

THE EFFECT OF COPING STRATEGIES ON INDIVIDUAL AND
ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOME PERCEPTIONS: MEDIATING ROLE OF
WORK ATTACHMENT STYLES

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF COPING STRATEGIES: MEDIATING ROLE OF WORK ATTACHMENT STYLES ON THE RELATION BETWEEN COPING AND PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOME PERCEPTION

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The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between proactive and preventive coping styles and some individual and organizational outcomes, namely professional self-esteem, job satisfaction task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, the mediating roles of two employee attachment styles, engagement and burnout in this relationship were investigated. Psychometric qualities of the scales were established through a pilot study by collecting data from 90 employees coming from different sectors. After that, to test the hypothesis more data were collected from additional 125 employees. Altogether, 215 employees participated in the present study. Of the participants, 114 were women (53%) and 101 were men (47%). Results showed that proactive coping skills predicted organizational outcomes positively (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior) after controlling for work experience. The preventive coping did not predict any outcome. Mediation analysis showed that engagement mediated the relationship between proactive coping skills and outcomes of work attachment styles, except for organizational citizenship behavior but burnout did not mediate preventive coping and outcomes of work attachment styles. The results were discussed and implications for the managers were mentioned. Some future research themes were suggested, and limitations of the study were listed.

Keywords: Proactive coping, preventive coping, work attachment styles, organizational outcomes

ÖZ

STRESLE BAŞA ÇIKMA BİÇİMLERİNİN ETKİSİ: STRESLE BAŞA ÇIKMA, BİREYSEL VE ORGANİZASYONEL SONUÇ ALGISI İLİŞKİLERİNDE İŞE BAĞLANMA BİÇİMLERİNİN ARACI ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı stresle başa çıkma biçimlerinden olan proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimleri ile çalışanların işe bağlanma biçimlerinden olan tükenmişlik ve çalışan bağlılığı arasındaki ilişkiyi bulmak, ayrıca proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimlerinin mesleki özgüven, iş performansı, örgütsel vatandaşlık ve iş memnuniyeti üzerindeki etkisini bulmaktır. Ölçeklerin psikometrik değerleri pilot çalışma ile elde edilmiştir. Veriler 114 kadın (%53) ve 101 erkek (%47) olmak üzere toplam 215 profesyonel çalışandan toplanmıştır. Bulgular proaktif başa çıkma biçiminin tecrübe faktörünü kontrol ettikten sonra mesleki özgüven, iş memnuniyeti, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışını yordadığını göstermiş; ancak önleyici başa çıkma biçiminin bu sonuçlarını yordadığını göstermemiştir. Regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre çalışan bağlılığının proaktif başa çıkma biçimi ile işe bağlanma biçimlerinin sonuçları arasındaki ilişkiyi örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı harici aracılık ettiği görülmüştür; ancak tükenmişliğin önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ve işe bağlanma biçimlerinin sonuçları arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiği bulunamamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Proaktif Başı Çıkma, Önleyici Başı Çıkma, İşe Bağlanma
Biçimleri, Örgütsel Sonuçlar

To My Dearest Family and Zeynep

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Stress is an inevitable function of our life due to increasing competitiveness which has been brought with modern living standards and henceforth it is a core element of our life. Although stress is in the center of daily life, everyone desires such a life that is free from stress but in today's world it seems not possible because stressors are in everywhere; school, home, work, family, relationships, etc. Therefore it does not seem possible to annihilate the stressor from our life but alleviating its negative effect on organism is possible by adopting some strategies, like coping.

Stress has been widely studied phenomena by the researchers up to now and has been defined differently. According to Selye (1956), stress is any external events or internal urges that bluster the balance of an organism. Mc Grath (1970) aslo defined stress as a perceived disequilibrium between demands and capacity to control conditions. In addition to these, Rhyal and Singh (1996), referred stress as a protection response when individuals perceived their well-being is endangered.

So it can be understood from the various stress definitions above, stress arises in situations where people consider that the demands they have to deal with are greater than their capacities to come through (Hiebert, 2000, cited in Malac et. al, 2000). According to Hiebert (1983), stress can result from environmental and internal factors (coping skills, perceptions and personality factors). Stress may also arise from individuals' perceived inability to cope with stressors.

Stress has been one of the focuses of studies in psychology because of the negative impact on people and their health. Cartwriigh and Cooper (1997) underlined the detrimental effects of stress that it can lead to many problems like emotional distress, and some physical disorders. Moreover in the long term, it can be more serious illnesses such as high blood pressure and cardiovascular disease (Theorell & Karasek, 1996, Bruner & Stansfeld, 1997).

Additionally, the negative effect of stress is also a critical factor in organizations. The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work indicated that

stress is one of the most influential health problem affecting 22 % of workers from the 27 European Union Countries in 2005 and issue that stress is a factor in 50 % to 60 % of all lost working day. (Milczarek, Schneder, & Gonzales, 2009). Time pressure, excessive work demand, role conflict, role ambiguities and ergonomic insufficiencies are among the factors leading the employees to suffer from stress and in turn there will be decrease in work performance in terms of quantity, quality and creativity (Cohen & Williamson, 1991). Moreover, Navaz, Mohsan, and Khan (2011) point out that the relationship is mediated by job satisfaction. Additionally, Elovainio, Kivimäki, and Vahtera, (2002) suggested that stress is a threatening factor for organizational performance and Meneze (2005) also stressed its negative influence on employees performance by leading low productivity and job satisfaction, increment in absenteeism and other problems like alcoholism, hypertension and cardiovascular problems.

Since stress lead to imbalance in body and has negative influence on employee performance, and therefore for the organizations, organizations and individuals try to adopt ways when they face with it as they would like to eliminate or alleviate the effect of it. Coping is one of the strategies that alleviate the effect of stress and Pareek (1997) defines it as the ways of dealing stress and the effort to come through with harmful conditions. Similarly, Mostert and Jobert (2005) referred coping as attempts of individuals in order to block, decrease or eliminate negative effects. Non-coping, on the other hand, is defined as efforts which have failed to overcome, allied with different physical and psychological strain, which in turn lead to increase level of stress (Callan, 1993), depression and anxiety (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989)

Due to its importance, coping and the way people cope with stress topics has been studied largely by researchers (Hobfoll, 1989; Greenglass, Schwarzer, and Taubert, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991; Mostert & Joubert, 2005; Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007). Various researchers have made categorization of coping dimensions. For example coping was grouped in to two categories as problem focused and emotion-focused. (Callan, 1993; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). While problem-focused types of coping are focused at the problem and try to find strategies in order to handle and solve problem, emotion-focused coping aim to reduce the impacts of stressful feelings occurred because of unpleasant experiences such as

through relaxation, social activities and defense mechanisms, including procrastination and avoidance from stressors (Rothman & Van Rensburg, 2002).

Similarly, Brandtstädter (1992) proposed assimilative and accommodative coping by emphasizing on modification. First one refers to modification of the environment and second one, accommodative coping, refers to self-modification.

Parker and Endler(1996) suggested avoidance coping as an alternative point of the grouping of the coping types which is avoidance coping defined as an individual's cognitive and behavioral efforts focused towards minimizing denying, or disregarding handling with a stressors (Holahan, Holahan, Moos, Brennan, & Schutte, 2005). However these styles may not be stable individual's appraisal of the condition may change the type of coping that a person uses (Edwards & Holden, 2001). This refers that context of the situation influences on the coping strategies (Shimazu & Kousigi, 2003) and people can use different coping styles since the ways in which people appraise situations vary, so does the context or situation.

While traditional stress research has tended to emphasize on the things that we can do when we get stressed, latest coping research focuses that there are some actions that can be taken before stressful events occur. Especially, the conceptualization of coping has transumed and modified after the influence of positive psychology movement (Peiro, 2007) and now involves personal growth and self-regulated goal attainment strategies (Schawarzer & Knoll, 2003). Therefore, a new conceptualization of coping has been proposed by Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) as proactive and preventive coping which focus on proactive, goal-oriented and adaptive way of coping. According to them traditional coping models focuses on the reactive nature of coping and pay attention on the way people cope with past or ongoing stressors. However proactive and preventive coping deal with anticipated, possible stressful situations which have not occurred. Therefore, these are motivationally higher order concepts. While proactive coping is defined as individual's efforts to go after to get new challenges, create new opportunities, and enable promotion toward challenging goals; preventive coping is defined as the process by which an individual construct resources and stand in case possible stressors occur in the distant future. Therefore the main purpose in preventive coping is just to be on the safe side while in proactive

coping, is to taking a step forward the situation to develop opportunities to grow and at the same time to be on the safe side.

Knowing that stress factor is one of the most influential elements affecting employee's wellbeing and have a large impact on organizational outcomes, the way of coping as a motivational style of individuals was considered in the present study. Furthermore, the effect of this factor on outcomes and its explanatory mechanisms were examined. Therefore, the present study aims to explore the influence of proactive and preventive coping styles on the organizational outcomes as professional self-esteem job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and job performance. Additionally, how these factors will be connected to each other will be explored. People with different coping styles may develop different attachments to work namely engagement on the positive side and burnout on the negative side. These styles may in turn be connected to the outcomes mentioned above.

Although literature usually dealt with the various organizational and individual outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism (Steers, Porter & Bigley, 1996; Anderson, 2004; Robins, Odendaal and Roodt, 2003), the present study included professional self-esteem as an important outcome of stress and its possible relationship with the coping styles as there is dearth of study related to this kind of individual outcome as a result of coping styles orientation. In this regard, professional self-esteem was chosen as one of the outcome variables since the role of profession is crucially important for individuals in their life time. Moreover it is very important concept because professional self-esteem enables professionals to understand their worthiness, evaluate their expertise and adapt themselves accordingly (Tabassum, Ali, & Bibi, 2012).

