings are an exceptionally social species with a strong need to belong and an even stronger aversion to being rejected. We not only spend most of our lives in proximity with other people—living, working, playing, talking, eating, sleeping, and sometimes just "hanging out" with them—but also typically want those individuals to accept us at some minimal level.” (Leary, 2006: 1)

Ever since hunter and gatherer tribes, individuals have realized that they have to live together in order to survive. The idea of living together has revealed the importance of understanding and interpreting human behaviour. Therefore, behavioural sciences have a very important place in both daily life and business life. Today, in the rapidly changing and developing environmental conditions, organizations have to choose their path for continuous change and development. Otherwise, it is inevitable to eliminate the weak one Witnessed an increased interest in researches on what happens when a person does not feel belonging, is exposed to ostracized and is rejected by the group in the past decades. Both academia and organizations have been concerned with the internal factors that affect employee productivity since the Hawthorne work. Ostracism also took its place among these internal factors.

Considering the normal working time, the individual spends most of his/her daily life at work. As a matter of fact, a person spends more time with his/her colleagues than with his/her family. Therefore, ostracism experienced by the individual at work is as important as the other social contexts. It is important for employees themselves and it is important for the organizations. Organizations achieve their goals in line with the productivity and success of their employees which are important company resources. Because human is the key factor in increasing organizational performance and profitability. Many factors affecting people change their contribution to the organization and indirectly the performance and profitability of the organization.

Ostracism that employees are exposed to, gives both internal and external consequences which usually in bad sides. “Ostracism can cause such a strong desire to belong, to be liked by someone, perhaps anyone, that individuals’ ability to discriminate good from bad may be impaired to the point that they become attracted to any group that will have them, even cults and extremist groups.” (Williams, 2007: 428)

The transition from the understanding of management, which sees individuals as the limbs of machines, to the understanding that the employee should be evaluated as a whole with their feelings and thoughts, occurred within a quarter of a century. Although the modern management approach is not fully adopted today, motivation, leadership and teamwork were mentioned in the periods when the classical understanding prevailed. While the success to

be achieved through group work, unity and solidarity was mentioned almost 100 years ago, it is not a big surprise that the issue of the effects of ostracism on business life is so popular today. When we look at the literature on workplace ostracism, it appears that the subject is examined in various fields; burnout (Qian, Yang, Wang, Huang, & Song, 2019), silence (Chenji & Sode, 2019; Jahanzeb & Fatima, 2018), job performance (De Clercq, Haq & Azeem, 2019; Feng, Li, Feng and Jiang, 2019; Steinbauer, Renn, Chen, & Rhew, 2018), cyber loafing (Koay, 2018), organizational citizenship (Ferris, Fatimah, Yan, Liang, & Lian, 2019), psychological distress (Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang, 2012), and employee response to ostracism (Fatima, Bilal & Imran, 2019; Xu, Huang & Robinson, 2017). Although there are many studies on ostracism in the literature, studies related to workplace ostracism among academicians are relatively few. Academy is one of the most important sectors in terms of both the number of people employed and the effects it creates. In this study, a contribution to the literature has been made by examining the relationships between personality traits, workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout among academicians.

Purpose of this study is to determine the effects of personality traits, and workplace ostracism on burnout, positive work behaviour, and withdrawal behaviours among academicians. The study was conducted in the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences of state universities in Turkey. Thus, whether personality traits, and workplace ostracism have an effect on burnout, positive work behaviour, psychological and physical withdrawal behaviour level of academicians has been studied.

1.2. Research Questions

In line with the research purposes mentioned earlier, replies to the following research questions were investigated.

RQ1. Do demographic characteristics (gender, education level, marital status, academic title) of academicians make any difference regarding workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout?

RQ2. Do big five personality traits and workplace ostracism significantly predict positive work behaviour of academicians?

RQ3. Do big five personality traits and workplace ostracism significantly predict psychological withdrawal behaviour of academicians?

RQ4. Do big five personality traits and workplace ostracism significantly predict physical withdrawal behaviour of academicians?

RQ5. Do big five personality traits and workplace ostracism significantly predict burnout levels of academicians?

1.3. Organization of Chapters

This study consists of the following main parts; literature review, methodology, findings, discussion, and conclusion. Under the literature review part, personality traits, workplace ostracism, burnout, positive work behaviour and, withdrawal behaviours have been introduced. In the methodology section, research sample, method of data collection, the scales used to collect the data were introduced, and the Outlier and Normality Tests, Reliability Analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analyzes of the scales were studied. It was focused on whether the data we obtained in the Findings section had a meaningful result, and the necessary analyzes were made and shared in this section. In the last section, discussion and conclusion, the analyzed data are compared with the literature.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, workplace ostracism, personality and big five personality model, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout are discussed, and studies in the literature are mentioned.

2.1. Ostracism

Ostracism was called ostrachymos in 500 BC. Athenians voted whether to exile a former political leader in the community, using stones they called ostraca. Accordingly, the person could be exiled for 10 years. (Williams, 2007) Over time, the term political exile has been used to describe the cognitive exile experienced between individuals. Ostracism is defined as "The action of intentionally not including someone in a social group or activity." in the Cambridge Dictionary and "Being excluded, not being taken to a place or community." in the Turkish Dictionary.

Ostracism has been observed throughout history in all communities. People are excluded from their religion, social groups, and institutions they belong to. (Williams, 2007) Exclusion can be observed not only in humans, but also in animals. (Williams, 2007)

Described as being ignored and excluded, ostracism is frequently formed without explanation and clear negative attention. It generally becomes involved in as a process that is defined being ignored and excluded. It is the perception that a person is ignored, rejected, deprived of any positive or negative behavior, or excluded by others. (Williams, 2007) Individuals could be exposed to ostracism in many contexts in daily life. All these forms of social rejection are extremely damaging and can gradually disrupt individuals' self-perception. The prevalence of ostracism is reflected in the many terms used to describe it: "the cold shoulder," "avoiding," "shunning," "treat with ignore," "being sent to Coventry," "the silent treatment," "exile," "banishment," "expulsion," "time-out," and "silencing." (Williams, 2001, p. 8) Ostracism, which is encountered in social contexts such as being ignored or excluded by another, is a situation that can be encountered frequently in organizations. Workplace ostracism is the exclusion experienced by an individual in the

workplace. Ostracism of the workplace can occur in many ways, e.g., not informing when going out to dinner, avoiding talking, not even making eye contact, not notifying group activities, not including group conversations in communication applications (WhatsApp, telegram, signal, etc.) or creating a secret chat group, etc.

When individuals are exposed to such situations, their reactions vary greatly. (Ferris, Brown, Berry, Lion, 2008; William, 1997, 2001, 2007) These responses will be explained in more detail later. The exclusion, which goes by several names, was collected by Robinson et al. (2013) and others under one heading. Before this study, ostracism was named; "social exclusion" (Twenge, Catanese, & Baumeister, 2002), "rejection" (Prinstein & Aikins, 2004), "abandonment" (Baumeister, Wotman, & Stillwell, 1993), and "being out of the loop" (Jones, Carter-Sowell, Kelly, & Williams, 2009; Jones and Kelly, 2010). Ostracism includes social rejection, social exclusion, ignoring and deception, together with other behaviours that comprise negligence of socially appropriate actions that concern another, such as the failure of a singular or group to accept, include, choose, or invite another.

When the studies in the literature are examined, three different types are encountered regarding the exclusion of individuals from the group. We can list these as social exclusion, ostracism, and social rejection. (Blackhart, Nelson, Knowless, Baumester, 2009; Ferris et al., 2008; Leary, 2001; Scott, 2007; Twenge et al., 2007) According to some research, while it is accepted that these three concepts mean the same thing (Ferris et al., 2008; Quaten, William, Jones, Zadro, 2008), in other research, there are some differences between the meanings of the concepts in some details. (Blackhart et al., 2009; Leary, 2001)

Ostracism can occur in various shapes, but there exist three major modes, physical ostracism, social ostracism, and cyberostracism. (Williams, 2001) First, physical ostracism occurs when the excluder physically distances himself/herself from the existence of the excluded or the excluded is physically isolated. This exclusion is typically the most obvious type of ostracism because the one performing the exclusion has distanced himself/ herself from the excluded, evidently avoiding physical intimacy and contact. (Williams, 2001)

Social ostracism is the emotional withdrawal experienced while the physical existence of those who make up the exclusion continues. The target and source remain visible to each other. Examples include avoiding eye contact, talking, or listening. In social ostracism, the source excludes the target by not speaking to it, not listening to it, avoiding eye contact, and not responding positively to any communication input. Victims of social ostracism are made to feel that they are not there, that they are insignificant or that they have no value. Common terms such as “silent treatment,” “cold shoulder,” and “freezing out” are likely to refer to social ostracism. (Williams, 2001)

Cyberostracism is keeping the target excluded in non-face-to-face situations by ignoring the target’s e-mails, phone calls, communication groups, communication networks in organizations, etc. Due to the uncertainty of the electronic environment, it cannot be understood whether the exclusion of a target was intentional or accidental.

Individuals can be ostracized for many different reasons. The exclusion in question can be experienced for justifiable reasons or based on meaningless grounds. People can be excluded only for reasons such as race, religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender, age.

Individuals can exclude the serious misbehaviour they observe in a person. For example, a person speaking loudly in the library can be ignored because he/she performs an inappropriate behavior in a particular context and acts recklessly. In some cases, group members exclude the group member, who arrives late, spoils harmony or performs poorly, from speaking or activity as a means of punishment.

Usually, the purpose of ostracism in these situations is to make the member who breaks the harmony align with the rest of the group. Individuals can even be ostracized for doing the "right thing." "Whistleblowers" who report an unethical or immoral act in organizations are common targets of ostracism. (Williams, 2001) The individual may be ostracized as a result of doing the "right" thing, doing the "wrong" thing, or even doing nothing.

Compared to other aversive interpersonal behaviours, ostracism has a unique potential to threaten four basic human needs: the need to belong, the need for self-esteem, the need for control and the need for meaningful existence. (Williams, 2001) It is assumed that ostracism deprives the ostracized individual of a sense of belonging. Ostracism has detrimental effects on the individual's personal, social, and mental functions, and ostracism poses a serious threat to the "sense of belonging", one of the four basic needs. (Yang, 2012)

Baumeister and Leary (1995) argue that the most fundamental of all human needs is belonging. According to them, belonging is both an emotionally desirable need and a need that is compatible with the evolutionary process. Human beings who need others in order to continue their family lineage and to be protected have embraced the need for belonging to the nature in all aspects.

The need for coexistence seen in the first humans arose from the need they felt for each other in access to food, shelter, and protection. In the evolutionary process, this need shaped our current need to belong. The fact that survival requires coexistence with other people has endowed people with the need to build positive and consistent relationships, in other words, evolution has equated exclusion with extinction. (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; McDonald & Leary, 2005) It is clear that the need for belonging to a group and to establish steady, positive, and satisfying social bonds with other people is one of the most basic needs of individuals. (Williams, 2007)

Ostracism is most commonly regarded as a reaction to deviant or indecent behaviour. (Williams, 2001) Therefore, ostracism expresses the view that there is an undesirable or bad characteristic in the individual. Such a thought poses a direct threat to the individual. Targets' self-esteem is threatened by ostracism as the target's ostracism which s/he is exposed is a punishment because the target has done something wrong. Ostracism whispers to target that s/he has done something that is bad or unwelcomed. This whisper threatens an individual sense of self-esteem and might create a belief in their own unwanted disposition and defects.

Williams (2001) explains that having self-esteem is a basic human need that motivates social behaviour. Ostracism may even be due to the physical characteristics that

distinguish a person from others (e.g., physical handicap, different color, carrier of a disease, etc.). (Williams, 2001) This is also considered as a reaction to a characteristic that makes individuals different from others in some situations.

In the short term, people are resistant to assaults that threaten their self-esteem, and they can use the defense mechanism to protect themselves. Apart from the defense mechanism, they could move away from the place where they have been exposed to ostracism, or their excellence in other areas can reduce the damage to their self-esteem. On the other hand, the situation is very different in the long run. Continuous decline of self-esteem could lead to negative expectation and self-fulfilling prophecy.

Williams (2001) claims that ostracism causes individuals to lose a sense of control over social interactions. Ostracism in the form of ignoring, pretending to be ignorant, and not reacting contributes to a great loss of control.

Ostracism endangers perceived control over target-source interaction, according to William's (2001). Although the verbal or physical conflict between the target and the source is unpleasant, it does not affect the continuity of the sense of control and influence. However, if the source doesn't respond or it ignores the target's questions, and remains unresponsive to everything the target does, good or bad, their sense of control decreases considerably. In circumstances such as ignoring, pretending to be unaware, or not reacting, the target has no chance of controlling the interaction.

In his study in 2001, Williams examined in detail that some theorists expressed that human beings want to believe that their existence is meaningful and that they strive to hold this belief. Having a positive self-worth gives the individual the feeling that his/her existence is meaningful and valuable. The fear of being excluded from the group is at the core of the need to have positive self-worth.

Ostracism, in addition to showing individuals how life would continue if they did not exist, makes these individuals confront the idea that life could continue without their own

existence, and the view that ostracism poses a menace to the need for meaningful existence stems from this idea.

According to Williams (2001), because ostracism includes being ignored and neglected, it conveys the message to individuals that their existence has no meaning and value and can end at any moment.

Most of the theoretical explanations have often stated that being ignored or excluded from the group by other people is a negative painful experience and has some negative consequences for individuals.

Williams (2007) states that antisocial behaviours may reflect themselves in individuals as a result of ostracism. Examples of anti-social behaviours are situations such as avoiding helping others and cooperation, relationship conflicts, problems in interpersonal relationships, and aggressive behaviour of excluded individuals towards other excluded individuals. Aggressive behaviours towards the excluded person can be observed from the excluded person, as well. (Twenge et al., 2001) According to Williams, individuals who are constantly exposed to ostracism do not exhibit antisocial behaviours or any behaviours that impose themselves on others. Instead, individuals exposed to ostracism internalize the situation after a while by accepting the fact that they are not desired, and they do not expect to be supported by others or accepted as a friend. Williams found out in his 2007 study that ostracism triggers both positive and negative behavioural responses. Ostracism leads to increase in social anxiety (Baumeister & Tice, 1990), loneliness (Jones, 1990), depression (Coie et al., 1995), hurt feelings (Leary, Springer, & Negal), and anger (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stmcke, 2001).

Ostracism can affect individuals in terms of both positive and negative behavioural responses. As we encounter many negative behaviours, positive social behaviours are in question during ostracism. Individuals can exhibit pro-social behaviours, be helpful, and pay more attention to the community rules in order to be accepted by a society, to be included in groups, to gain the respect and appreciation of others. Prosocial behaviours that emerge as a

result of ostracism manifest themselves as behaviours, efforts to improve social relations, and as an increase in social sensitivity.

2.1.1. Workplace Ostracism

There are many forms of workplace mistreatment (mobbing, bullying, discrimination, incivility, aggression, exclusion) and it can be encountered in many contexts (employee to employee, manager to employee; individual-based attitude and, group-based attitude). These mistreatments may not manifest themselves as clear experiences every time. Sometimes, several cases of workplace mistreatment can seem harmless at first, on the other hand, they can lead to a series of events or bigger issues. Mistreatment experienced in the workplace can cause undesirable effects on both employees and institutions.

Ostracism in the workplace is a type of workplace mistreatment. Whereas the other form of mistreatments includes the existence of undesired behaviour like a wide range of verbal and nonverbal behaviours which have an intention to harm, insult, belittle, or a reason for personal humiliation or shame, ostracism involves the lack of a desired treatment. (Robinson et al., 2013) Employees at all levels, who have supervisors, coworkers, and subordinates, can be both the target and the source of exclusion in the workplace. (Ferris et al., 2008) The majority of employees experience ostracism at some point in their work life. (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; O'Reilly, Robinson, Berdahl, & Banki, 2015) Despite the fact that organizational ostracism seems more acceptable among employees, studies show that this form of aggression is more detrimental to employees' self-esteem, belonging, welfare, and organizational gains compared to other disturbing behaviours in the workplace. (O'Reilly et al., 2015)

Organizational ostracism, which is described as a negative situation, is defined as a condition that leads to an individual or a group being excluded, rejected, or ignored by other individuals or groups, as well as preventing the positive interpersonal relations and work-related success of the individual in the workplace. Hitlan et al. (2006) define workplace ostracism as the rejection or ignorance of one person or group by others. Workplace ostracism is that a person or a group neglect to show any actions which are socially proper

to do, and concern another member. In the study guided by Fox & Stallworth (2005), the participants stated that they were excluded in various ways. 66% of the study group stated that they were subjected to silent treatment, 29% indicated that others left the environment when they entered, and 18% stated that they were left in a physically isolated place. (Fox & Stallworth, 2005) In a 2006 study by Hitlan et al., 13% of 5000 attendees stated that they were subjected to workplace exclusion within the past six months. Therefore, it cannot be ignored that workplace ostracism is a part of business life.

Robinson et al. (2013) examined organizational ostracism under two main headings when revealing the premises of organizational ostracism: purposeful ostracism, non-purposeful ostracism.

Robinson et al. (2013) named purposeful ostracism as an event that occurs when an individual consciously commits the act of ostracizing another individual. Purposeful ostracism occurs with the intent to harm or assist the target. Purposeful ostracism can occur for two main reasons: the lower cost of ostracism compared to other means (argument, conflict) and the limited mechanisms that can produce the same results as ostracism. In organizational environments where there is no adequate use of resources to settle conflicts, employees can also resort to this method because they do not have verbal arguments or fear of being blamed. (Robinson et al., 2013)

Another premise stated as non-purposeful ostracism is addressed under two subheadings as ease of overlook and disagreement in terms of social compliance. (Robinson et al., 2013) Non-purposeful ostracism also occurs due to two main factors: easiness of overlooking a person and the lack of agreed norms of socially acceptable behaviour. In a highly stressful and geographically dispersed work environment, it is easier for an employee to neglect or overlook a colleague. (Robinson et al., 2013)

When the workplace ostracism literature is examined, the effect of ostracism on burnout (Qian et al., 2019), job performance (De Clercq et al., 2019; Steinbauer et al., 2018), employee attitudes (Lyu & Zhu, 2018), cyberloafing (Koay, 2018), employee creativity (Chenji & Sode, 2019), organizational citizenship (Ferris et al., 2019), psychological

distress (Wu et al., 2012) and employee response to ostracism (Fatima, Bilal, & Imran, 2019; Xu, Huang, & Robinson, 2017) etc. is examined.

Ostracism at work is a bitter and painful experience and it causes depression, stress, and intention to quit. (Ferris et al., 2007; Williams et al., 2000) Ostracism prevents the employee's sense of belonging and reduces their participation at work. (O' Reilly & Robinson, 2009, p. 1)

It has been determined that ostracism is harmful for the physical and mental health of individuals and hinders job satisfaction, commitment to work and reduces performance. Organizational ostracism negatively affects psychological and physical well-being, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviours and performance. (Ferris et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2012)

Hsieh and Karatepe (2019) studied the effect of workplace ostracism on the propensity to leave work early and propensity to be late for work through work tension. At the end of the study, it was found that workplace ostracism increased the work tension, while increased work stress led to a higher tendency to leave work early and to be late for work.

Hitlan et al. (2006) explored the moderator effect of gender on the relationship between perceived ostracism, work-related attitudes, and mental health. Attendees consisted of 223 working students (159 females and 64 males). At higher levels of perceived ostracism, men showed lower satisfaction and mental health than women.

Wu et al. (2011) showed that ostracism in the workplace has a negative relationship with the job performance of the employees and this relationship is mediated by the employee organization-based self-esteem. Wu et al.'s (2012) survey conducted with 215 people from two different companies in China revealed a positive relationship between organizational ostracism and psychological stress. It has been stated that the political aptitudes of the employees reduce the relationship between organizational ostracism and stress; however, it is difficult to overcome the effects of ostracism when the political aptitudes are low.

Wu, Qu, Zhang, Hao, Tang, Zhao, & Si (2019) studied how ostracism in the workplace affects the voice behaviour of newcomers. They concluded that through the mediating effect of psychological need satisfaction, workplace ostracism had a negative impact on both the encouraging and inhibiting voice of newcomers.

In the study, Rasool, Maqbool, Samma, Zhao, & Anjum (2019) examined how a toxic workplace environment (bullying, exclusion, harassment, and rudeness) can affect worker productivity directly and indirectly. The results of the study show that a toxic workplace environment (bullying, exclusion, harassment, and rudeness) for direct and indirect relationships negatively affects worker productivity.

Samma, Zhao, Rasool, Han & Ali (2020) examined the relationship between workplace ostracism, workplace incivility, and innovative work behaviour by using job anxiety as a mediating variable in a study of small and medium-sized enterprises based in Pakistan. The results of this study approved that workplace ostracism and workplace incivility have a negative effect on innovative work behaviour.

Chung & Yang (2017) investigated the mediating effects of organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) on the relationship between ostracism in the workplace and helping behaviour, voicing behaviour, in-role behaviour and deviant behaviour. The study results found that OBSE fully mediated the relationship between ostracism in the workplace and helping behaviour, voicing behaviour and in-role behaviour, OBSE partially mediated workplace exclusion, and workplace exclusion had a direct effect on deviant behaviour.

Thompson, Carlson, Kacmar & Vogel (2020) explored how ostracism spreads in the workplace and how it progresses to emotional exhaustion for both the target of the exclusion and his/her partner. They studied how ostracism in the workplace spreads and how it is translated into emotional exhaustion for both the target of ostracism and his/her partner. According to this study, the relationship between positive mood and psychological distress can explain ostracism at work and emotional exhaustion both in the workplace and in the family of the target.

2.2. Personality

Owing to the complex construction of human personality and the fact that personality has many approaches from different perspectives, it is not possible to talk about a common definition of the notion of personality.

Personality theorists have different views on what issues personality psychologists should focus on. Whereas one talks about subconscious mechanisms, the other looks at learning stories, and another looks at how people organize their thoughts.

Burger (2010) defined personality as stable behavioural templates and intrapersonal processes originating in an individual and analyzed this definition in two parts. While the first part deals with consistent behavioural patterns, the second part deals with the intrapersonal processes. He says that these behaviours are consistent patterns of behaviour that can be observed at all times and in all situations.

Intrapersonal processes contain all sentimental, motivational, and cognitive processes that influence how an individual behaves and feels and develops within. According to Burger (2010), although some of these courses are shared by all people, how we use them and how these processes interact with individual differences play a role in determining our individual character. For example, although it is common for all people to be anxious about threats; the level of this anxiety or the reaction they give as a result of anxiety is caused by individual differences.

All the features that belong to and define the person; it is a resource for getting to know and understanding people. Personality is an individual term that completely describes a person, including all his interest in the outside world, his attitude to others, his ability in various subjects, even his appearance, way of speaking, harmony with his environment, etc.

Scientists have proposed six general approaches to define personality. These are the psychoanalytic approach, the hallmark approach, the biological approach, the humanistic

approach, the behavioural/social learning approach, and the cognitive approach. (Burger, 2010)

Burger (2010) compared these six approaches describing personality to blind men who are asked to describe an elephant. According to this analogy, each blind man who examines only one part of the elephant will define the elephant differently. Neither of these definitions is completely right or wrong. Each has its own rights and wrongs.

In order to better understand these theories, he touched on six general approaches to explain personality and explained that every approach accurately describes and examines an important human personality dimension. These approaches are as follows; biological approach, behavioural/social learning approach, cognitive approach, humanistic approach, psychoanalytic approach, and trait approach.