1.2 Proactive and Preventive Coping

1.2.1 Definitions of Proactive and Preventive Coping

Potential stressors can be encountered everywhere in life. To deal with stressors coping is crucially important. Lazarus & Folkman (1984) defined coping as thoughts and behaviors which are used for dealing with the internal and external demands of situations that are perceived as stressful by individuals. According to

them, coping is a process that emerges in the context of a situation perceived as personally important and exceeding one's resources for coping. Traditional coping models tend to emphasize the reactive function of coping and underline the way people cope with past or ongoing stressors (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). However, when the term "Eustress" which was suggested by Selye(1956) and the challenge introduced by Lazarus, coping and research area was set for a positive evaluation and proactive coping is the latest addition to the positive point of coping research (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002).

Offering a further perspective which arises from a time-related categorization, Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) classified coping in terms of time and the subjective precision of the situations. In other words coping depends on the time perspective of the stressor and subjective certainty of the situation. Having been in the past or will be in the future and whether it is certainly happen or not is a decisive factor for coping. According to their categorization, there are four coping perspectives as a function of timing and certainty; Reactive Coping, Anticipatory Coping, Preventive and Proactive Coping (Schawarzer & Taubert, 2002; Schwarzer & Knoll, 2009).

Reactive Coping can be defined as an effort to come through with an ongoing stressful event one which has already occurred. Compensation or acceptance of harm or loss is one of the primal purposes in this coping style. It can be problem focused, emotion- focused, or social relation- focused.

Anticipatory Coping can be defined as an effort to overcome with threats or stressful situations which are about to happen. In this kind of coping, individuals encounter with a critical situation that will happen in the near future. Individuals have to manage the perceived risk of the situation that will take place in order to prevent harm or loss because of the upcoming situation.

On the other hand, preventive coping can be defined as exertions for uncertain events in the long run. In preventive coping the aim is to construct general resistance resources that result in harm in the future by keeping the intensity of negative situations in the minimum perceived as risky and/or harmful. In this kind of coping, individuals consider a critical situation that may or may not happen in the future. People try to accumulate resources and take general precautions to protect themselves against a variety of potentially harmful and/or risky events.

Proactive coping can be identified as an effort to build up general resources that bring promotion toward challenging goals and personal growth. In proactive coping individuals see risks and demands as challenging in the far future as illustrated in figure 1.1. They accumulate resources, develop skills and build up strategies in accordance with their ideal goals. Therefore coping is considered as goal management instead of risk management as in the preventive coping.

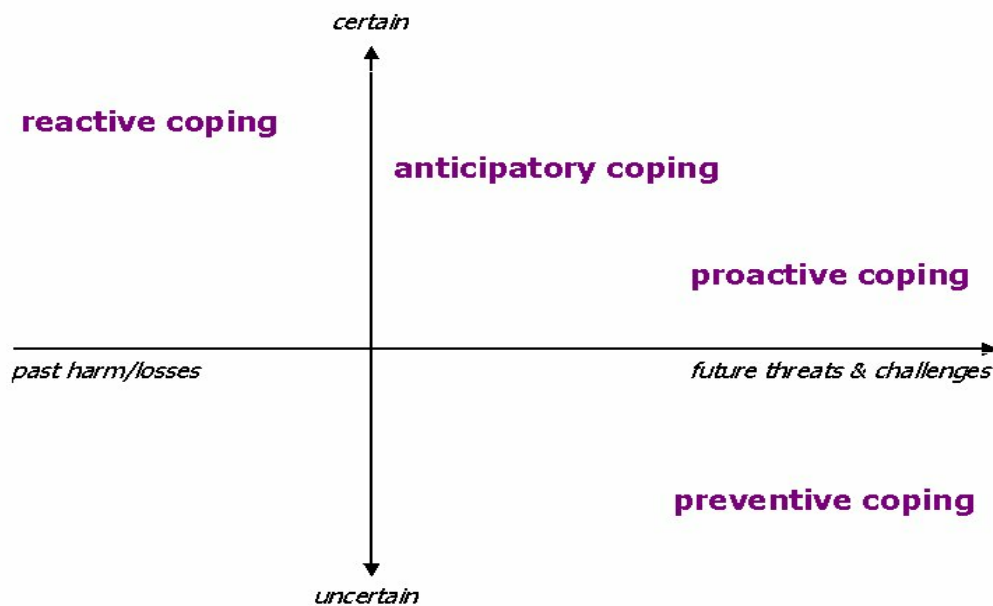


Figure 1.1 Outline of Proactive Coping Source: (Schwarzer & Taubert ,2002)

Contrary to the traditional notions of coping mentioned above, like reactive coping Schwarzer and Taubert defined (2002), proactive coping and preventive coping are directed at stressful situations that might happen in the future. In this regard it can be said that these coping styles are more active and purposeful approaches. However, researchers could not arrive at a consensus on the definition of proactive coping although they accept it as a general notion in the coping field. While Aspinwall and Taylor(1997), define proactive coping as people's effort to get ready for potentially arising events, and/or to keep minimum the severity of these situations before happen, Schwarzer and Taubert (2002), referred proactive coping as people's efforts to generate general resources that serve an opportunity for promotion toward challenging goals, self-actualization and personal development. According to second

view suggested by Schwarzer and Taubert (2002), proactive coping is not considered by the person's perception of potential threat or assessment of harm in terms of potential stressors. Moreover, Greenglass, Schwarzer, Jakubiec, Fiksenbaum and Taubert (1999a, p. 4) define proactive coping as "an approach to life, an existential belief that things will work out not because of luck or other uncontrollable factors, but because the individual takes responsibility for outcomes". Hence, Schwarzer and Taubert regard the definition suggested by Aspinwall and Taylor (1997) as preventive coping instead of proactive coping because of these explicit differences.

The existence of different definition on proactive coping may be because of limited studies since it is a newly studied topic of positive psychology. Among the differences referring toward proactive coping, this study focuses on the definition of proactive coping as the strategies that are directed to construct general resources that facilitate promotion toward challenging goals and personal growth. The preventive coping was defined as the efforts to prepare potential arising situations to detect and prevent possible stressors in order to minimize the severity of these events. Therefore in this study, proactive and preventive coping will be referred to their distinctive, particular definition as suggested by Schwarzer and Taubert (2002).

Proactive and preventive coping differ in three ways according to Schwarzer and Taubert. First of all, the two coping strategies have different points in terms of motivations. While proactive coping is based on challenge appraisal, preventive coping comes from harmful evaluations due to risk perceptions (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). Second, people take more constitutive and intentional actions in proactive coping (Greenglass, Schwarzer, & Taubert, 1999) but in preventive coping, individuals build up more defensive and general strategies to save resources for their future needs. According to Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) while proactive coping is goal management, preventive coping is risk management. Risk management is defined as the activities including preventing and minimizing the occurrence of situations that is perceived as threatening. It focuses on how the negative effects of situation risk are managed (Dancilescu, 2013). Goal management, on the other hand is defined as the ability of a person to be able to control and regulate himself/herself in an effective way towards the achievement of what makes the individual happy and satisfied (Opayemi & Balagun, 2011). According to Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) main focus of goal

management includes efforts through commitment and self-control which was defined as the ability to control one's impulses (Hagger, Wood, Stiff, & Chatzisarantis, 2010) to achieving a particular goal.

Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) characterized preventive coping as a kind of risk management because, in here, individuals have to manage different ambiguous risks in the long run and referred proactive coping as a goal management instead of risk management because in proactive coping, individuals are proactive in the sense that they start a purposeful way while taking action and create opportunities for personal development. Proactive individuals are motivated to face with challenges and they try to achieve personal quality standards. Third difference specified by them is the level of worry discrepancy between preventive and proactive coping. While worry levels are higher in the former, lower in the latter.

While Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) have focused on defining the differential points between proactive and preventive coping and other kind of coping strategies, Aspinwall and Taylor (1997) focused on the process of proactive coping suggesting that there are five stages of proactive coping in terms of:

- (1) Resource accumulation: Attaining enough resources which can be obtaining all the way through the life. These kinds of resources allow people to get ready for changes that may happen during later adult life.
- (2) Recognition of potential resources: To recognize and identify a potential stressor, a person should figure out that what may threaten his/her wellbeing.
- (3) Initial appraisal; Clues signaling a potential stressor need to be identified and evaluated by the person as a harm or threat that requires to take preventive action.
- (4) Preliminary coping efforts: Beginning of coping efforts will encompass both behavioral actions, for example trying to get deeper information about the potential threat or modification in terms of way of life and cognitive strategies, such as building plans to the potential harm or loss.
- (5) Seeking and using feedback concerning initial efforts: Involves using of feedback and provides a person to review and remodeling their proactive coping.

From the above it can also be inferred that Aspinwall and Taylor's definition of proactive coping is based on to prevent potential threats which is labeled as preventive coping by Schwarzer and Taubert (2002). Therefore, Aspinwall and Taylor's definition for proactive coping is treated as preventive coping in this study as Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) premised.

1.2.2 Research on Proactive and Preventive Coping

Most research on proactive coping has focused on the elderly, the mentally ill individuals or individuals with depression (Gan, Yang, Zhou, Zang, 2007). It seems that proactive coping is related to many positive outcomes. Greenglass, Fiksenbaum, and Eaton (2006) studied the use of proactive coping among the elderly individuals and they found that proactive coping correlated negatively with depression and some degree of disability. On the other hand, proactive coping significantly associated with lower level of those above. Taken together, it can be inferred that elderly individuals using proactive coping is more likely to see him/her as self-sufficient. In addition to research conducted among elderly people, researchers conducted studies also non-elderly participants and found a negative association between proactive coping and depression. They discovered that the more people use proactive coping strategy the less they feel depressed (Greenglass & Uskul, 2005; Schwarzer & Taubert, 1999).

According to Parker, Bindl, Strauss (2010), in order to change a situation not happened yet toward a more favorable anticipated one, individuals must know how to change them before happen and have high confidence in their predictions and capabilities to effect change. In other words individuals need to have "can do motivation" to change to situations to more desirable ones. Can do motivation comprises self-efficacy beliefs, control appraisals and attributions towards a task such as fear of failure (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). From this perspective one can assume that individuals high in proactive coping have that capacity to change the situation which may not exist yet toward a more desirable environment since they focus to create opportunities for growth ,take purposeful and constructive actions for this purpose (Locke, 2005) and have high self-esteem and high self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Taubert,2002; Veresova & Mala, 2012). However, individuals high in preventive coping build up general resistance resources, saving time, money, social bonds and

skills just in case of necessity. They would like to change the situation only if they appraise the upcoming situation as a potential threat for them (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). In parallel to this, Aspinwall and MacNamara (2005) proposed that individuals will not engage in proactive coping which is actually labeled as preventive coping by Schwarzer and Taubert (2002), if the effort is perceived or appraised as not cost beneficial in terms of time, money, effort or other resources compared to the gain they may provide. From this aspect it seems that preventive coping individuals and individuals with low self-esteem show great similarities because individuals with low self-esteem tend to avoid risky situations and threats by preferring to stay out from challenges (Wood, Giardono-Beech, Taylor, Michela, & Gaus, 1994) as preventive copers do. Moreover preventive coping individuals are not likely to associate high self-efficacy because their primary motivation is managing risks and prevent threats by building up general resources in order to minimize the bad influence of negative situation. Proactive coping individuals, however seems that share great resemblance with individuals with high self-esteem since they are success oriented and focus their abilities in order to achieve their goal (Baumeister & Tice, 1985). Additionally, proactive coping seems that have also common point with high self-efficacy individuals because people high in self-efficacy strive to achieve higher goals and willing to take risks if he/she sees an opportunity for growth as indicated in the studies (Greenglass et.al, 2006; Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002; Veresova & Mala, 2012)

Veresova (2013) investigated the relationship between procrastination and the level of stress and coping with stress. She discovered a highly significant negative correlation between procrastination of teachers and proactive coping which implies that teachers who are using proactive coping styles are low procrastination. However, they could not find a significant relationship between preventive coping and procrastination which means that proactive coping strategy is considered to highly effective strategy in handling stress compared to preventive coping because they also observed a significant positive correlation between procrastination and level of stress. According to her findings, procrastinator individuals express themselves by irritation and impulsive behavior, nervousness, emotional exhaustion, feeling of helplessness, disengagement towards work. Findings also indicated that procrastinating teachers do not prefer focusing on goals and future demands that could provide self-development.

Taken these findings together it can be inferred that while proactive coping individuals more focus on their goals and take purposeful action without procrastinating, preventive coping individuals are more likely to procrastinate and in turn experience negative feelings by developing disengagement towards their work. Schwarzer et al. (1999) also supports this idea by describing proactive coping individual as ingenious, responsible, attentive, who take responsibility for his/her own actions and applies the vision of success. Reuter and Schwarzer (2009) also states that although proactive coping people see risks, demands and opportunities in the distant future, they do not appraise them as threats harm or loss.

This situation mentioned above about the goal orientation of proactive and preventive individuals can also be discussed from the point of regulatory focus theory which underlies the motivation of individuals in achieving a goal through two pathways referred to as promotion focus and prevention focus (Higgins, 1997). According to this theory individuals can either adopt a promotion focus which was defined as efforts aiming to achieve goals through personal growth and success or prevention focus which was defined as the efforts aiming to be on the safe side and motivations fulfilling security needs. For example in promotion focus a sales representative may put his/her targets to gain new customers to reach a good employee standards and raise his/her targets when the previous one achieved. Whereas, in prevention focus a sales representative may adjust his/her targets to keep existing customers and build up strategies in order not to lose them. Contrary to promotion focus oriented sales representative; he/she does not construct challenging goals. Studies support these examples with empirical data. Research conducted by Förster, Higgins & Bianco (2003) discovered a positive association between promotion focus and the motivation of employees to reach maximum level of performance. On the other hand research performed by Förster, Higgins and Idson (1998) suggested that in prevention focus, individuals put themselves minimal standards of performance by adopting a vigilance strategy in order to eliminate or minimize risk factors. Prevention focus individuals are motivated to avoid threats and risks with a self-protective orientation (Heimpel, Elliot and Wood, 2006) like preventive coping individuals. Similar to proactive coping, promotion focus individuals on the other hand, motivated to face with challenges and create opportunities for self-development (Baumeister &

Tice, 1985) and exert their skills and talents by taking risks when necessary (Wood et.al, 1994).

Studies also showed that, proactive coping is associated with affect, satisfaction with life positively (Chang & Sanna, 2001). For instance, Sohl and Moyer(2009) investigated how proactive and preventive coping relates to well-being and found that while conceptualizing proactive coping as positively striving for goals was predictive of well-being, conceptualizing proactive coping as focused on preventing a negative future, which is preventive coping as Schwarzer and Taubert(2002) stated, was not. Briefly, preventive coping was not related to well-being while proactive coping is. They also found that while proactive coping was associated with use of resources, future appraisal, realistic goal setting and use of feedback, preventive coping was only associated with future appraisal (Sohl & Moyer, 2009)

Individuals perceive some work stressors to be manageable since they feel the stressors under their control. In this way, stressors may be considered as an opportunity for individual growth since they are appraised as challenging and potentially rewarding by proactive coping individuals. Demands or stressors are identified as challenging when they potentially promise the personal growth and achievement of employee and individuals feel that they can manage those (Podsakof, LePine, and LePine, 2007). On the contrary, some stressors are considered as hindrance because individuals do not feel that they are manageable. (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, Boudreau, 2000). From this perspective, in preventive coping, people have a tendency to see the difficult situations as hindrance.

The logic behind how and why individuals perceive stressors hindrance or challenging and how they are affected in terms of their stressor appraisal can be explained by self-determination theory. According to this theory, situations perceived as an opportunity for growth provide higher motivation and in turn facilitate higher engagement and job performance. Whereas situations perceived as hindering, impair growth opportunities and in turn reduce engagement and motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Hindrance stressors lead to negative emotions such as anxiety and feelings of threat and these types of feelings bring more emotion focused coping(e.g, withdrawal, retaliation, distraction) (Karasek, 1979; Lazarus & Folkman 1984; Spector, 1998). Lepine, Podsakoff and LePine, (2005) also suggested that challenge stressors were

linked to motivation positively, whereas hindrance stressors were associated negatively with this notion. Additionally, they discovered a positive correlation between challenge stressors and motivation and in turn it leads better performance. However hindrance stressors are not motivating since the effort spent to deal with them is not likely to be successful. Moreover, Podsakoff, Lepine, & LePine (2007), observed that stressors which were not appraised in a positive way like hindrance stressors, associated with job satisfaction negatively. Moreover empirical findings supported this statement by suggesting a negative relationship between hindrance stressors and job performance (Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier, & Finch, 2009).

In this regard proactive coping can also be associated with a direct decrease of negative impacts, including depression and burnout, direct increase in work engagement since individuals using proactive coping may see the demands as rewarding work experiences for their future. Preventive coping on the other hand can be associated with a direct decrease in engagement because in preventive coping, individuals may have a tendency to appraise as hindrance since they do not see the stressful situations as an opportunity for growth, instead they appraise the stressors as potential threats.

In the coping process, Park & Folkman (1997) underlines the importance of continued experience of positive mood states during stressful situations. Billings, Folkman, Acree and Moskowitz (2000) exemplify the importance of positive feelings in their study they conducted among caregivers of individuals with HIV and they discovered a positive relationship between engaging in positive coping behavior and positive affect which in turn lower levels of negative physical symptoms such as headaches, sores and chest pain. From this point it is obvious that proactive coping combines personal quality of life management and self-regulatory goal attainment (Greenglass, 2002). According to Burns, Brown, Sachs-Ericsson, Plant, Curtis and Frederickson (2006), using proactive coping may facilitate the continued experience of positive mood over time. Individuals engaging in proactive coping continue to experience not only less negative emotions but also they experience positive mood states when they face with difficult situations. Sohl & Moyer(2009) support this idea in their study examining whether preventive or proactive coping were most predictive

of well-being and positive emotions and it was found that only proactive coping was predicted the well-being and positive emotions.

Experiencing positive emotions also provide individuals to utilize resources such as building new social bonds. Hambrick and McCord (2010) support this state in their study which examines the relationship between proactive, preventive coping styles and personality. Results showed significantly positive correlation between agreeableness, extraversion and proactive coping and significantly negative correlation between neuroticism and proactive coping but results did not indicate any significant relationship for preventive coping and between these factors. These results imply that proactive coping individuals are less likely to experience negative emotions compared to preventive coping individuals and they are more open to seek social support from their environment since they are more extraverted and agreeable. These tendencies in proactive coping may motivate people to construct interpersonal relations with other individuals more easily compared to preventive coping because the characteristics of agreeableness and extraversion. Agreeableness is often expressed as an individual's willingness to toward pro-social behaviors and ability to get along with other people (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997; McCrae & John, 1992) and extraversion is defined is the tendency toward building social interaction and positive affect (Watson & Clark, 1997).