The psychoanalytic theory says that the uniqueness (personality) of the behaviour of individuals stems from the unconscious mind. The biological approach draws attention to inherited tendencies and refers to the physiological processes to clarify personal differences. The humanistic approach points out individual responsibility and feelings of self-acceptance as the main cause of personality variations. The humanistic approach accepts that people are extremely responsible for all of their actions. They even argue that we sometimes have an automatic reaction to incidents and are driven by subconscious urges, always have the power to determine their own fate and decide their actions. Behavioural/social learning theory can define consistent behaviour patterns as the result of conditioning and expectations. Those supporting the cognitive approach look at differences in the way people process data to take into consideration the differences in behaviour. (Burger, 2010)

The trait approach is a personality dimension that classifies a person according to the degree which a person displays a particular personality trait. Psychologists who defend the trait approach say that a person has some of the various personality traits that make up the spectrum of distinctive traits. This approach focuses on defining personality and predicting behaviour rather than the causes of people's behaviour. Trait researchers are not concerned in predicting the behaviour in a given condition. Instead, they want to estimate how a person

who lands at a certain point on the trait continuum will behave. Another feature of the trait approach is that it places less emphasis on the underlying mechanisms of a behaviour than other approaches. Researchers focus on identifying personality and predicting behaviour rather than explaining why people treat the way they do. (Burger, 2010)

Matthews, Deary, and Whiteman (2009) mentioned in their book that the idea of personality traits is as old as human language itself. Great philosopher Aristotle (384-322 BC), who wrote Ethics in the 4th century BC, saw dispositions such as arrogance, humility, and cowardice as the main determinants of moral and immoral behaviour, while his student Theophrastus (371-287 BC) wrote a book on 30 “characters” or personality types.

2.2.1. Big Five Personality Model

When it was developed, the Big Five personality test was based on the belief that the most prominent personality traits would be found by observing a language and it forms the basis of a lexical study for classifying personality traits.

Firstly, Francis Galton (1884) suggested studying personality types entirely in the language (Matthews, et al., 2009), and Allport and Odbert (1936) worked on this suggestion by describing many adjectives used for personality traits in English. (Costa & McCrae, 1985; Matthews et al., 2009) Cattell (1945) narrowed this list which was made by Allport and Odbert (1936) down to eventually form the basis for the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF). Costa and McCrae (1985) developed the NEO Personality inventory, which consists of three broad dimensions of personality traits: neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience. Finally, the Big Five model was completed by Costa and McCrae (1992) by adding agreeableness and conscientiousness. It is the revised model of NEO Personality inventory consisting of 240 items and it is named the NEO-PI-R. This model is one of the most widely used evaluation of the Big Five personality traits. (Matthews et al., 2009) The dimensions of the five-factor personality model were named as neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, openness, and conscientiousness.

The neuroticism dimension refers to people's emotional stability and continuity of personal adjustment. People with high levels of neuroticism experience stress more often than people with low levels of neuroticism and individuals with high emotional stability possess emotional stability and continuity of personal harmony. (Burger, 2010) They are individuals who are calm, harmonious and not prone to excessive emotional reactions (Burger, 2010). Individuals with low neuroticism are calm, well-adjusted, and not prone to excessive and incompatible emotional reactions.

Extraversion is another factor of five factor personality traits. Individuals at the other end of this dimension are characterized as introverts. There are extreme extroverts on one end of this dimension, and introverts on the other. The adjectives under the extraversion factor are stated as affectioner, joiner, talkative, active, fun loving, passionate. (McCrae & Costa, 1992) Extroverts have more friends and spend more time in social environments than introverts. (Burger, 2010) Extroverted individuals do not like solitude, enjoy spending time with others, and seek exciting activities. Introverts, who are the other extremes of extraversion, in other words, low extroverts, have the opposite characteristics of high extraversion. McCrae and Costa (1992) used the adjectives reserved, loner, quiet, passive, sober, unfeeling when describing introverts.

The dimension of openness to experience shows the feature of being open to new experiences and not depending on habits. Features that make up this dimension include a strong imagination, willingness to accept new views, versatile thinking, and intellectual curiosity. People who score high on the openness dimension have unconventional and independent thoughts (McCrae & Costa, 1992), and they do not have a hard time being along with others. People with low openness are more traditional and prefer the known rather than the new. This dimension has a characteristic that is opposed to conservatism. Individuals with low openness to new experiences are traditional, not very curious and conservative. (McCrae & Costa, 1992) McCrae and Costa (1992) used the adjectives imaginative, creative, original, prefer variety, curious, and liberal for describing openness.

Agreeableness usually refers to individuals who are thoughtful, friendly, and willing to compromise. People who score high on the agreeableness dimension are helpful,

trustworthy, and compassionate. At the other end of this dimension are hostile and suspicious people. Compatible people prefer cooperation to competition. (Burger, 2010) Agreeableness personality trait refers to the interpersonal aspects of personality. McCrae and Costa (1992) described agreeable people as soft-hearted, trusting, generous, acquiescent, lenient, and good-natured.

The conscientiousness dimension is about how much control and discipline the individual has. In this dimension, which is also called self-discipline, individuals at the high point of responsibility are considered organized, planned, and determined, while those at the lower end are considered careless and unreliable. (Burger, 2010) McCrae and Costa (1992) also stated that individuals with high self-discipline are hard-working, well-organized, punctual, ambitious, and persevering. Additionally, they use expressions such as disorderly, aimless, inattentive, lazy, and negligent for individuals with low self-discipline.

Studies have shown the relationship between job characteristics and personality with organizational commitment (Chopra, 2014) the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction under the mediator of personality (Indarti, Solimun, Fernandes & Hakim, 2017), the relationship between personality dimensions and job performance (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003), the relationship between negative feedback and employee job performance, and explored the moderating role of the Big Five (Guo et al., 2017), the relationship between personality and job performance under the mediating role of multidimensional work attitude (Ahmad, Athar & Hussain, 2016) and many more.

Tharpa et al. (2020) examined the relationship between personality, positive/negative affect and financial satisfaction. In the study, while extraversion was positively associated with financial satisfaction, neuroticism and agreeableness were negatively associated with financial satisfaction. When positive affect and negative affect were added to the model, it was concluded that only agreeableness and negative affect were negatively related to financial satisfaction. A positive effect was observed to be positively associated with financial satisfaction.

Leephaijaroen (2016) examined the effects of five major personality traits and organizational commitments on organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). In the research, OCB "altruistic behaviour, conscientious behaviour, sportsmanship behaviour, courteous behaviour, and civic virtue behaviour" is considered as a dependent variable. In the study, it was observed that agreeableness, conscientiousness had positive and significant effects on altruistic behaviour. It has been concluded that conscientiousness, conformity, conscientious behaviour and civic virtue have a positive effect on behaviour, and also, compliance has a positive effect on sportsmanship behaviour.

Yang, Secchi, and Homberg (2018) examined the relationship between personality traits and organizational learning. Conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to new experiences were examined as personality traits, and it was confirmed that individual traits were associated with organizational learning. It has shown that conscientiousness has no effect on organizational learning. Neuroticism can negatively and significantly predict organizational learning. Openness to new experiences also has a significant and positive effect on organizational learning.

Tauni, Yousaf, and Ahsan (2020) explored how investor-advisor similarities (differences) in the Big Five personalities are related to stock trading performance. The research showed that investor-advisor similarity in terms of openness, extroversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness was positively related to investor stock trading performance, but investor-advisor similarity in neuroticism negatively affected investor trading performance.

Wang, Lien, Jaw, Wang, Yeh, and Kung (2019) examined the relationship between the big five personality traits, cultural intelligence, intercultural harmony, and entrepreneurship. In the study, it was observed that openness, extroversion, and conscientiousness significantly affected entrepreneurship, but there was no significant relationship with agreeableness and neuroticism.

There are several studies examining the relationship between ostracism (Hitlan, & Noel, 2009), burnout (Anvari, Kalali, & Gholipour, 2011), positive work, and withdrawal behaviours on the big five model.

In this study, trait approach has been used. Big five personality traits inventory is chosen as it is observed that the Big Five Personality traits are used extensively in the psychology literature. Because the NEO PI-R is too long and difficult to understand at some points, the 44-item English BFI has been preferred in this study. Thus, it is time-efficient and the boredom of the subjects can be prevented.

2.3. On-the-Job Behaviours (Positive Work Behaviour and Withdrawal Behaviours)

On-the-job behaviour is dependent upon the perception of employees towards his/her competence for the job, perceived equity, opportunities for career growth, organizational support, and culture. (Kaur, 2014) On-the-job behaviours include "psychological and physical withdrawal behaviours, positive work behaviour, and antagonistic work behaviours". (Lehman & Simpson, 1992, p: 309) This measure was developed to measure a range of daily job behaviours which would be suitable across a wide range of jobs and would include productivity. In this study, the scale developed by Lehman and Simson (1992) in "Employee Substance Use and On-the Job Behaviours" article has been used. In this study three sub-scales of the on-the-job behaviours scale namely; positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, and physical withdrawal behaviour have been used. Studies in this field are very limited and the dimensions are very scattered.

In the dimension of positive work behaviours, the extra things that an employee does to improve the job and the workplace, apart from what s/he has to do as part of his duty, are measured, for example, voluntary overtime, doing the job more than desired, looking for a way to improve working conditions, increasing the performance of the organization. (Lehman & Simpson, 1992)

The other dimension, psychological withdrawal behaviour, was developed to measure the mental presence of the employee on the job. Psychological withdrawal

encompasses behaviours that put psychological distance between a person and their job role. It has been developed to measure mental extinction, even though s/he is physically at work, such as not doing the job expected from him/ her in sufficient quantity, having thoughts of quitting or disappearing, chatting with his colleagues other than work during working hours, doing his/her personal work at work, leaving his job unnecessarily. (Lehman & Simpson, 1992)

Song and Lee (2020) found a negative relationship between psychological withdrawal behaviour, proactive personality, and servant leadership. According to Song and Lee (2020), a person with a proactive personality is not likely to exhibit psychological withdrawal behaviours but is likely to take initiative to bring about changes in their organization. In addition, subordinates under a servant leader display behaviour in line with a proactive personality rather than behaviours related to psychological withdrawal.

The last dimension used in this study is physical withdrawal behaviour. It aims to measure physical neglect of employees in the workplace i.e. employee being late for work, taking breaks longer than necessary, falling asleep at work, leaving early without taking leave. It frames actions that ensure physical escape from the work environment.

Rafiean, Feizi, and Alipour (2013) found that job satisfaction, job motivation, job trust, and procedural justice had negative relationships with physical and psychological withdrawal, but positive relationships with job stress.

2.4. Burnout

Burnout is a kind of syndrome and it is the emotional exhaustion or cynicism observed in people who work with other people. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 99) In today's world, working life covers a large part of daily life, therefore a large part of individuals' lives. The fact that working life occupies a significant place and time in human life has made it the most important variable in a person's mental and physical health.

One of the many problems experienced in working life is stress and it is a really serious problem. Individuals are insufficient to cope with intense stress, therefore they confront various health and social problems. All the negativities experienced in organizations, especially the stressful processes, pave the way for the emergence of some problems. As it will be discussed in the following stages, stress along with many other reasons; exposes an individual to burnout syndrome. Burnout syndrome, which is one of the significant problems of our age, refers to the relationships people build in their workplace and the challenges that arise when these relationships break down.

The concept of burnout was first used in the United States in the 1970s to express the depression experienced by people working in the service industry. Burnout has been included in the literature by Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976) with the studies conducted independently of each other. (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005)

Freudenberger (1974) defined burnout as a state of internal exhaustion of the individual due to various reasons (failure, exhaustion, low energy and lack of power, or unfulfilled desires). Burnout is a phenomenon that arises as a result of our efforts to give meaning to our lives as a product of the social life of our age. (Freudenberger & Richelson, 1981)

The syndrome described by Freudenberger has become a phenomenon that is often desired to be studied afterwards and many different definitions have been made about it and many models have been developed. The most widely used model is the one developed by Maslach, which explains the burnout syndrome in three dimensions. (Cavanaugh et al., 2020; Colom & Contreras, 2018; Dall'Ora, Ball, Reinius Griffiths, 2020; Hamdan & Hamra, 2017; McFadden, Mallett, Leiter, 2018; Moyer, F., Aziz, S., & Wuensch, K., 2017; Tong, Wang & Peng, 2015) Stevens (1984) defined burnout as incompatible responses to the stress experienced in the work environment. Burnout includes negative changes in individuals' attitudes towards work and life. Edelwich (1980) described burnout as loss of idealism, energy, and purpose as experienced by people working in the service industry. According to Farber (2000), burnout is related to "inconsequentiality”. It arises from the realization that service industry personnel's efforts to help others are ineffective and inadequate.