The above mentioned situations can also be explained by broaden-build theory which states that positive emotions extend people's mentality by providing them to generate resources, however negative emotions limits one's turn of mind (Fredrickson, 2001). Guribye, Sandal and Oppedal (2011) also observed that the experience of positive mood states with proactive coping provide individuals to establish more social supportive relationships than preventive coping. In this regard, the experience of positive emotions may support the discovery of new social bonds which can be helpful for a person in building personal resources. Thanks to this construction individuals can benefit from job resources which are defined as all aspects that lighten the burden of job demands, support achievement of work goals and/or stimulate individual growth by Demerouti, Bakker, Jonge, Janssen, Schaufeli (2001). Therefore job resources can be vitally important in dealing with stressors and data revealed that resources have a positive influence in acquiring work engagement.

(Demerouti et al, 2001). Lack of resources on the other hand, has been linked to fatigue and burnout in both cross sectional and longitudinal studies (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Based on these evidences, about personality and positive emotions it can be inferred that positive coping styles such as proactive coping provide individuals an environment to use job resources more effectively because either they have opportunities to find resources or create new resources at work and in turn they experience less stress by finding a positive meaning from stressful situations. However, this inference cannot be assumed for preventive coping individuals since they experience negative emotions such as worry, instead positive emotions (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002) and also they are not as agreeable and extraverted as proactive coping individuals.

Findings above do imply that proactive coping individuals will experience less life stressors and deal better when confront with stressors compared to preventive coping individuals and in turn they will experience less of the negative consequences of demands of their lives such as less burnout and they will experience more positive experiences just opposite of burnout like engagement. These terms can be named work attachments as positive for engagement and negative for burnout. Individuals attached positively will have more positive individual and organizational outcomes like better performance (Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes, 2002) but individuals attached negatively will not (Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill, 2009).

The literature lacks the data to show the direct relationship between proactive and preventive coping and work attachment styles in terms of burnout which is the negative state of work attachment and work engagement whis is the positive one. Therefore one of the aims of this study is to discover these relationships between these two coping skills and two work attachment styles and while burnout is used for negative attachment, engagement is used for positive attachment in the present study.

1.3 Burnout

Job burnout is defined as a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization of others and a feeling of reduced accomplishment (Lee & Ashfort,

1996) as a result of continues exposure to human related and work originated stress (Bakker, Schaufeli, Sixma, Bosveld, & van Dierendonck, 2000; Taris, LeBlanc, Schaufeli, Schreurs, 2005). Low self-esteem, feelings of inadequacy, worry and withdrawal from others are among the human related antecedents of burnout (Alarcon, Eschleman, Bowling, 2009) and workload, role conflict, role ambiguity, (Leiter & Maslach, 2008) and lack of support from co-workers (Jansen, Schaufeli and Houkes, 1999) are among the work related predictors of burnout.

Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) suggest the term burnout which is defined as a crisis in an employee's relationship with work in general. The concept of burnout emerged in the 1970s and was originally used to define the emotional depletion, lack of commitment and motivation (Freudenberger, 1974). It has also defined as the negative end of work attachment styles by the researchers because employees experiencing burnout tend to have psychological withdrawal from the organization (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen (2009) states that definitions of burnout may vary, however all definitions typically share the core element of exhaustion. So it is clear that the outcomes of burnout likely to have negative influence on staff. According to Maslach and Jackson (1986) burnout may lead a decline in the quality of care service that is performed by employees. They also add that burnout can be a reason of personal dysfunction, increment in alcohol consumption and using drugs and family problems. It goes without saying that it is related to poor mental health consequences, such as anxiety and depression. Studies on occupational mental health has noted that episodes of depression can be triggered by factors associated with work (Arsenault, Dolan, Van Ameringen, 1991; Baba & Jamal, 1998). In addition, burnout has been associated with more serious health problems such as musculoskeletal pain and cardiovascular disease (Landsbergis, 2003). So burnout can be identified as disattachment since it has negative influence on organizational outcomes (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Because of these negative impacts, the relationship between coping and burnout has been focused in the studies in order to understand if it is effective in alleviating the burden of stress (Van Rhenen, Schaufeli, Van Dijk, & Blonk, 2008). Proactive coping can be named as an effective coping in preventing burnout since individuals using proactive coping is able to utilize resources to offset stress and burnout (Greenglass, 2005). However contrary to proactive coping

individuals, as explained previously, preventive coping oriented individuals are more likely to experience burnout because they are not able to use internal (i.e. self-esteem, self-efficacy) and external resources (i.e. colleague or managerial support) which can be helpful in alleviating the burden of stress (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008).

In addition to the negative impact on employee well-being, burnout has also negative influence on organizational level outcomes. Many studies have shown that burnout is related to increased employee sick leave and turnover intentions. (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Moreover the exhaustion dimension of burnout has been linked with lower job satisfaction (Kalliath & Morris, 2002, Dallender & Arnetz, 1999). Studies also note the negative influence of burnout on employee performance. Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads (1994) suggest some explanations related with burnout and behavioral outcomes such as job performance and they note that, exhaustion diminishes the available energy of employees and leads to a decrement of the efforts put into work. In addition to this, the experience of burnout decreases level of employee's self-esteem in solving work-related problems (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli & Schreurs, 2003). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) provide some explanations for the relationship between burnout and organizational citizenship behavior and note that, when professionals experience burnout, they lose their concern for the organization and become hypercritical, distrusting towards management, peers, and colleagues. In other words they show lower extra-role performance when they become burned-out. Similarly, Chiu and Tsai (2006) have discovered the negative association between burnout and organizational citizenship behavior.

As high level of stress because of continuous exposure to stressors related to negative outcomes for employees and organizations, dealing with stressors with positive coping skills effectively like proactive coping was expected to associate positive consequences for both individuals and organizations. Work engagement is the consequence of dealing with stressors effectively and in turn result in better consequences for employees.

1.4 Work Engagement

Maslach and Leiter (1997) rephrased burnout “an erosion of engagement with the job”. That means it is the opposite of engagement which is a positive attachment to one’s job. One of the first conceptualization of engagement was suggested by Kahn (1990). According to him, engagement occurs when employees know what is expected from them and construct strong and meaningful connections with their colleagues. Disengagement occurs on the other hand when employees perform incomplete responsibilities and inattentive task behaviors. (Hochschild, 1983). Later, engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the enthusiasm to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence when confronted with difficulties. Dedication refers to a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption, the third dimension of work engagement, is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily attached in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalaez-Roma & Bakker, 2002).

Coping can have positive influence on work engagement since it is associated with higher levels of positive aspects of well-being (Shioata, 2006). Alleviating the negative influence of stress, coping can increase well-being and individuals feeling psychologically well may engage their work. Studies showed that in a work full of resources, people experience positive attachment to their work, namely engagement as they better cope with the stressful or situations involving high demands. (Cooper, Dewe, & O’Driscoll, 2001; LePine et.al, 2005)

Therefore, proactive coping has emerged as a new center of a positive psychology and studies have shown that it predicts engagement and its vigor and dedication dimensions (Sohl & Moyer, 2009). Additionally, Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris (2008) indicate that it is one of the important direct antecedents of work engagement as it is related to increased resources and appraising the demands as challenge rather than hindrance (Greenglass, Schawarzer, & Taubert, 1999; Schwarzer and Taubert, 2002).

Job resources are also one of the direct antecedents of work engagement. According to Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke (2004), job resources provide employees a positive state of mind towards the work because job resources buffer the negative influence of job demands and offer an opportunity to personal growth and to be functional in goal achievement.

In addition to the studies that examine the factors affecting work engagement, there are also numerous studies suggesting a relationship between work engagement, wellbeing and job performance. Hallberg & Schaufeli (2006) found that work engagement associated negatively with health complaints such as depression, somatic complaints and sleep disturbances. In addition they found a strong and negative relationship between work engagement and burnout.

Studies also propose that engaged workers may perform their responsibilities better and show more voluntary effort in terms of going above and further what is expected in their responsibilities. Bakker et al. (2004) also found reveal that engaged employees made higher score in terms of extra role performance ratings than those who were not engaged.

Additionally, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2008) found that work engagement mediated the relationship between self-efficacy, which is considered to be one of the personal resources, and both their in-role and extra-role performances. Moreover, Bakker and Demereouti (2008) explain that engaged employees show better performance compared to those who are not since they are emotionally more positive (happy and enthusiastic). In addition, Salanova, Agut and Peiro (2005) conducted a study about organizational resources, engagement and job performance. The results of the study demonstrated that organization resources and engagement predicted employee performance. Saks (2006) also found that engagement was associated significantly with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, lower intention to quit and organizational citizenship behavior. Based on the literature, it can be inferred that as resources, proactive coping strategy is related to some form of work attachment (more engagement, less burnout) and in turn these styles have some organizational outcomes. In the next section, these outcomes will be explained.

1.5 Organizational Outcomes

As a negative attachments style, burnout may directly influence individuals sense of who they are and how they evaluate themselves as a member of job unit negatively whereas work engagement may have direct positive influence on these personal and organizational perceptions of individuals.

The work attachment styles namely burnout and work engagement were explained in the previous section. The following section will include some particular consequences of burnout and engagement and both the association and consequences among them will be explained with empirical data.

Knowing that work attachment styles have either positive or negative effect on job performance and job attitudes depending whether it is burnout or work engagement, professional self-esteem and job satisfaction were picked as consequences related job attitude and task performance and organizational citizenship behavior were picked as consequences related job performance in this study.

1.5.1 Professional Self Esteem

The important role of profession in the life of people in modern societies directed researchers to suggest that professional self-esteem has a crucial share in explaining job performance, life and job satisfaction. Researchers indicate (1963) that an occupation has a direct influence on an individual's life satisfaction and affects his/her life significantly (Super, 1963; Weaver, 1978; Bamundo & Kopelman, 1980; Mottaz, 1985). Therefore, the importance of the professional self-esteem cannot be underestimated since it is a prerequisite of vocational adjustment and job satisfaction (Arıcak, 1999) and it provides individuals to realize their potentials and appraise their personal worth.

Researchers' definitions for self-esteem and professional self-esteem suggest that while self-esteem refers to general concept related to individuals' perception of their self-worth, professional self-esteem refers to individuals' perceived worth through their occupations. In other words, while self-esteem is defined as the appraisal of a person's own self-worth (Bandura, 1997), professional self-esteem is defined as individual's appraisal about professional competence, competence, and worth through a positive-negative direction (Arıcak, 1999). The importance of professional self-

esteem to general self-esteem can be found in the study of Oztas (2010) who observed a significant positive relationship between professional self-esteem and self-esteem. Therefore in order to have a better understanding about the professional self-esteem, self-concept and self-esteem term should also be understood. Markus & Wurf (1987) define self-concept as a combination conceptualizations about various ways of the self. Self-esteem on the other hand is the appraisal of individual's self by himself/herself (Rosenberg, 1965).

Simpson & Boyle (1975) stated three kinds of self-esteem. They are global, task or situation specific and professional self-esteem. According to them; Global self-esteem is an overall evaluation of an individual's self-worth. It is stable and trait-like (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Hollenback & Brief, 1987;). Moreover, It is stable across all situations for each individual, and it projects the appraisals of significant others over an individual's lifetime.

On the other hand, task or situation-specific self-esteem is the self-appraisal that comes from behaviors in a particular circumstance and according to Gecas and Schawable (1986), it is parallel to self-efficacy conceptually.

Lastly, professional self-esteem (Role Self-Esteem) is an individual's self-evaluation that arises from the roles throughout life such as roles as an employee or a parent. Combining self-efficacy with self-respect, professional self-esteem is a sense of self-worth regarding professional life and particular to role-specific self-esteem. According to Schumann, it is shaped by individual's experiences and it comprises personal appraisal of an individual's capacity, performance and values (1991).

In addition to the close relationship between self-esteem and professional self-esteem, Self-concept and especially self-efficacy are closely related terms to the professional self-esteem concept (Baloglu, Karadag, Çalışkan, & Korkmaz, 2006). Zieff (1995) hypothesized that self-efficacy concept premised by Bandura's (1977) is a factor that incites a healthy sense of professional self-esteem, and he made a separation between personal and professional self-esteem. According to him, while personal self-esteem can be more private and largely uncertain to others, professional self-esteem may be a more public self and a high professional self-esteem could be helpful to increase of the persons' personal self-esteem.

Self-evaluative tendencies such as self-esteem and self-efficacy are the important personal resources that enable individuals to have self-enhancing orientation and high motivation toward their job and in turn result in positive outcomes such as work engagement (Harnett, 1995; Allinder, 1994; Pajares & Barich, 2005). People who are high in self-efficacy feel confident in their ability to perform their work properly; whereas people low in self-efficacy do not believe themselves due their beliefs that do not have enough skills and abilities to perform their work job well. In this respect, Jex and Bliese (1999) note that people having high self-efficacy report less strain when they confront high job demands and stress. Smilarly, Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) stated that compared to individuals high on self-efficacy, individuals having low level of self-efficacy suffer from distress and negative emotions, namely depression, anxiety, depression helplessness and burnout (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008).

Therefore, knowing both the relationship between self-esteem, self-efficacy and professional self-esteem and positive association between them one can be assume that proactive coping may have a positive effect on professional self-esteem since proactive coping individuals have necessary resources associated positively with professional self-esteem. However this inference may not be directed towards preventive coping since preventive coping individuals and individuals with low self-esteem and low self-efficacy resemble each other in their efforts to just focusing to manage risk by avoiding from challenges (Wood et al, 1994; Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002).

Greenglass et. al (1999), explain this situation proposing that, proactive coping draws on both internal and external resources. While optimism and self-efficacy refer to the internal resources options, social support can be referred to the external resources and researchers support the idea that proactive coping individuals use the internal and external resources since they have an optimistic belief about their personal capacity to overcome difficult situations and cope with obstacles (Oshner, Scholz, & Hornung, 2013). In another study analyzing the relation between proactive coping and self-efficacy of teachers discovered a highly significant positive correlation between self-efficacy and proactive coping. However they could not find that strong

relationship between preventive coping and self-efficacy as they did for proactive coping (Veresova & Mala, 2012).

Taken together this findings related self-efficacy and positive association between self-efficacy and professional self-esteem, it can be inferred that individuals using proactive coping may feel also higher professional self-esteem in comparison to preventive coping individuals due to their high self-efficacy and having their opportunity to use internal and external resources.

In addition to an important personal concept of professional self-esteem as an outcome of coping, as an organizational and individual outcome, job satisfaction, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior captured the attention of many researchers in terms of both their antecedents and dimensions. Goal orientation especially proactive goal orientation as a motivational concept as it is related to goal setting (Parker et. al., 2010) may be considered to be one of the correlates of these organizational outcomes. In the next section each will be explained in order.

1.5.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most studied topics in the literature of industrial/organizational psychology and social psychology (Parnell & Crandall, 2003), perhaps it is vitally important for both employers and employees because the lack of job satisfaction may increase absenteeism, turnover and decrease performance and result in decreased productivity (Koys, 2001). Likewise Castel, Engberg, Anderson and Aiju (2007) examined the relationship between job satisfaction of nurses and their intention to leave and actual turnover. They discovered that the more individuals high on job satisfaction the less they think about leaving.

Job satisfaction refers a positive psychological and emotional condition appearing from evaluation of one's job and experiences related job (Locke, 1976). When features of individuals' job go beyond of their expectation they feel satisfied. Calvo- Salguero, Gonzales, Martinez (2010) also defined job satisfaction as an attitude related with the extent to which employees like or dislike their job. According to Mullins (1999) factors effecting job satisfaction are individual, social, cultural factors, organizational and environmental factors.

Similarly, Bender, Donohue, Heywood (2005) also explained that job satisfaction is influenced by a different factors within the job itself as well as by internal personal characteristics and motivation (Pool, 1997). Personal characteristics are also very influential on job satisfaction according to Pool (1997). Williamson et. Al (2005), observed that high level of conscientiousness predict job satisfaction. Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham (1989) claim that the extent to which a person enthusiastic about his or her job associates positively with job satisfaction. Furthermore, Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger (1988) have observed that the important dispositional factor affecting job satisfaction is core self-evaluations asserting that if a person has a positive self-regard, he/she likely to see his/her job in a more positive way. They proposed that core self-evaluations are linked to job satisfaction since individuals with positive core self -evaluations both see their jobs more challenging and take more responsibilities. Many studies also indicated a positive relation between self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Klassen, Bong, Usher, Chong, Huan, Wong, Georgiou, 2009; Viel, Houchins, Jolivet, Benson, 2010).

In addition to the effect of personal resources on job satisfaction, positive emotions also have a direct effect on job satisfaction. Brockner and Higgins (2001) discovered the positive influence of cheerful emotions on job satisfaction because positive emotions may enables individuals to focus on positive sides of their job and in turn result in more job satisfaction. Robbins , Oddendaal and Roodt, (2003) also supported this finding in their research suggesting that more positive perceptions toward job will be indicator of greater job satisfaction.

From this point of view, one can assume that proactive coping individuals are likely to more satisfy from their job compared to preventive coping individuals since they have a higher self-efficacy, see their jobs more challenging (Schwarzer& Taubert, 2002) and associated with more positive emotion (Guribye, Sandal & Oppedal, 2011).

Work attachment styles namely burnout and engagement also have influential role on job satisfaction. Number of research demonstrated that job burnout has a negative influence on job satisfaction. (Biegen, 1993; Ay & Avsaroglu, 2010; Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker, Baker, 2010; Sharma 2010) Furthermore, Tsigilis, Koustelios and Togia (2004) discovered a significant negative relationship between

job satisfaction and burnout implying that employees feeling burnout results in lower job satisfaction. Moreover, Piko (2006) observed that each subscale of burnout is a negative predictor of job satisfaction.

Work engagement and job satisfaction are significantly related factors to each other (Crapanzano & Wright, 2001). Rosser (2004) and Simpson (2009) found a significant positive correlation between work engagement and job satisfaction. Additionally, May, Gilson and Harter (2004) also suggested that if employees are engaged in their work they will in turn experience job satisfaction since engaging in work might associate with positive effect and complacency (Keyes, 2007).

In addition to importance of job attitudes of employees, the assessment of employees' job performance has also a critical and essential function for organizations (Riggio, 2009) because through this mechanism, the company assesses the worthiness of all its employees and identifies the employees who are its key performers and the employees who need to be trained and motivated to perform better.

1.5.3 Job Performance

Defining, understanding and evaluating job performance has received an important attention from researchers (e.g., Arvey & Murphy, 1998; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) over the past two decades. In 1993, Borman and Motowidlo made a distinction categorization for job performance in terms of task performance and contextual performance. Task performance encompasses activities that are defined as part of the job and make contribution to the organization's technical core directly or indirectly. Contextual performance or organizational citizenship behavior, on the other hand, includes activities which make contribution to organizational effectiveness in ways that go further the responsibilities that within the particular job (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Generally these behaviors are performed voluntarily and are not within the formal job duties; however indicate exemplary forms of performance that is desirable and beneficial for organizations (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009).

Both individual and situational factors are related to job performance. For example, stress is one of the factors affecting job performance. Nawaz, Mohsan and Khan (2011) had conducted a research between the occupational stress and the

performance of employees and found a negative relationship between them. Likewise, Bashir and Ramay (2010), found out that stress in work environment lessen the intention of employees to perform more effective in jobs.

Predispositional factors also have an impact employees' performance. According to Seibert Crant, & Kraimer (1999), proactivity may provide better job performance since proactive individuals prefer and create situations that increase the probability of high level of performance. Thompson (2005) also investigated the relationship between proactivity and job performance and suggested that proactive people show high job performance by developing social networks that enables them the resources to show effective job performance.