Çam and Öğülmüş (2019) defined burnout results from a combination of long-term emotional exhaustion, physical fatigue, non-participation, dehumanization of service workers, and low job success. The term has become a popular phrase in almost every world culture to the extent that it has become a colloquial term to describe the state of having nothing else to give, and a state of total and exact exhaustion since the term originated.

Christina Maslach, one of the most important pioneers of burnout research together with Freudenberger; states that burnout is not only caused by fatigue, weariness, and job dissatisfaction; it is also a physical, emotional and mental syndrome that includes physical exhaustion, chronic fatigue, helplessness and hopelessness, negative personality perception, and negative attitudes towards work, family and the environment. (Maslach, 2003) In the burnout model developed by Maslach, three dimensions are mentioned: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personnel accomplishment, or self-efficacy.

According to Maslach, which measures burnout with the Maslach Burnout Scale (MBI), built on these three dimensions, burnout is a process that includes different functions. Therefore, it is impossible to measure burnout with one criterion. Each sub-dimension is graded separately in IMB. Then, the current condition is determined by assessing the three sub-dimensions together. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981)

The burnout syndrome, which Maslach defines as a process, first arises when the endless excessive work demands consume the emotional resources of the individual, which leads to emotional exhaustion. The individual, whose defense mechanism is activated, tries to limit his relationship with the people around him and distance himself/herself from other people psychologically. Thus, with depersonalization, the individual creates an emotional buffer for himself/herself. Finally, the individual perceives the difference between their previous positive attitudes and their current attitudes. Considering that his/her distant attitude limits his/her contribution to the society, and the organization he/she works for, and that he/she is insufficient in business and human relations; he/she begins to see himself/herself as inadequate in doing his/her job.

Emotional exhaustion represents the individual stress dimension of burnout. Emotional exhaustion, which is accepted as the most important dimension, is also seen as the beginning and clearest symptom of burnout in Maslach's burnout model. (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) In professions where face-to-face communications are intense, employees feel physically and emotionally extremely tired and worn out. Individuals who are in an emotionally intense work tempo force themselves and are overwhelmed by the excessive demands of other people. Emotional exhaustion also occurs as a reaction to this situation. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) The main causes of emotional exhaustion are excessive workload, interpersonal conflicts at work and unfavorable working conditions. According to Maslach's burnout model, the person experiencing emotional exhaustion feels inadequate to solve other people's problems and sees depersonalization as an escape route. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981)

Depersonalization, another dimension of the burnout syndrome, represents the interpersonal communication dimension of burnout (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998), and according to Maslach and Jackson (1981), it is the most problematic dimension among the three dimensions of burnout. Disruptions in interpersonal relationships make burnout not an individual problem and transform it into an epidemic that spreads throughout the organization.

Self-efficacy, which is the last dimension of Maslach's burnout model, represents the personal development dimension of burnout. According to Maslach, personal success; while it is defined as overcoming this problem successfully and finding oneself sufficient, the decrease in personal success is expressed as a person finding himself/herself incompetent and unsuccessful in his/her job. (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) Feeling of reduced personal accomplishment is form of burnout. Organizational conditions that cause emotional exhaustion and depersonalization negatively affect the productivity and efficiency of employees after some time. (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) Reduced personal achievement, which is the third dimension of Maslach's burnout model, refers to a person's tendency to evaluate himself negatively. (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) A low sense of personal accomplishment includes symptoms such as inadequacy, a sense of failure, poor morale, reduced efficiency and productivity, interpersonal conflicts, inability to cope with

problems, and decreased self-confidence and self-esteem. (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001)

Casserley & Megginson (2008) who stated that there has been a great increase in social scientific research on burnout since the 1980s, mentioned some common points about the conceptualization of burnout in their book.

Burnout is a negative 'psychological condition' that evolves over a long period of time among individuals who do not exhibit behaviours that indicate mental illness, and it generally remains undetected for a long time by the person.

Since it is mostly a work-related experience, burnout is frequently mentioned as job/employee burnout. Burnout is more common among younger workers in the early stages of their careers compared to older workers.

Burnout is generally experienced by people who are highly motivated to succeed in their careers and have high expectations and goals for their own success. Burnout is a multi-dimensional syndrome that shows symptoms of strong exhaustion and distress at being overwhelmed and overextended. It is a universal and widespread phenomenon that cannot be limited only to one culture.

Hamdan and Hamra (2017) evaluated burnout levels and associated risk factors among healthcare workers working in hospital emergency departments in their study on "Working in Emergency Departments (EDs)". In their study in Palestine, high levels of burnout were observed among emergency service workers with the participation of 444 employees: 64.0% high emotional exhaustion, 38.1% high depersonalization and 34.6% low personal achievement. In the study, a significant relationship was found between burnout and the intention to quit the job in the emergency services.

Colom and Contreras, (2018), in their study on supermarket workers, observed that people with low levels of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability

and openness were more prone to burnout. In addition, in the study, it was examined whether there is a connection between burnout and contact with the customer, and it turned out that there was no significant difference.

Zivcicova (2018) worked on determining the differences in the intensity of burnout syndrome in relation to the duration of employment and educational stages in her study on 126 teachers. It was found that burnout symptoms were more common in primary school teachers than secondary school teachers, and there was no significant correlation with the duration of employment.

Moyer et al. (2017) examined the relationships between workaholism, psychological capital, and burnout. According to the information gathered from observations at Southeastern University, workaholism is positively pertaining to burnout, and psychological capital is negatively related. In addition, it was observed in the study that psychological capital is an important mediating variable for all three dimensions of burnout.

Vevodová et al. (2020) in a study conducted with 250 nurses, it was observed that the possibility of burnout syndrome is pertaining to the psychological conditions and perceptions of the individual as well as socio-demographic factors. Burnout syndrome was observed in 28.8% of nurses in the state of emotional exhaustion, in the state of depersonalization in 15.2% and in the state of personal achievement in 38.4%. It has been revealed that the probability of the emergence of burnout syndrome in the state of emotional exhaustion is affected by age, gender and the size of the urban area, and increased by anxiety and depression. In the state of depersonalization, it is more likely to be seen together with impulsivity and pessimism. In the state of personal achievement, the likelihood of burnout syndrome increases with the lack of psychological well-being and activity, restlessness and impulsivity.

Charoensukmongkol (2016) examined the role of co-workers and support of the executives in three dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and perceived lack of personal achievement). It was concluded that the support of co-workers

was negatively related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, while the support of the executives was negatively related to all aspects of burnout.

Vine and Morgan (2020) examined the relationship between five factor aspects and burnout. It was concluded that neuroticism was positively associated with burnout, openness to new experiences was positively involved, and agreeableness was negatively associated with burnout.

In this section, research sample and data collection method are explained respectively, then the information of the scales "workplace ostracism scale, five factor personality traits inventory, on-the-job behaviours scale,and maslach burnout inventory" used in this study are explained. Moreover, results of the outlier and normality tests are given. Then, reliability analysis and confirmatory factor analyses of positive work behaviour scale, and withdrawal behaviours scales are given.

2.5.Research Model

The study is aimed to see whether workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout levels differ among demographic variables of the academicians. Moreover, as it can be seen from Figure 1, it is intended to test the impacts of personality traits and workplace ostracism on positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, physical withdrawal behaviour, and burnout.

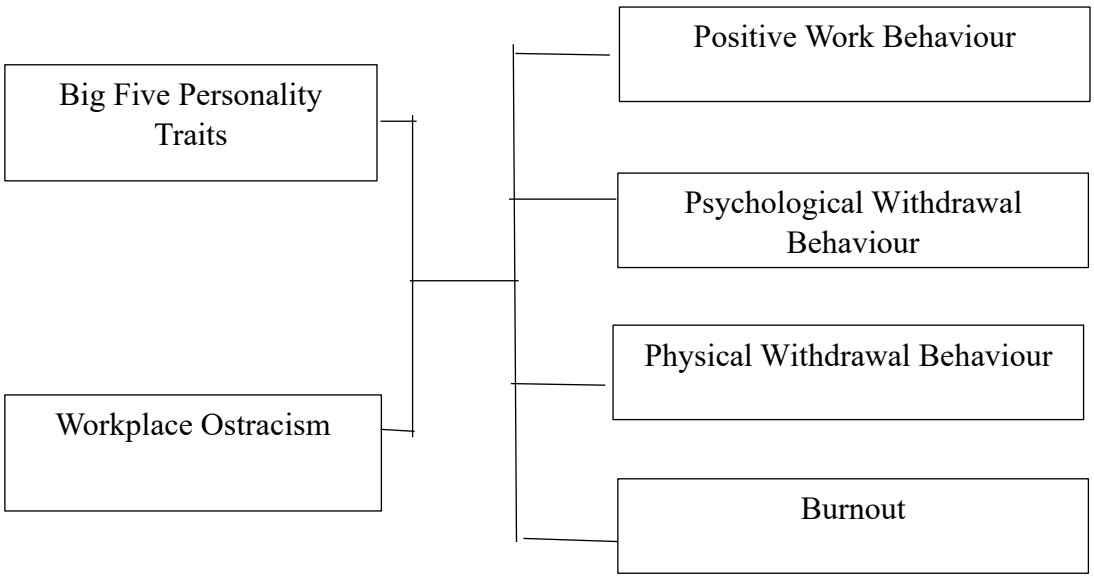


Figure 1. Research Model

2.6.Research Sample and Data Collection

Academicians working in departments affiliated to the faculties of economics and administrative sciences in state universities in Turkey constitute the population of the research. After obtaining the permission of the ethics committee, which is required for the research to be conducted, the online questionnaire was applied between February 2021 – May 2021 to the participants who are willing to participate in the research. Convenience sampling method was used, and academicians from 57 universities and 19 different departments took part in this research. Data were obtained from 453 academicians. In order to detect extreme values on the data, the Mahalanobis distance was calculated, and the data obtained from the seven participants with a score higher than 20.56 were excluded from the data set. Analyses were performed on data obtained from 446 (188 female, 258 male) participants. The mean age of the participants in the sample was calculated as 39.59. (S = 10.25)

2.7. Data Collection Tool

2.7.1. Workplace Ostracism Scale

Workplace Ostracism Scale which was developed by Scott (2007), adapted to Turkish by Karabey (2014) and used by Gürsel (2018) in his doctoral disssertation, was used to measure the ostracism levels of academicians. Consisting of 11 items, the scale is one-dimensional. Response categories were structured as a 5-point Likert (1, strongly disagree; 5, strongly agree). In this study, the Croncbach alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.82.

2.7.2. Five Factor Personality Traits Inventory

The Five Factor Personality Traits Inventory was developed by Benet-Martinez and John (1998),and adapted into Turkish by Sümer and Sümer (2005). The inventory, which consists of 44 items in total, has 5 sub-dimensions namely extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism (emotional instability) and openness to experience. The response categories of the scale were structured as a 5-point Likert (1, strongly disagree; 5,

completely agree). Items 2, 6, 8, 9, 12, 13, 16, 18, 19, 22, 25, 27, 33, 35, 42, 44 of the scale should be reverse coded. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated as 0.78 for the extraversion dimension, 0.64 for the agreeableness dimension, 0.76 for the conscientiousness dimension, 0.81 for the neuroticism dimension and 0.79 for the openness to experience dimension.

2.7.3. On-the-Job Behaviours Scale

The scale was developed by Lehman and Simpson (1992) and has not been standardized into Turkish. It was created by bringing together 4 scales that measure positive work behaviours, psychological withdrawal behaviours, physical withdrawal behaviours and antagonistic work behaviours. In the study, primarily the scales were translated into Turkish. Antagonistic behaviours were excluded from the study. Response categories were structured as a 5-point Likert (1, Never; 5, Very Often). In this study, the Croncbach alpha reliability coefficient for positive work behaviour calculated as 0,81, for psychological withdrawal behaviour calculated as 0,75, and for physical withdrawal behaviour calculated as 0,82.

2.7.4. Maslach Burnout Inventory

Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) was used to measure burnout levels. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Ergin (1992). The 22-item scale has three sub-dimensions: emotional exhaustion (9 items), depersonalization (5 items) and a sense of personal accomplishment (8 items). Response categories were structured as a 5-point Likert (1, never, 5, every day). Personal sense of accomplishment sub-dimension should be reverse coded. In this study, Croncbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of Maslach Burnout Inventory was calculated as 0,86.

2.8.Outlier and Normality Tests

The data that disrupted the normality assumption were calculated with Mahalanobis distance coefficient. Data obtained from seven participants with a score higher than 20.56 were excluded from the data set.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used in the application of the normal distribution test. Accordingly, it was concluded that the data were normally distributed for all research variables. In addition to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, as it can be seen from Table 1, Skewness and Kurtosis values are also examined to understand whether the data are normally distributed. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), attention was paid to keep Skewness and Kurtosis values in the range of +1.5 -1.5.

Table 1. Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Research Variables

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistics	Std. Error	Statistics	Std. Error
Extraversion	-0,153	0,116	-0,158	0,231
Agreeableness	-0,395	0,116	0,132	0,231
Conscientiousness	-0,283	0,116	-0,455	0,231
Neuroticism	0,259	0,116	-0,386	0,231
Openness to Experience	-0,137	0,116	-0,222	0,231
Workplace Ostracism	1,449	0,116	1,435	0,231
Burnout	0,415	0,116	-0,142	0,231
Positive Work Behaviour	-0,425	0,116	0,089	0,231
Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour	0,752	0,117	0,513	0,231
Physical Withdrawal Behaviour	1,414	0,117	1,428	0,231

2.9.Reliability Analysis

Cronbach Alpha internal consistency analysis was used to test the reliability of workplace ostracism, big five personality traits, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout. Cronbach alpha values and number of scale items are given in Table 2. As it is seen from the table the lowest alpha score is 0,64 for agreeableness dimension of big five. The other scores range from 0,75 to 0,86. These findings show that the internal consistency level of the scales used in the research is high and therefore the scales are reliable.

Table 2. Reliability Scores of Research Variables

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha Value (α)
Workplace Ostracism	11	0,82
Extraversion	8	0,78
Agreeableness	9	0,64
Conscientiousness	9	0,76
Neuroticism	8	0,81
Openness to Experience	10	0,79
Positive Work Behaviour	5	0,81
Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour	8	0,75
Physical Withdrawal Behaviour	4	0,82
Burnout	22	0,86

2.10. Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Standardized scales were used in this study. Since the Positive Work Behaviour, Psychological Wihdrawal Behaviour, and Physical Withdrawal Behaviour scales were not standardized, confirmatory factor analyses were performed for all of the three scales. The results are presented in the following sub-sections.

2.10.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Positive Work Behaviour

In order to understand the factor structure of Positive Work Behaviour Scale, first of all, KMO and Barlett's Test were performed. Test results are given in Table 3. The KMO coefficient is 0.80 and the chi-square test is significant. Accordingly, the scale is suitable for factorization.

Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Positive Work Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,80
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	723,375
	df	10
	Sig.	0,000

In the second stage, principal component analysis was conducted. Results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the concept by 57,55%. Factor loadings vary between 0.45 and 0.70.

2.10.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour

In order to understand the factor structure of Psychological Withdrawal Scale, first of all, KMO and Barlett's Test were performed. Test results are given in Table 4. The KMO coefficient is above 0.80 and the chi-square test is significant. Accordingly, the scale is suitable for factorization.

Table 4. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,81
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	729,506
	df	28
	Sig.	0,000

In the second stage, principal component analysis was conducted. Results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the concept by 51,96%. Factor loadings vary between 0.35 and 0.70.

2.10.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Physical Withdrawal Behaviour

In order to understand the factor structure of Physical Withdrawal Behaviour Scale, first of all, KMO and Barlett's Test were performed. Test results are given in Table 5. The KMO coefficient is 0.72 and the chi-square test is significant. Accordingly, the scale is suitable for factorization.

Table 5. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Physical Withdrawal Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,72
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	759,011
	df	6
	Sig.	0,000

In the second stage, principal component analysis was conducted. Results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the concept by 65,82%. Factor loadings vary between 0.57 and 0.75.

3. FINDINGS

In this section, regarding research questions, results of descriptive statistics, t-test analyses, one way anova, correlation coefficients among variables and hierarchical regression analyses are given.

3.1.Demographic Information

Frequency and percentage distribution of the sample by demographic characteristics is given in Table 6.

Table 6. Distribution of the Sample by Demographic Characteristics

		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	188	42,2
	Male	258	57,8
	Total	446	100
Education Level	Master's Degree	63	14,1
	Doctoral Degree	383	85,9
	Total	446	100
Marital Status	Married	296	66,4
	Single	150	33,6
	Total	446	100
Academic Title	Research Assistant	165	37
	Lecturer	36	8,1
	Assistant Professor	94	21,1
	Associate Professor	66	14,8
	Professor	85	19,1
	Total	446	100

Data regarding gender, education level, marital status, and academic title of the participants are shown in Table 6. 42.2% of the participants were female and 57.8% were male. The data obtained on the education level is as follows; 14.1% master's degree, 85.9 doctoral degree. 66.4% of the participants are married and 33.6% are single. The study was

completed with the participation of 37% research assistants, 8.1% lecturers, 21.1% assistant professor, 14.8% associate professorS, 19.1% professors.

3.2. Descriptive Statistics of Research Variables

Sample sizes, minimum and maximum values, mean and standard deviation of research variables are given in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Research Variable

Research Variables	n	Mean	sd	Min.	Max.
Extraversion	446	3,54	0,65	1,50	5,00
Agreeableness	446	3,99	0,45	2,22	5,00
Conscientiousness	446	3,97	0,55	2,33	5,00
Neuroticism	446	2,43	0,69	1,00	4,25
Openness to Experience	446	3,85	0,54	2,20	5,00
Workplace Ostracism	446	1,30	0,36	1,00	2,64
Positive Work Behaviour	440	3,64	0,81	1,00	5,00
Psychological Withdrawal	434	2,09	0,61	1,00	4,13
Physical Withdrawal	438	1,61	0,76	1,00	4,50
Burnout	446	2,08	0,51	1,00	3,82

According to Table 7 the max. value of extraversion size is 5.00, min 1.50 ; the mean is 3.54, with a standard deviation of 0.65. The max.value of the agreeableness dimension is 5.00, min 2.22; the mean is 3.99 with a standard deviation of 0.45. The max. value of conscientiousness dimension is 5.00, min. 2.33 ; the mean is 3.97 with a standard deviation of 0.55. The max. value of neuroticism dimension is 4.25, min. is 1.00; the mean was 2.43 with a standard deviation of 0.69. The max. value of openness to experience dimension is 5.00, min. 2.20 ; the mean is 3.85 with a standard deviation of 0.54. Workplace ostracism took a max. value of 2.64 and a min. value of 1.00 with 1.30 mean, and 0.36 standard deviation. Positive work behaviour took the value of 5.00 max. and min. 1.00 value. Its mean is 3.64 with 0.81 standard deviation. Psychological withdrawal behaviour took the max.

value of 4.13, the min. value was 1.00 with 2.09 mean, and 0.61 standard deviation. Physical withdrawal took a max. value of 4.50 and a min. value of 1.00. Its mean is 1.61 and its standard deviation is 0.76. Finally, max. value of burnout is 3.82, and min. value is 1.00. Its mean is 2.08 with 0.51 standard deviation.

3.3. *t*-Test Results for Independent Groups

"RQ1. Do demographic characteristics (gender, education level, marital status) of academicians make any difference regarding workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout?" In order to answer the research question, t-test was conducted for independent groups. The results are given in Tables 8, 9, and 10.

3.3.1. *t*-Test Results Between Research Variables and Gender

The table below provides the *t*-test results for gender regarding workplace ostracism, burnout, positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, and physical withdrawal behaviour. The mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, *t*-value and the significant value are given.

Table 8. *t*-Test Results Between Research Variables and Gender

	Gender	n	Mean	sd	df	*t*	sig.
Workplace Ostracism	Female	188	1,25	0,35	444	2,07	0,04
	Male	258	1,33	0,37			
Burnout	Female	188	2,11	0,52	444	1,03	0,31
	Male	258	2,06	0,50			
Positive Work Behaviour	Female	188	3,59	0,83	438	1,12	0,26
	Male	252	3,67	0,79			
Psychological Withdrawal	Female	183	2,07	0,60	432	0,58	0,57
	Male	251	2,11	0,62			
Physical Withdrawal	Female	185	1,56	0,75	436	1,19	0,23
	Male	253	1,64	0,77			

As shown in Table 8, there is a significant difference between female and male academicians regarding workplace ostracism [$t_{(444)}$=2,07, p=0.04]. Males ($\overline{X}$ = 1,33) perceive more workplace ostracism compared to females ($\overline{X}$ = 1,25). t-test results indicate that gender is not significantly differ regarding burnout [$t_{(444)}$=1,03, p=0.31], positive work behaviour [$t_{(438)}$=1,12, p=0.26], psychological withdrawal behaviour [$t_{(432)}$=0,58, p=0.57], and physical withdrawal behaviour [$t_{(436)}$=1,19, p=0.23].

3.3.2. *t*-Test Results Between Research Variables and Education Level

Table 9 provides the *t*-test results for education level regarding workplace ostracism, burnout, positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, and physical withdrawal behaviour. The mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, *t*-value and the significant value are given.

Table 9. *t*-Test Results Between Research Variables and Education Level

	Education Level	n	Mean	sd	df	*t*	sig.
Workplace Ostracism	Master's	63	1,27	0,29	444	0,87	0,47
	Doctoral	383	1,30	0,38			
Burnout	Master's	63	2,13	0,51	444	0,87	0,39
	Doctoral	383	2,07	0,51			
Positive Work Behaviour	Master's	63	3,42	0,74	438	2,28	0,02
	Doctoral	377	3,67	0,81			
Psychological Withdrawal	Master's	63	2,13	0,58	432	0,61	0,55
	Doctoral	371	2,08	0,62			
Physical Withdrawal	Master's	63	1,71	0,86	436	1,13	0,26
	Doctoral	375	1,59	0,74			

As shown in the table above there is a significant difference between education level of academicians regarding positive work behaviour [$t_{(438)}$=2,28, p=0.02]. Academicians who have doctoral degree ($\overline{X}$ = 3,67) represent more positive work behaviour compared to academicians who have master's degree ($\overline{X}$ = 3,42). t-test results indicate that education level is not significantly differ regarding workplace ostracism [$t_{(444)}$=0,87, p=0.47], burnout

[$t_{(444)}$=0,87, p=0.39], psychological withdrawal behaviour [$t_{(432)}$=0,61, p=0.55], and physical withdrawal behaviour [$t_{(436)}$=1,13, p=0.26]

3.3.3. *t*-Test Results Between Research Variables and Marital Status

The table below provides the *t*-test results for marital status regarding workplace ostracism, burnout, positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, and physical withdrawal behaviour. The mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, *t*-value and the significant value are given.