Therefore based on the findings above, effective coping skills like proactive coping can block or alleviate the negative effect of stress by providing opportunities to use personal and job resources and predict job performance. It also predict higher job performance compared to preventive coping because in proactive coping, individuals try to achieve higher goals but in preventive coping, individuals may have minimally accepted standards for performance (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002).

Researchers also emphasizing the link between work attachment styles in terms of engagement and burn out and job performance because they have direct influence on it. Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli and Schreurs (2003) observed that the employees experiencing burnout had reduced their level of performance. Chiu and Tsai (2006) also discovered a negative relationship between burnout and job performance. Furthermore, Wright and Cropanzano (1997) indicated that emotional exhaustion which is one of the dimensions of burnout, have significant and negative influence on job performance. Therefore it can be inferred that the general reasons behind the negative influence of burnout on job performance are diminished energy of employees and losing their concern because of feeling exhausted, decreasing level of self-esteem while solving work-related problems.

In addition to the negative relationship between burnout and job performance, Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006) found that work engagement is positively related to this concept where found a negative relationship for burnout. Moreover, Bakker, Gierveld and Van Rijswijk (2006) reported significant and positive associations between school principals' work engagement scores and teacher-ratings

of school principals' performance. In addition, engagement was strongly related to creativity; the higher school principals' levels of work engagement, the better they were able to find out with a variety of ways to deal with work-related problems. Finally, engaged school principals were seen as transformational leaders – being able to inspire, stimulate and coach their co-workers.

Theoretically it can be made some possible explanations about the reasons why engagement fosters positively job performance based on the literature. The first explanation relates the positive affect and emotions attributed to work engagement which provides employees to build social networks and personal resources which foster the higher job performance (Gorgievski & Bakker, 2010). Second explanation for the positive influence on engagement can be ascribed to good health. According to Bakker and Leiter (2010), work engagement influence positively good health and in turn good mental and physical health predict job performance (Demerouti & Bakker, 2006).

In this study it is expected a positive association between proactive coping and job performance throughout the work engagement and negative association between preventive coping and job performance throughout burnout.

In the next section, organizational citizenship behavior which is among the classes of job performance will be explained in terms of the relationship between coping and attachment styles.

1.5.4 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Although the associations between stressors, coping and in-role performance have been well established (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried & Cooper, 2008), extra-role behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been given less attention.

Different definitions and conceptualizations have been made for the OCB by the researchers. Organ defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1998, p.4). Altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship are the five factors of the original OCB model (Organ, 1990). Alternatively, Spector and Fox

(2002, p.270) define OCB as “individuals may make voluntary contributions that go beyond specified task performance or the psychological contract with the employer.

A different conceptualization of OCB suggested by Williams and Anderson (1991) by differentiating the OCB as two part as interpersonal dimension (OCB-I) and organizational dimension (OCB-O) regarding the direction of behavior performed. OCB-I signs behaviors directed toward the benefit of other employees. Helping co-workers when they are not around and helping supervisor when she/he needs extra help are among the examples that can be given for OCB-I. On the other hand, OCB-O focuses on impersonal citizenship and signs behaviors directed toward the benefit of organization. Loyal boosterism (Moorman and Blakely, 1995), loyalty, obedience, participation (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994), and job dedication (Van Scooter and Motowidlo, 1996) are the examples for OCB-O.

Practical implications and importance of OCB are explicit although variety of definitions and conceptualizing definitions has been made for it. Organ (1988) noted that, OCB enhances organizational effectiveness by adding to resource transformations, innovativeness and adaptability. For instance, helping co-workers result in decreased inter-group conflict and in turn enables managers to focus on more important issues (Zarei Matin, Jandaghi & Ahmadi, 2010). Additionally, Schanake and Hogan (1995) revealed that OCB was associated to organizational flexibility and efficiency.

In addition to the influence of OCB on organizational outcomes and on individuals, there are also some factors influencing OCB. For example aspects of work setting are influential on OCB, such as organizational fairness (Tepper & Taylor, 2003). Moreover some stressors have an impact on OCB. If stressors perceived as hindrance by employees, they lead some negative emotions and these in turn reduce the likelihood of OCB performance; whereas positive emotions are associated with performing prosocial and cooperative behaviors (Carlson, Charlin, & Miller, 1988).

Proactive concepts also have been identified in the literature on organizational citizenship such as taking charge and change-oriented citizen (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Proactive work behavior involves proactive goals to improve the internal organizational environment and proactive problem solving (Parker, Williams & Turner, 2006).

Organizational Citizenship behavior requires taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) as well as to personal initiative (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007). Frese and Fay (2001) identified as important for personal initiative individuals' expectations that they control the situation and have an impact on the outcomes. Individuals with high control appraisals were proposed to maintain a strong sense of responsibility, to not give up easily, searching for opportunities to act, to have high hopes for success, and to actively search for information. Furthermore, according to Lavelle (2010), employees' tendency to engage in OCB depends on the individuals' need to improve their self-concept and achieve self-growth.

Work attachment styles are also influential factors for OCB. While studies indicate negative relationship between burnout and OCB (Schnake & Dumler, 2003; Chiu & Tsai, 2006; Van Emmerick, Jahaver, & Stone, 2005), they suggest a positive relationship between engagement and OCB (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Babcock-Robertson and Strickland, 2010; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010). The influential reason for why attachment of work styles affect OCB is can be explained by the emotion-based explanations. According to Bennett and Robinson (2000), performing of extra role behaviors by employees depend on their emotions. While positive emotions are positively associated with OCB, negative emotions are associated negatively with it (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Since individuals feeling burnout feel negative emotions, they will not likely to perform extra role behaviors, however engaged employees will show OCB because they have a tendency to do extra works due to their positive feeling toward work.

In line with these arguments and knowing that proactive coping individuals feel high control on the situations, it is expected a positive relationship between OCB and proactive coping in this study. However negative relationship is expected between preventive coping and OCB since preventive coping individuals take action only if they see harm or threat and normally they concern with mandatory obligations which are not related with OCB (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). Moreover it is expected a positive relationship between engagement and OCB and expected negative relationship for burnout and OCB.

1.6 Present Research

This study is designed to understand the relationship between coping styles which are proactive and preventive coping and professional self-esteem, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior with the mediator roles of burnout and engagement.

Literature lacks the empirical data on proactive and preventive coping but according to the literature review conducted during this study, no research was found to investigate the influences of all these variables. Furthermore, much studies reviewed the common points of proactive and preventive coping but the comparative importance of proactive coping, preventive coping and the mechanism of process has not been meticulously investigated up to now. In this regard the first purpose of this study was to compare and understand the role of proactive and preventive coping on both work attachment styles and organizational outcomes in terms of professional self-esteem, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior. The second objective was to discover the mediator role of burnout and engagement throughout the link between proactive and preventive coping styles and organizational outcomes.

The conservation of resources theory (COR) is a theory of stress underlines the principle that people try to get, construct and preserve that which they value and psychological stress occurs if the resources which are important for them are lost, threatened with loss or individuals fail to replenish resources (Hobfoll, 1989). According to the COR theory, people should not engage in reactive coping but rather act in a proactive way that will help them gain resources and become less vulnerable to the threat of future or actual resource loss (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson, Laski, 2005). Proactive coping is representative of this feature, since it does not require any negative appraisals, such as loss, and reflects efforts to build up resources (Schwarzer & Knoll, 2003). Proactive coping is defined as efforts to strive actively to seek new challenges, create new opportunities, and facilitate promotion toward challenging goals so that they will be less negative whereas preventive coping refers to the process by which a person builds up resources and resistance just in case possible stressor occur in the distant future.

Proactive coping consists of efforts to build up general resources and burnout represents a depletion of resources. Thus, highly proactive coping should be associated with lower burnout, since a proactive copier is able to utilize resources to offset stress and burnout (Greenglass, 2005). The author's interpretation focused on the individual perception that proactive copers possess greater resources to cope with stress, including the ability to plan and take appropriate actions to utilize available social resources. In several studies in Canada, Poland, and Germany, proactive coping has been found to be negatively correlated with job burnout in different professions (Uskul & Greenglass, 2005) and negatively associated with functional disability (Greenglass, Fiksenbaum, & Eaton, 2006).

Proactive coping has been shown to facilitate the achievement of personal goals and personal growth (Greenglass, 2002). Those coping proactively draw on both internal resources (e.g. optimism, self-efficacy) and external resources (e.g. information, practical help) to manage expected and anticipated job demands. Encouraging the use of this coping function may increase perceptions of control and subsequently alleviate stress. However perceived lack of control over stressful situations is associated for preventive coping and in preventive coping worry level is higher. They cope with the stressor in a preventive way and build up protection without knowing whether they will ever need it (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). In preventive coping individuals take action based on threat appraisals and employ more general end defensive strategies. On the other hand in proactive coping individuals take more constructive and purposeful actions (Greenglass, Schwarzer, & Taubert, 1999).

Shiota (2006) proposes to investigate whether coping strategies are associated with higher levels of positive aspects of well-being. As regards positive coping associations with well-being, proactive coping is the prototype, since it involves future challenges that are seen as self-promoting, and consequently ensures progress and quality of functioning (Lippke, Wiedemann, Ziegelmann, Reuter & Schwarzer, 2009). Proactive coping has emerged as a new focus of positive psychology research, and empirical results have demonstrated that it predicts outcomes such as engagement and its vigor and dedication dimensions (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002; Sohl & Moyer, 2009). Moreover, Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris (2008) state that active coping

styles, as is the case of proactive coping, are important direct antecedents of work engagement, as illustrated by the results of Gan, Yang, Zhou, and Zhang (2007) and Reschly, Huebner Appleton, and Antaramian (2008).

According to the self-determination theory, situations perceived as an opportunity for growth provide higher motivation and in turn facilitate higher engagement and job performance. Whereas situations that are perceived to be hindering impairs growth opportunities and in turn reduce engagement and motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Based on these findings it was expected that proactive coping would be associated with engagement positively and burnout negatively because proactive coping oriented individuals strive to reach high performance levels and self-growth to satisfy their ideals selves and in order to acquire this goal, it is likely that proactive coping oriented employees positively attach their work. On the other hand preventive coping would be associated with burnout positively and associated engagement negatively because preventive coping oriented employees are motivated to fulfill their regular duties to avoid from possible negative consequences of failure. That's why they are likely to feel worry and anxiety and may be prone to experience burnout.

Hypothesis 1: Proactive coping would be associated with burnout negatively and engagement positively.

- a) Proactive coping will have a direct positive influence on engagement
- b) Proactive coping will have a direct negative influence on burnout

Hypothesis 2: Preventive coping would be associated with burnout positively and associated with engagement negatively.

- a) Preventive coping will have a direct positive influence on burnout
- b) Preventive coping will have a direct negative influence on engagement

According to Schwarzer and Taubert (2002), proactive coping individuals are oriented to achieving targets and includes future requirements, which can lead self-development. In Veresova and Mala's study (2012), a significant negative correlation was found between proactive coping and stress experiencing. In their study it was also discovered a significant positive relation between proactive coping, self-efficacy and motivation to personal development. In proactive coping one interprets barriers as a chance for self-promotion and self-growth and people high in proactive coping are

also more likely to succeed with their goal pursuit compared to preventive coping (Greenglass & Fiksenbaum, 2009). Additionally in the study of Zhou, Gan, Knoll and Schwarzer (2013), it was found that individuals high in proactive coping are more likely to take initiative and feeling charge but in preventive coping people take initiative only if they feel threat. In this regard proactive coping individuals may show high task and contextual performance but preventive coping individuals may only focus on regular responsibilities.

Proactivity can enhance work place performance as well as generate positive outcomes beyond work performance such as obtaining employment and career satisfaction according to Fuller and Marler (2009) and knowing that proactive coping individuals are also high in proactivity it can be assumed the same for it, but not for preventive coping. Those coping proactively instead of preventively are associated with optimism and self-efficacy and these internal resources provide professional self-esteem.

Based on these findings it is expected a direct relationship between proactive and preventive coping and professional self-esteem, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3: Proactive coping will influence professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction and OCB positively.

Hypothesis 4: Preventive Coping will influence professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction and OCB negatively.

Maslach and Jackson and Leiter (1996) suggest that the term of burnout is defined as a crisis in an employee's relationship with work in general and not necessarily as a crisis in an employee's relationship with other employees. On the other hand Engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalaez-Roma & Bakker, 2002). The negative influence of burnout and positive influence of engagement were also explained in the relevant burnout and engagement section before.

In this context another objective of the present study is to analyze the mediating role of burnout and engagement in the relationship between coping strategies and

outcome of working attachment styles. More specifically the following hypothesis were suggested:

Hypothesis 5: Engagement will behave as a mediator between proactive coping and professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior

Hypothesis 6: Burnout will behave as a mediator between preventive coping and professional self-esteem, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

As a result of these predictions, the proposed coping-attachment model which would be tested through mediational analysis can be seen in Figure 1.2.

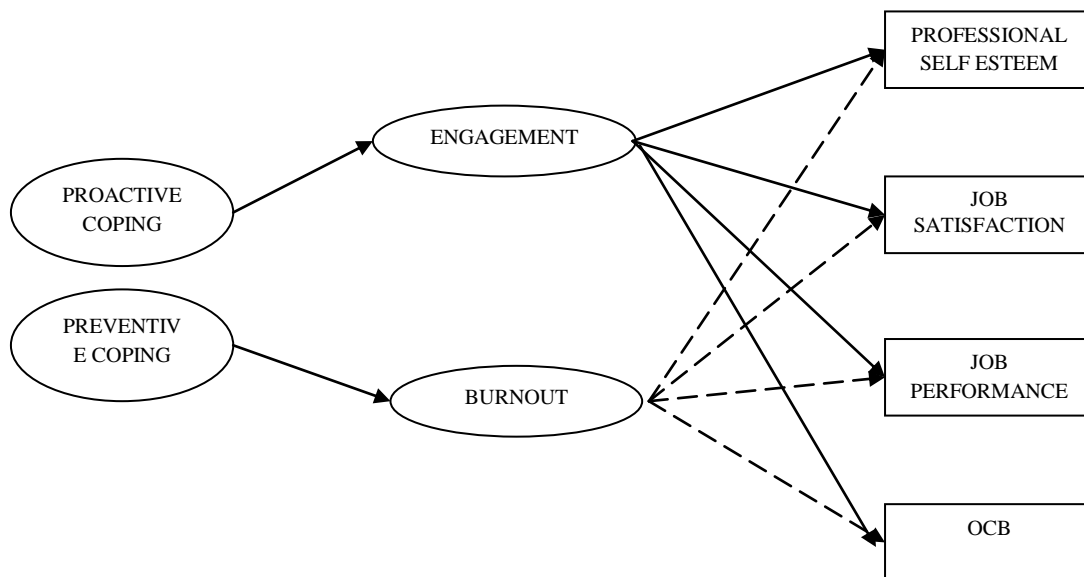


Figure 1.2 The Expected Relationships of Components

1.7 Control Variable : Work Experience

It was suggested that job experience might have an influence on work attachment styles and outcomes of work attachment styles. Studies also indicate that work experience of employees have impact on their work attachment styles, job performance level and attitudes toward their job (Levinson, Fetchkan, and Hohensil, 1988; Murns and Cain, 2003; & Mackoniene & Norvile, 2012). Therefore total work experience was taken as a control variable in this study.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1 Participants

In the present study, there were 215 employees. Among the participants, 114 were women (53%) and 101 were men (47%), and their age were ranging from 22 to 54 ($M= 31.60$, $SD= 6.67$). The majority of the participants were graduated from university (70.2%), and from graduate programmes (24.7%). All of the participants completed the questionnaires via internet. Of the full sample, 90 were collected for the pilot study. Among 90 participants, 51 were women (56.7%) and 39 were men (43.3%). The age range was between 23 and 54 ($M= 29.63$, $SD= 5.87$). The majority of the participants had university degrees (70%), and graduate degrees (26.7%).

2.2 Measures

The questionnaire package started with an informed consent form (See Appendix A). Participants also received a demographic information form, which was provided in the last page of the survey package (See Appendix K). The mean scores of scales were used for analyses. The scales used in the survey package are explained below:

2.2.1 Proactive Coping Inventory

The present study utilized the Proactive Coping Subscale and the Preventive Coping Subscale from the Proactive Coping Inventory, which was developed by Greenglas, Schwarzer and Taubert (1999). Items of the two subscales were translated into Turkish by the translators. Following the translation, a translator who majored in English literature back-translated the two subscales into English. Finally, a translator with psychology minor compared the back-translated English version with the original inventory. Based on this discussion, the Turkish version was revised to eliminate discrepancies. The Preventive Coping Subscale has 10 items in the original form. (See Appendix B). A sample item is “I try to manage my money well in order to avoid being destitute in old age”. After the translation, one item was eliminated by the

researcher since it was not proper for Turkish sample. The Proactive Coping Subscale has 14 items (See Appendix C) and a sample item is “*I visualise my dreams and try to achieve them*”. Both preventive coping and proactive coping were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 5 = Strongly Agree). A pilot study was conducted with 90 participants and one item from Proactive Coping Subscale was eliminated due to its low correlation with other items of the scale. The Cronbach alpha of internal consistency was .87, and .75 for preventive coping and proactive coping subscales, respectively.

2.2.2 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) consisted of 17 items, and was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). The aim of the scale was to measure the engagement levels of employees. The items were rated on a 6- point Likert scale (See Appendix D). A sample item is “*At my work, I feel bursting with energy*”. The Cronbach alpha of internal consistency was .95 in the present study.

2.2.3 Maslach Burnout Inventory

The Maslach Burnout Inventory was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981), which aims to measure the burnout levels of employees. It is consisted of 22 items and measured on a 5-point Likert scale (See Appendix E). An example item is “*I feel emotionally drained from my work*”. The scale was translated into Turkish by Ergin (1992). The internal consistency of the scale was .70 in the present study.

2.2.4 Professional Self-Esteem Scale

The Professional Self-Esteem Scale was developed by Arıca (1999), consisted of 30 items with 5 point Likert scale (See Appendix F). A sample item is “*My occupation is important for me*”. The aim of the scale is to measure the professional self-esteem of individuals. The Cronbach alpha of internal consistency of the scale was .96 in the present study.

2.2.5. Job Satisfaction Scale

Three items from the job satisfaction subscale of Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) was used by Bilgic (1999) to measure job satisfaction. An example item is “*In general, I am satisfied with my job.*” In this study, participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with the presented statements on a 5-

point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). (See Appendix H). and Cronbach alpha of internal consistency was reported as .81 in the present study

2.2.6. Performance Scale

The Performance Scale was developed by Beffort and Hattrup (2003) and it has nine items. The scale was translated into Turkish by Karakurum (2005). The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (See Appendix G). A sample item is *“I perform my work with a high quality”*. The scale aims to measure the self-rated job performance of the employees with 9 items. The internal consistency of the scale was reported as .92 in the present study.

2.2.7. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Scale

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Scale was developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). A sample item is *“I help others who have heavy workloads”*. The scale was translated in to Turkish by Bayazit, Aycan, Aksoy, Göncü, and Öztekin (2006) and it has 24 items and rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). The Cronbach alpha of internal consistency was reported as .74 in the present study.