Table 10. *t*-Test Results Between Research Variables and Marital Status

	Marital Status	n	Mean	sd	df	*t*	sig.
Workplace Ostracism	Single	150	1,24	0,33	444	2,22	0,03
	Married	296	1,32	0,38			
Burnout	Single	150	2,13	0,54	444	1,57	0,12
	Married	296	2,05	0,49			
Positive Work Behaviour	Single	149	3,45	0,83	438	3,54	0,00
	Married	291	3,73	0,78			
Psychological Withdrawal	Single	148	2,06	0,61	432	0,79	0,43
	Married	286	2,11	0,61			
Physical Withdrawal	Single	149	1,49	0,67	436	2,27	0,02
	Married	289	1,67	0,80			

As shown in the table above there is a significant difference between married and single academicians regarding workplace ostracism [$t_{(444)}$=2,22, p=0.03], positive work behaviour [$t_{(438)}$=3,54, p=0.00], and physical withdrawal behaviour [$t_{(436)}$=2,27, p=0.02]. Academicians who are married perceive more workplace ostracism ($\overline{X}$ = 1,32), represent more positive work behaviour ($\overline{X}$ = 3,73), and physical withdrawal behaviour ($\overline{X}$ = 1,67)

compared to singles. t-test results indicate marital status is not significantly differ regarding burnout [$t_{(444)}$=1,57, p=0.12] and psychological withdrawal behaviour [$t_{(432)}$=0,79, p=0.43].

3.4. One-Way ANOVA Results

"RQ1. Do demographic characteristics (academic title) of academicians make any difference regarding workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout?" In order to answer the research question, ANOVA was conducted. Results can be seen in Table 11.

3.4.1. One-Way ANOVA Results Between Research Variables and Academic Title

ANOVA result between academic title and research variables are given in the table below. The mean and standard deviations of the groups are provided in the table. Furthermore, the *F*-value and the *p*-value are given in the table below.

Table 11. One-Way ANOVA Results Between Research Variables and Academic Title

	Academic Title	n	Mean	sd	*F*	*p*	Difference
Workplace Ostracism	1.Res. Assist.	165	1,32	0,37	*0,628*	*0,642*	-
	2.Lecturer	36	1,35	0,33			
	3.Assist. Prof.	94	1,27	0,36			
	4.Assoc. Prof.	66	1,27	0,34			
	5.Prof.	85	1,27	0,38			
Burnout	1.Res. Assist.	165	2,22	0,52	1,374	0,000	1 - 4 1 - 5 2 - 5 3 - 5
	2.Lecturer	36	2,22	0,47			
	3.Assist. Prof.	94	2,08	0,50			
	4.Assoc. Prof.	66	1,96	0,46			
	5.Prof.	85	1,84	0,42			
Positive Work Behaviour	1.Res. Assist.	161	3,50	0,75	4,095	0,003	4 - 1
	2.Lecturer	36	3,45	0,69			
	3.Assist. Prof.	93	3,61	0,85			
	4.Assoc. Prof.	65	3,87	0,84			
	5.Prof.	85	3,82	0,83			

Table 12. One-Way ANOVA Results Between Research Variables and Academic Title (continuation)

	Academic Title	n	Mean	sd	F	p	Difference
Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour	1.Res. Assist.	162	2,26	0,67	5,488	0,000	1 - 5
	2.Lecturer	36	2,06	0,58			
	3.Assist. Prof.	92	2,02	0,54			
	4.Assoc. Prof.	64	2,04	0,68			
	5.Prof.	80	1,90	0,44			
Physical Withdrawal Behaviour	1.Res. Assist.	163	1,83	0,89	6,195	0,000	1 - 3 1 - 5
	2.Lecturer	36	1,47	0,61			
	3.Assist. Prof.	94	1,47	0,66			
	4.Assoc. Prof.	63	1,58	0,74			
	5.Prof.	82	1,40	0,56			

Table 11 shows ANOVA results between research variables and academic titles. The ANOVA result indicates that academic titles was not significantly differed regarding workplace ostracism [F = 0,628, p = 0.642]. On the other hand, there were differences in terms of academic titles for burnout [F = 1,374, p = 0.000], positive work behaviour [F = 4,095, p = 0.003], psychological withdrawal behaviour [F = 5,488, p = 0.000], and physical withdrawal behaviour [F = 6,195, p = 0.000]. In the next step, Scheffe test was conducted to better understand which groups are significantly different with others. According to Scheffe test results, research assistants ($\overline{X}$ = 2,22) perceive more burnout than associate professors ($\overline{X}$ = 1,96), and professors ($\overline{X}$ = 1,84). Moreover, lecturers ($\overline{X}$ = 2,22) and assistant professors ($\overline{X}$ = 2,22) perceive more burnout than professors ($\overline{X}$ = 1,84). Associate professors ($\overline{X}$ = 3,87) show more positive work behaviours than research assistants ($\overline{X}$ = 3,50). In addition to this, research assistants ($\overline{X}$ = 2,26) have higher levels of psychological withdrawal behaviours than professors ($\overline{X}$ = 1,90). Moreover, research assistants ($\overline{X}$ = 1,83) have higher levels of physical withdrawal behaviours than associate professors ($\overline{X}$ = 1,58) and professors ($\overline{X}$ = 1,40).

3.5. Correlation Coefficients Among Research Variables

Correlation analyses among research variables were computed before testing the regression models. Results are shown in Table 12.

Extraversion is positively and significantly related to agreeableness (r = 0,36, $p < 0.01$), conscientiousness (r = 0,24, $p < 0.01$), openness to experience (r = 0,43, $p < 0.01$), and positive work behaviour (r = 0,29, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, extraversion is negatively and significantly related to neuroticism (r = -0,33, $p < 0.01$), workplace ostracism (r = -0,14, $p < 0.01$), psychological withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,17, $p < 0.01$), physical withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,10, $p < 0.05$), and burnout (r = -0,36, $p < 0.01$).

Agreeableness is positively and significantly related to conscientiousness (r = 0,37, $p < 0.01$), openness to experience (r = 0,28, $p < 0.01$), and positive work behaviour (r = 0,19, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, agreeableness is negatively and significantly related to neuroticism (r = -0,51, $p < 0.01$), workplace ostracism (r = -0,29, $p < 0.01$), psychological withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,29, $p < 0.01$), physical withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,25, $p < 0.01$), and burnout (r = -0,48, $p < 0.01$).

Conscientiousness is positively and significantly related to openness to experience (r = 0,31, $p < 0.01$), and positive work behaviour (r = 0,25, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, conscientiousness is negatively and significantly related to neuroticism (r = -0,39, $p < 0.01$), workplace ostracism (r = -0,23, $p < 0.01$), psychological withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,46, $p < 0.01$), physical withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,34, $p < 0.01$), and burnout (r = -0,49, $p < 0.01$).

Neuroticism is positively and significantly related to workplace ostracism (r = 0,24, $p < 0.01$), psychological withdrawal behaviour (r = 0,39, $p < 0.01$), physical withdrawal behaviour (r = 0,33, $p < 0.01$), and burnout (r = 0,54, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, neuroticsm is negatively and significantly related to openness to experience (r = -0,29, $p < 0.01$), and positive work behaviour (r = -0,14, $p < 0.01$).

Openness to experience is positively and significantly related to positive work behaviour (r = 0,31, $p < 0.01$), and negatively and significantly related to workplace ostracism (r = -0,19, $p < 0.01$), psychological withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,17, $p < 0.01$), physical withdrawal behaviour (r = -0,22, $p < 0.01$), and burnout (r = -0,32, $p < 0.01$).

Workplace ostracism is positively and significantly related to psychological withdrawal behaviour (r = 0,25, $p < 0.01$), physical withdrawal behaviour (r = 0,23, $p < 0.01$), and burnout (r = 0,43, $p < 0.01$). There was no significant correlation between workplace ostracism and positive work behaviour.

Table 13. Correlation Coefficients Among Research Variables (N=446)

Reasearch Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Extraversion	1								
2. Agreeableness	0,36**	1							
3.Conscientiousness	0,24**	0,37**	1						
4. Neuroticism	-0,33**	-0,51**	-0,39**	1					
5. Openness	0,43**	0,28**	0,31**	-0,29**	1				
6. Ostracism	-0,14**	-0,29**	-0,23**	0,24**	-0,19**	1			
7. Positive Work	0,29**	0,19**	0,25**	-0,14**	0,31**	-0,18	1		
8. Psychological WB	-0,17**	-0,29**	-0,46**	0,39**	-0,17**	0,25**	0,00	1	
9. Physical WB	-0,10*	-0,25**	-0,34**	0,33**	-0,22**	0,23**	-0,02	0,66**	1
10. Burnout	-0,36**	-0,48**	-0,49**	0,54**	-0,32**	0,43**	-0,17**	0,55**	0,36**

**p<0.05, **p<0.01*

3.6.Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test the following research question:

"Do big five personality traits and workplace ostracism significantly predict positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, physical withdrawal behaviour, and burnout level of academicians?"

In the first stage of the model, big five personality traits, and in the second stage of the model workplace ostracism were included in the regression analysis. Thus, the predictive levels of personality and workplace ostracism, which are considered as independent variables, on dependent variables were examined. Regression analyses were performed for four dependent variables examined in the study namely positive work behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, physical withdrawal behaviour, and burnout. VIF values are below 10 and vary between 1,13 and 1,55. This indicates that there is no multi-collinearity issue among independent variables (Büyüköztürk, 2012). The regression models are presented in the following sections.

3.6.1. Effect of Personality Traits on Positive Work Behaviour

Since there was no significant correlation between workplace ostracism and positive work behaviour in the correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis was performed only for big five personality traits on positive work behaviour.

Table 13 shows the effects of big five personality traits on positive work behaviour.

Table 14. Multiple Regression Results on Positive Work Behaviour

Predictor Variables	VIF	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2
Extraversion	1,35	0,22	0,06	0,17	3,35	0,00		
Agreeableness	1,51	0,09	0,10	0,05	0,87	0,38		
Conscientiousness	1,28	0,23	0,07	0,16	3,12	0,00	0,383	0,147
Neuroticism	1,51	0,08	0,06	0,07	1,19	0,24		
Openness to experience	1,31	0,28	0,08	0,19	3,74	0,00		
$F_{(5,434)} = 14,952$	$p = 0.00$							

In the table above, it is seen that agreeableness and neuroticism personality traits did not predict positive work behaviour significantly. On the other hand, extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience personality traits predict positive work behaviour positively and significantly. It is seen that the regression model is significant [$F_{(5,434)} = 14,952$; $p = 0.00$]. According to the results of the regression analysis, extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience personality traits explained 15% variance on positive work behaviour. Findings indicate that; academicians who are extravert, conscientiousness, and openness to experience are more likely to engage in positive work behaviour.

3.6.2. Effect of Personality Traits and Workplace Ostracism on Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour

Table 14 shows the effects of big five personality traits, and workplace ostracism on psychological withdrawal behaviour.

Table 15. Hierarchical Regression Results on Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour

Predictor Variables	VIF	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Step									
Extraversion	1,37	0,01	0,05	0,01	0,22	0,83			
Agreeableness	1,50	-0,06	0,07	-0,05	-0,92	0,36			
Conscientiousness	1,30	-0,41	0,05	-0,36	-7,68	0,00	0,514	0,265	-
Neuroticism	1,50	0,20	0,05	0,23	4,52	0,00			
Openness to experience	1,31	0,02	0,05	0,02	0,42	0,68			
$F_{(5,428)} = 30,790$ $p = 0.00$									
2. Step									
Extraversion	1,37	0,01	0,05	0,01	0,20	0,84			
Agreeableness	1,54	-0,03	0,07	-0,02	-0,47	0,64			
Conscientiousness	1,31	-0,39	0,05	-0,35	-7,43	0,00			
Neuroticism	1,50	0,20	0,05	0,22	4,38	0,00	0,526	0,276	0,012
Openness to experience	1,32	0,03	0,05	0,03	0,63	0,53			
Workplace Ostracism	1,13	0,20	0,07	0,12	2,65	0,01			
$F_{(6,427)} = 27,194$ $\Delta F_{(1,427)} = 7,042$ $p = 0.00$									

In the second regression model big five personality traits were entered first into the model. It is seen that conscientiousness negatively and significantly (β = -0.36; p = 0.00), and neuroticism positively and significantly (β = 0.23; p = 0.00) predict psychological withdrawal behaviour. It is seen that the model tested in the first stage is significant [$F_{(5,428)}$ = 30,790; p = 0.00]. Conscientiousness and neuroticism explained 27% variance on psychological withdrawal behaviour. Findings indicate that; academicians with decreased level of conscientiousness and increased level of neuroticism might be engage in psychological withdrawal behaviours.

In the second stage, workplace ostracism was entered into the model. Although predictive power of conscientiousness and neuroticism on psychological withdrawal behaviour decreased after the addition of workplace ostracism to the model, conscientiousness (β = -0.35; p = 0.00) and neuroticism (β = 0.22; p = 0.00) were still significant predictors. It is seen that workplace ostracism (β = 0.12; p = 0.01) positively and significantly predicts psychological withdrawal behaviour and explains 1% variance by itself. It is seen that the model tested in the second stage is significant [$F_{(6,427)}$ = 27.194; p = 0.00]. Conscientiousness, neuroticism, and workplace ostracism explained 28% variance on psychological withdrawal behaviour. Findings indicate that; academicians with low level of conscientiousness and high level of neuroticism may engage in psychological withdrawal behaviour when they experience workplace ostracism.

3.6.3. Effect of Personality Traits and Workplace Ostracism on Physical Withdrawal Behaviour

Table 15 shows the effects of big five personality traits and workplace ostracism on physical withdrawal behaviour.

Table 16. Hierarchical Regression Results on Physical Withdrawal Behaviour

Predictor Variables	VIF	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
4. Step									
Extraversion	1,36	0,11	0,06	0,10	1,89	0,06			
Agreeableness	1,51	-0,10	0,09	-0,06	-1,12	0,26			
Conscientiousness	1,29	-0,31	0,07	-0,22	-4,49	0,00	0,417	0,174	-
Neuroticism	1,50	0,23	0,06	0,21	3,86	0,00			
Openness to experience	1,31	-0,17	0,07	-0,12	-2,33	0,02			

$F_{(5,432)}$ = 18.179 p = 0.00

Table 17. Hierarchical Regression Results on Physical Withdrawal Behaviour (continuation)

Predictor Variables	VIF	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
2. Step									
Extraversion	1,36	0,11	0,06	0,10	1,88	0,06			
Agreeableness	1,55	-0,07	0,09	-0,04	-0,72	0,47			
Conscientiousness	1,30	-0,29	0,07	-0,21	-4,25	0,00			
Neuroticism	1,51	0,22	0,06	0,20	3,71	0,00	0,430	0,185	0,011
Openness to experience	1,32	-0,15	0,07	-0,11	-2,13	0,03			
Workplace Ostracism	1,13	0,24	0,10	0,11	2,40	0,02			
$F_{(6,431)} = 16.271$ $\Delta F_{(1,431)} = 5,734$ $p = 0.01$									

In the third hierarchical regression analysis, big five personality traits were first entered into the model. It is seen that conscientiousness (β = -0.22; p = 0.00) negatively and significantly, neuroticism (β = 0.21; p = 0.00) positively and significantly, and openness to experience (β = -0.12; p = 0.02) negatively and significantly predict physical withdrawal behaviour and these three traits explain 17% variance on physical withdrawal behaviour. It is seen that the model tested in the first stage is significant [$F_{(5,432)}$ = 18.179; p = 0.00].

In the second stage, workplace ostracism was entered into the model. Although predictive power of conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience on physical withdrawal behaviour decreased after the addition of workplace ostracism to the model, conscientiousness (β = -0.21; p = 0.00), neuroticism (β = 0.20; p = 0.03), and openness to experience (β = -0.11; p = 0.03) were still significant predictors. It is seen that workplace ostracism (β = 0.11; p = 0.02) positively and significantly predicts physical withdrawal behaviour and explains 1% variance by itself. It is seen that the model tested in the second stage is significant [$F_{(6,431)}$ = 16.271; p = 0.00]. Conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience personality traits, and workplace ostracism explained 19% variance on physical withdrawal behaviour. Findings indicate that; academicians who have low levels of

conscientiousness and openness to experience, and high level of conscientiousness may engage in physical withdrawal behaviour when they experience workplace ostracism.

4.6.4. Effect of Personality Traits and Workplace Ostracism on Burnout

Table 16 shows the effects of big five personality traits and workplace ostracism on burnout.

Table 18. Hierarchical Regression Results on Burnout

Predictor Variables	VIF	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Step									
Extraversion	1,35	-0,09	0,03	-0,11	-2,73	0,01			
Agreeableness	1,50	-0,20	0,05	-0,18	-4,06	0,00			
Conscientiousness	1,29	-0,25	0,04	-0,27	-6,52	0,00	0,657	0,432	-
Neuroticism	1,50	0,21	0,03	0,29	6,61	0,00			
Openness to experience	1,32	-0,05	0,04	-0,05	-1,28	0,20			
$F_{(5,440)} = 66.875$ $p = 0.00$									
2. Step									
Extraversion	1,35	-0,09	0,03	-0,12	-2,99	0,00			
Agreeableness	1,54	-0,15	0,05	-0,13	-3,13	0,00			
Conscientiousness	1,30	-0,22	0,04	-0,24	-6,14	0,00			
Neuroticism	1,51	0,20	0,03	0,27	6,41	0,00	0,696	0,485	0,053
Openness to experience	1,33	-0,03	0,04	-0,03	-0,81	0,42			
Workplace Ostracism	1,13	0,34	0,05	0,25	6,73	0,00			
$F_{(6,439)} = 68.871$ $\Delta F_{(1,439)} = 45.235$ $p = 0.00$									

In the final hierarchical regression analysis, big five personality traits were first entered into the model. It is seen that extraversion (β = -0.11; p = 0.01), agreeableness (β = -0.18; p = 0.00) and conscientiousness (β = -0.27; p = 0.00) negatively and significantly,

neuroticism (β = 0.29; p = 0.00) positively and significantly predict burnout. It is seen that the model tested in the first stage is significant [$F_{(5,440)}$ = 66.875; p = 0.00]. Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism explained 43% variance on burnout. Findings indicate that; academicians with low levels of extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness as well as high level of neuroticism might perceive burnout.

In the second stage, workplace ostracism was entered into the model. Although predictive power of agreeableness (β = -0.13; p = 0.00), conscientiousness (β = -0.24; p = 0.00), neuroticism (β = 0.27; p = 0.00) decreased after the addition of workplace ostracism to the model, it is seen that predictive power of extraversion is increased (β = -0.12; p = 0.00). It is seen that workplace ostracism (β = 0.25; p = 0.00) positively and significantly predicts burnout and explains 5% variance by itself. It is seen that the model tested in the second stage is significant [$F_{(6,439)}$ = 68,871; p = 0.00]. Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and workplace ostracism explained 53% variance on burnout. Findings indicate that; academicians who have low levels of extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, and high levels of neuroticism may perceive burnout when they experience workplace ostracism.

4. DISCUSSION

In this part of the research, a summary of the results obtained based on the findings and comments obtained within the scope of the study is given.

In this study, positive work behaviour, psychological and physical withdrawal behaviours, and burnout were chosen as dependent variables. On the other hand, big five personality traits and workplace ostracism are chosen as independent variables. In this study, the relationships between personality traits, workplace ostracism, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours and burnout were examined on academicians working in the departments of economics and administrative sciences faculties of state universities in Turkey.

According to the data obtained from the study, no significant difference was found between male and female academicians in terms of burnout. This finding is similar to the findings of Kim, Shin, and Swanger (2009). However a significant difference between gender and ostracism was observed. According to our findings, male academicians experience ostracism in the workplace more than their female counterparts. In addition to studies showing that women experience more ostracism than men (Howard et al., 2019; Uysal, 2019) in the literature, there are also contradictory findings supporting our study. (Halis & Demirel, 2016; Naktiyok & Karabey, 2005) According to the results, gender does not differ significantly according to positive work behaviour and withdrawal behaviours. Marital status has not been studied much among demographic variables in the literature Singh and Srivastava (2021) stated that they could not find a significant difference in marital status regarding workplace ostracism. According to the results of this study, academicians who are married, experience more workplace ostracism than their single counterparts. On the other hand, it was revealed that there was no significant difference between marital status and burnout.

It was observed that singles showed more positive work behaviours than married people, while married people experienced more physical withdrawal than their single counterparts. No significant difference was found with psychological withdrawal.

When it came to level of education and academic titles from the demographic data, it was observed that workplace ostracism and burnout levels did not differ significantly regarding education level, while burnout differs significantly regarding academic titles of academicians. It has been observed that research assistants experience burnout more than associate professors and assistant professors more than professors. These findings show the necessity of psychological empowerment of academicians who have just started working. Positive work behaviour significantly differs regarding educational level. Academicians with a doctorate show more positive work behaviour than those with a master's degree. In academic titles, higher positive work behaviour was observed for associate professors than research assistants. It was concluded that research assistants showed physical and psychological withdrawal behaviour more than professors. This situation has created the impression that individuals who have just started academic life have not yet attained academic self-sacrifice.

In the study, we found a significant and negative relationship between extroversion, agreeableness, openness to new experiences and burnout, on the other hand a positive and significant relationship with neuroticism, which is the result of Anvari et all. (2011) coincides with the study he conducted in a private hospital in Tehran. There is a discrepancy in the dimension of conscientiousness between the two studies. In our study, contrary to Anvari et all. (2011), we concluded that conscientiousness has a negative and significant relationship with burnout, and there are studies confirming this result (Kim et al., 2009). The same results with Anvari is also valid for the Dargah and Estalkhbijari (2012) study. The results of this study and the one we conducted are consistent for all dimensions except conscientiousness.

Qian et. all. (2019), in parallel with this study, found a positive and significant relationship between the workplace ostracism and burnout with the study on hotel

employees. There are other studies that support this result in the literature. (Jiang et al., 2019; Shafique, Qammar, Kalyar, Ahmad & Mushtaq, 2020)

The relationship between workplace ostracism and positive work behaviour is insignificant according to the study data. Physical and psychological withdrawal behaviours show positive and significant relationships.

According to the research results, the relationship between personality types and workplace ostracism is as follows: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience are significantly and negatively related to workplace ostracism. Neuroticism is significantly and positively correlated with workplace ostracism. In addition, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience personality traits are significantly and positively correlated with positive work behaviours. On the other hand they are significantly and negatively related to physical and psychological withdrawal behaviour. Neuroticism is significantly and negatively related to positive work behaviour, while positively related to physical and psychological withdrawal behaviour.

To find out the predictive levels of big five personality and workplace ostracism on dependent variables, in the first stage of the model, big five personality traits, and in the second stage of the model workplace ostracism were included in the regression analysis. After all these analyses, the following conclusions were reached:

Since there was no significant relationship between workplace ostracism and positive work behaviour in correlation analysis, multiple regression was performed only for the five major personality traits on positive work behaviour. According to the results of the analysis, academicians who are extroverted, conscientious and open to experiences are more likely to display positive work behaviour.

When the big five personality traits are included into the first model and workplace ostracism is included in the second stage, the findings show that academicians with low

conscientiousness and high neuroticism may exhibit psychological withdrawal behaviour when they experience workplace ostracism.

When we run the model in the same way, our findings are as follows: Academicians with low level of conscientiousness and openness to new experiences and high level of conscientiousness may exhibit physical withdrawal behaviour when they experience workplace ostracism.

In the last hierarchical regression analysis, it was concluded that when big five personality traits and then workplace ostracism is added to the model, academicians with low levels of extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness, and high neuroticism may perceive burnout when they experience workplace ostracism.

5. CONCLUSION

As the study aims, it has been reached the conclusion that academicians exhibit burnout, withdrawal in which situations, and positive work behaviour in which situations. In this respect, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout that academicians exhibit according to their gender, marital status, time spent in academic life (title and education level) have gained a meaning. In addition, considering personality types of academicians, data on what to expect from whom and how to react to whom in terms of positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviours, and burnout were obtained.

According to the results of the research, we observed that workplace ostracism differed significantly in terms of gender and marital status, and male academicians and married people perceived workplace ostracism more. We found that academicians who are extroverted, conscientious, and open to experience are more likely to display positive work behaviors, and academicians with low conscientiousness and high neuroticism may exhibit more psychological withdrawal behaviors. In addition, academicians with low conscientiousness and openness to new experiences show physical withdrawal behavior when they experience ostracism in the workplace. The last of the findings shows that academicians with low levels of extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness, and high levels of neuroticism may experience burnout when they experience ostracism in the workplace.

Therefore, the personality traits of academic staff helps the managers to predict the reactions of the individuals to the events they will experience in the future and to take precautions accordingly.

In accordance with the findings and results obtained as a result of the research and suggestions for future research can be listed as follows:

The scope of the research consists of academicians working in the departments of economic and administrative sciences faculties of state universities in Turkey. Data are

limited within the framework of these faculties. The research can also be repeated on the data to be collected to include other faculties of the universities.

In the literature, studies on the appearance of workplace ostracism in educational institutions are limited. For this reason, examining the causes and possible consequences of workplace ostracism with different variables can contribute to a holistic understanding of the concept of workplace ostracism.

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7. APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Ethics Committee Approval Form

Appendix 2. Survey Instrument

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT ÜNİVERSİTESİ (AYBÜ)
ETİK KURULU
PROJE ONAY BELGESİ

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi/Enstitüsü İşletme bölümü akademisyenlerinden / öğrencilerinden İrem Aydın'ın, .Kişilik Özellikleri ile Örgütsel Dışlanmanın İş Davranışları ve Tükenmişlik Üzerindeki Etkilerinin Akademik Personel Üzerinde İncelenmesi pppadlı araştırması değerlendirilmiştir.*(Bu kısım başvuru sahibi tarafından doldurulmalıdır)*

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmuştur.	☒
Proje etik açısından geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir.	☐
Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmamıştır.	☐

AYBÜ ETİK KURULU KARARI (Etik Kurul tarafından doldurulacaktır)	
Araştırma kodu (Yıl – Araştırma sıra no)	2020 – 352
Başvuru formunun Etik Kurula ulaştığı tarih	09.11.2020
Etik Kurul Karar toplantı tarihi ve karar no	08.12.2020 – 02
Yer	Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Esenboğa Külliyesi
Katılımcılar	Formda imzası bulunan üyelerimiz toplantıya katılmıştır.

KURUL BAŞKANI, BAŞKAN YARDIMCISI VE ÜYELER:

İMZA

Prof. Dr. Cem Şafak ÇUKUR **Üye**

Prof. Dr. Muharrem KILIÇ **Üye**

Doç. Dr. Behlül TOKUR **Üye**

Doç. Dr. Birgül ÖZKAN **Üye**

Doç. Dr. Yüksel Akay UNVAN **Üye**

Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Şule KAYA **Üye**

Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Ertuğrul DEMİRDEL **Üye**

Dr. Ögr. Üyesi Nimet YILDIRIM TİRGİL **Üye**

EK 1: İŞ YAŞAMINA İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLER ANKETİ

İŞ YAŞAMINA İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLER ANKETİ

Bu anket, iş yaşamınıza ilişkin bazı görüşleriniz ile bireysel farklılıklarınızı ölçmek üzere hazırlanmıştır.

Anketi cevaplandırırken lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyup, size ne kadar uygun olduğuna karar veriniz ve her kısmın başındaki yönergelerde belirtildiği biçimde maddeleri değerlendiriniz. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış yanıtı bulunmamaktadır. Önemli olan sizin görüşlerinizi yansıtmasıdır.

Ankete katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Ankete katılmanız durumunda kimliğiniz gizli tutulacak, sonuçlar toplu olarak ve sadece araştırma amacıyla değerlendirilecektir.

Yardım ve katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

İrem Özmen
Yüksek lisans öğrencisi
Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
İşletme Anabilim Dalı

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz [ ] Kadın [ ] Erkek

2. Yaşınız _____ (Lütfen belirtiniz)

3. Eğitim durumunuz [ ] Yüksek Lisans [ ] Doktora

4. Medeni durumunuz [ ] Bekâr [ ] Evli

5. Unvanınız _____ (Lütfen belirtiniz)

6. Kurumunuzdaki toplam çalışma yılınız _____ (Lütfen belirtiniz)

ANKET SORULARI

I. Açıklama: Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuduktan sonra kendinize ilişkin olarak ifadelerin sizi ne derece yansıttığını 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- hiç katılmıyorum, 5- tamamen katılıyorum olmak üzere, derecelendiriniz. İfadelerin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

Hiç Katılmıyorum	**Biraz Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Tamamen Katılıyorum**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Kendimi …… biri olarak görüyorum.

1.	Konuşkan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2.	Başkalarında hata arayan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3.	İşini tam yapan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4.	Bunalımlı, melankolik	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5.	Orijinal, yeni görüşler ortaya koyan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6.	Ketum/vakur	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7.	Yardımsever ve çıkarcı olmayan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

8.	Biraz umursamaz	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9.	Rahat, stresle kolay baş eden	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10.	Çok değişik konuları merak eden	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11.	Enerji dolu	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12.	Rutin işleri yapmayı tercih eden	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13.	Başkalarıyla sürekli didişen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
14.	Güvenilir bir çalışan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
15.	Gergin olabilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
16.	Sessiz bir yapıda	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
17.	Sanata ve estetik değerlere önem veren	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
18.	Dağınık olma eğiliminde	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
19.	Duygusal olarak dengeli, kolayca keyfi kaçmayan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
20.	Hayal gücü yüksek	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
21.	Görevi tamamlanıncaya kadar sebat edebilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
22.	Bazen başkalarına kaba davranabilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
23.	Keşfeden, icat eden	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
24.	Genellikle başkalarına güvenen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
25.	Tembel olma eğiliminde olan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
26.	Çok endişelenen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
27.	Bazen utangaç, çekingen olan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
28.	Affedici bir yapıya sahip	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
29.	İşleri verimli yapan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
30.	Dakikası dakikasına uymayan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
31.	Maharetli, derin düşünen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
32.	Heyecan yaratabilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
33.	Soğuk ve mesafeli olabilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
34.	Planlar yapan ve bunları takip eden	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
35.	Gergin ortamlarda sakin kalabilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
36.	Düşünmeyi seven, fikirler geliştirebilen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
37.	Hemen hemen herkese karşı saygılı ve nazik olan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
38.	Kolayca sinirlenen	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
39.	Sanat, müzik ve edebiyatta çok bilgili	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
40.	Atılgan bir kişiliğe sahip	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

41.	Başkalarıyla iş birliği yapmayı seven	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
42.	Kolaylıkla dikkati dağılan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
43.	Sosyal, girişken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
44.	Sanata ilgisi çok az olan	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

II. Açıklama: Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuduktan sonra, her bir ifadeye ne derece KATILDIĞINIZI 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum olmak üzere, derecelendiriniz. İfadelerin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1.	Bir ortamda tanıtılmam gerektiğinde çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım beni tanıtmaya zahmet etmez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2.	Çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım beni öğlen yemeği, çay molası gibi sosyal ortamlara davet etmez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3.	Çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım beni işle ilgili faaliyetlere katılma konusunda cesaretlendirmez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4.	Çalıştığım kurumdaki bir odaya girdiğim zaman iş arkadaşlarım o odayı terk ederler.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5.	Çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım benimle birlikte çalışmak istemezler.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6.	Çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım diğer çalışanları takdir edici şeyler söylerken, benim için söylemezler.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7.	Toplantı gibi işle ilgili faaliyetler esnasında çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım yanıma oturmazlar.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

8.	Çalıştığım kurumdaki arkadaşlarım programlarını benimle çalışmaktan uzak duracak şekilde düzenlerler.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9.	Benim yanımda başkalarına bir şeyler fısıldar ve beni dışlarlar.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10.	Kurumumdaki çalışma ortamlarını benden uzak bir yere oturacak şekilde düzenlerler.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11.	Diğer çalışanların doğum günü gibi önemli günleri kutlanır, benimki ise fark edilmez.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

III. Açıklama: Aşağıda, kişilerin ruh durumlarını ifade ederken kullandıkları bazı ifadeler verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyarak hangi sıklıkta hissettiğinizi 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- Hiçbir zaman, 5- Her gün olmak üzere, derecelendiriniz. İfadelerin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

Hiçbir Zaman	**Yılda Birkaç Kez**	**Ayda Birkaç Kez**	**Haftada Birkaç Kez**	**Her gün**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1.	Kendimi işimden duygusal olarak uzaklaşmış hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2.	İşgününün sonunda kendimi bitkin hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3.	Sabah kalkıp yeni bir işgünü ile karşılaşmak zorunda kaldığımda kendimi yorgun hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4.	Çalışma arkadaşlarımın pek çok şey hakkında neler hissettiklerini anlayabilirim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5.	Bazı çalışma arkadaşlarıma onlar sanki kişilikten yoksun bir objeymiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6.	Bütün gün insanlarla çalışmak benim için gerçekten bir gerginliktir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7.	İş yerimdeki insanların sorunlarını etkili bir şekilde hallederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8.	İşimin beni tükettiğini hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

9.	İşimle diğer insanların yaşamlarını olumlu yönde etkilediğimi hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10.	Bu mesleğe başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı katılaştığımı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11.	Bu iş beni duygusal olarak katılaştırdığı için sıkıntı duyuyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12.	Kendimi çok enerjik hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13.	İşimin beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
14.	İşimde gücümün üstünde çalıştığımı hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
15.	Bazı kişilerin başına gelenler gerçekten umurumda değil.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
16.	Doğrudan insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla strese neden oluyor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
17.	İşim gereği kişilere rahat bir atmosferi kolayca sağlayabilirim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
18.	Kişilerle yakın ilişki içinde çalıştıktan sonra kendimi ferahlamış hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
19.	Bu meslekte pek çok değerli işler başardım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
20.	Kendimi çok çaresiz hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
21.	İşimde duygusal sorunları bir hayli soğukkanlılıkla hallederim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
22.	İnsanların bazı problemleri için beni suçladıklarını hissediyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

IV. Açıklama: Aşağıdaki her bir ifadede belirtilen durumu SON 1 YILDA İŞ YAŞAMINIZDA hangi sıklıkla yaşadığınızı 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- Hiç ve 5-Çok sık olmak üzere derecelendiriniz. İfadenin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

Hiç		**Orta Düzeyde**		**Çok Sık**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1.	İşimle ilgili yapmam gerekenden daha fazlasını yaptım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2.	Fazla mesai gerektiren durumlarda, bunun için gönüllü oldum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3.	Çalışma koşullarını değiştirmek için girişimlerde bulundum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4.	İşimi geliştirmek için yöneticilerle müzakereler yaptım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

5.	İşimi daha iyi yapabilmenin yollarını düşünmeye çalıştım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6.	İşe gitmemeyi düşündüm.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7.	Ofiste, iş dışı konularda iş arkadaşlarımla sohbet ettim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8.	Geçerli olmayan sebeplerle iş ortamından ayrıldım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9.	Ofiste, iş dışındaki konularla ilgili düşüncelere daldım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10.	Mesai saatlerimi kişisel işlerim için harcadım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11.	İşime, gerektirdiğinden daha az çaba sarf ettim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12.	Şu anki işimden ayrılmayı düşündüm.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13.	Kendi işlerimi başkalarının yapmasına göz yumdum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
14.	İzin almadan mesaiden erken ayrıldım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
15.	Öğle aralarını/çay molalarını, izin verilenden daha uzun süre tuttum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
16.	Büro malzemelerini/ ekipmanlarını izin almadan kullandım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
17.	Mesaide uyuyakaldım.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Anketi cevaplayarak, araştırmama katkı sağladığınız için teşekkür ederim.