2.3 Procedure

The participation in the study was voluntary and all of the participants received a consent form providing info about the aim of the study. The questionnaire package included the informed consent form, Proactive Coping Inventory, Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, Maslach Burnout Inventory, Professional Self-Esteem Scale, Performance Scale, Job Satisfaction Scale, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale. Firstly, a pilot study with 90 participants was conducted to test the psychometric properties of the translated version of Proactive Coping Inventory. Participants of the pilot study received the whole questionnaire package, and they were included to the data set of the present study. The two samples did not differ from each other significantly for the study variables and for the demographic variables (except for age and work experience), hence the two data sets were combined and used for the whole analysis. Data were collected via internet and snowball sampling was used to

collect data. Before collecting the data, ethical permission was taken from Ethical Committee of Middle East Technical University.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

This chapter is consisted of five parts. In the first part, the results of the pilot study were provided. In the second part, the procedures of data screening and cleaning procedures were provided. In the third part, descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables are provided. In the fourth part, results of confirmatory factor analysis are presented. In the fifth part, main analyses are presented. Lastly, the results of additional analyses were given.

3.1 Pilot Study

The psychometric properties of Proactive Coping Inventory, which was translated into Turkish by the researcher, were investigated. Ninety people participated in the pilot study. First, internal consistency of Preventive Coping Subscale was examined and the scale yielded internal consistency as .72. Second, Proactive Coping Subscale with 14 items was examined and the internal consistency of the subscale was reported .61. Second item of the inventory was eliminated due to its low correlations with other variables. The internal consist of Proactive Coping Subscale increased to .67 after the item elimination.

3.2 Data Screening and Cleaning

For data screening, the steps described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) were followed. Firstly, data entry was checked for accuracy with examination of out-of range values. The data was also checked for missing values. The participants who did not completed and dropped were excluded. After exclusion of uncompleted entries, the data did not have any missing data.

The data were also analyzed for univariate and multivariate outliers. Only one case was detected as a univariate outlier ($z > 3.29$). After screening the data for univariate outlier, the data were screened for multivariate outliers. The participant with

the univariate outlier was also detected as multivariate outlier. In addition, there was one more multivariate outlier according to Mahalanobis distance ($\chi^2 > 14.86$, $p < .005$). Therefore, these two cases were deleted from the data set. The main analyses were conducted with 213 participants. The skewness and kurtosis values were examined as the results were all in acceptable ranges. Hence the normality assumptions were met. In addition, the scatter plots were used to assess the linearity assumptions. The results showed that the linearity assumptions were met.

3.3 Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations

The reliabilities (α), means (M), and standard deviations (SD) are presented in Table 3.1, and the correlations between study variables are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.1 Reliabilities, means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values of study variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.	# of items
Age	31.61	6.7	22	54	
Preventive	3.58	.57	1.78	5.00	9
Proactive	3.51	.39	2.62	4.38	13
Engagement	3.38	.67	1.29	4.76	17
Burnout	2.63	.36	1.67	3.67	22
Professional self-esteem	3.80	.73	2.03	5.00	30
Job performance	3.76	.69	2.11	5.00	9
Job satisfaction	3.23	.86	1.00	4.67	3
OCB	4.96	.47	3.38	6.08	24

OCB: Organizational citizenship behaviour

Among the demographic variables, gender was only negatively correlated with professional self-esteem ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$). Age was positively correlated with work engagement ($r = .16$, $p < .05$), and job satisfaction ($r = .19$, $p < .01$). Education was only negatively correlated with work experience ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$). Work experience was positively correlated with work engagement ($r = .25$, $p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .20$, $p < .01$) and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). Preventive coping was positively correlated with burnout ($r = .25$, $p < .01$). Proactive coping was

positively correlated with work engagement ($r = .75, p < .01$), professional self-esteem ($r = .58, p < .01$), job performance ($r = .71, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .46, p < .01$), organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .55, p < .01$), and negatively with burnout ($r = -.15, p < .01$). Engagement was positively correlated with job performance ($r = .77, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .65, p < .01$), and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .47, p < .01$), and negatively correlated with burnout ($r = -.22, p < .01$). Burnout had negative correlations with job performance ($r = -.24, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = -.41, p < .01$), and had positive correlation with professional self-esteem ($r = -.30, p < .01$).

Table 3.2 The bivariate correlations among study variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1										
2. Age	.11	1									
3. Education	-.03	-.07	1								
4. WE	.07	.94*	-.14*	1							
5. Preventive	.08	.04	-.08	.09	1						
6. Proactive	-.06	.02	-.03	.12	.02	1					
7. Engagement	-.07	.16*	-.00	.25**	.06	.75**	1				
8. Burnout	.11	.10	.01	.07	.25**	-.15*	-.22**	1			
9. PSE	-.14*	.03	.05	.08	-.10	.58**	.70**	-.30**	1		
10. JP	-.10	.02	-.01	.13	.02	.71**	.77**	-.24**	.68*	1	
11. JS	-.07	.19*	.06	.20**	-.06	.46**	.65**	-.41**	.56*	.52*	1
12. OCB	-.12	.05	-.02	.14*	.03	.55**	.47**	-.12	.37*	.64*	.28*
Cronbach alpha					.87	.75	.95	.70	.96	.81	.74

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; WE: Work experience; PSE: Professional self-esteem; JP: Job performance; JS: Job satisfaction; OCB: Organizational citizenship behavior.

When the correlations between dependent variables (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior) was investigated, positive correlation were obtained between professional self-esteem and job performance ($r = .67, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .56, p < .01$), and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .35, p < .01$). Job performance was also positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .52, p < .01$) and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .64, p < .01$). Lastly, job satisfaction had a positive correlation with organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .28, p < .01$).

3.4. Results of Factor Analysis

A pilot study was conducted to examine the internal consistency of Proactive Coping Inventory, which was translated into Turkish by the researcher. An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted in the main analysis. The initial solution provided a five-factor solution. Since, many items were cross-loading with comparable loadings, and variance explained by the first two factors was %46.64, the factor analysis was forced to two factor solution. The results provided a two-factor solution, which is consistent with the original version. Results showed that nine items had .40 higher loadings on the first factor, which explained %28.02 of the variance. Thirteen items had .40 and higher loading on the second factor, which explained %18.62 of the variance. The initial eigenvalues were reported as 6.17 and 4.14 for the first and the second factors, respectively.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted with EQS 6.1 in the main analyses to investigate the appropriateness of the data to the two-factor model of Preventive Coping Subscale and Proactive Coping Subscale. According to the χ^2 statistic, the differences between the observed and the estimated matrices were significant $\chi^2(208) = 500.18, p < .001$. In addition, the relative fit indices were close to acceptable level, GFI = .83, AGFI = .80, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .09, CFI = .84. Hence, the scale was decided to be used as a two-factor scale in the present study.

Table 3.3 Factor loadings on a principle components analysis with varimax rotation

	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Before disaster strikes I am well-prepared for its consequences.	.59	
2. I develop my job skills to protect myself against unemployment.	.71	
3. I make sure my family is well taken care of to protect them from adversity in the future.	.74	
4. I think ahead to avoid dangerous situations.	.70	
5. I plan for future eventualities.	.59	
6. I plan my strategies to change a situation before I act	.65	
7. I plan strategies for what I hope will be the best possible outcome.	.58	
8. I try to manage my money well in order to avoid being destitute in old age.	.58	
9. Rather than spending every cent I make, I like to save for a rainy day.	.76	

Table 3.3 Factor loadings on a principle components analysis with varimax rotation
(Continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. I am a "take charge" person.		.71
2. I try to let things work out on their own. (eliminated)		
3. When I experience a problem, I take the initiative in resolving it.		.66
4. After attaining a goal, I look for another, more challenging one.		.76
5. I like challenges and beating the odds.		.72
6. I always try to find a way to work around obstacles; nothing really stops me.		.71
7. I turn obstacles into positive experiences.		.64
8. Despite numerous setbacks, I usually succeed in getting what I want.		.79
9. If someone tells me I can't do something, you can be sure I will do it		-.58
10. When I apply for a position, I imagine myself filling it.		.65
11. I visualize my dreams and try to achieve them.		.58
12. When I have a problem, I usually see myself in a no-win situation		.53
13. I often see myself failing so I don't get my hopes up too high		.78
14. I try to pinpoint what I need to succeed		-.63

Factor 1: Preventive coping subscale; Factor 2: Proactive coping subscale

3.5. Hypothesis Testing

3.5.1. The Relationship between Proactive Coping, Burnout and Engagement

Hypothesis 1 suggested that proactive coping skills would be associated with burnout negatively and engagement positively. To test the first hypothesis, two multiple regression analyses were conducted.

First, the effect of proactive coping on burnout was examined. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, proactive coping was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .03$, $F(2,210) = 3.08$, $p < .05$). Proactive coping predicted burnout negatively ($\beta = -.15$, $t = -2.24$, $p < .05$). Hence, it might be concluded that Hypothesis 1a was supported.

Table 3.4 The Effect of Proactive Coping Skills on Burnout (Hypothesis 1a)

	β	T	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.01			1.14
Work experience	.07	1.07	.287				
Step 2				.03	.02	.026	3.08*
Work experience	.09	1.34	.183				
Proactive coping	-.15	-2.24	.026				

Dependent variable is burnout

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Second, the effect of proactive coping on engagement was examined. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,211) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). In the second step, proactive coping was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .52$, $F(2,210) = 143.77$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .73$, $t = 16.06$, $p < .001$). Hence, it might be concluded that Hypothesis 1b was supported.

Table 3.5 The Effect of Proactive Coping Skills on Engagement (Hypothesis 1b)

	β	T	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.06			13.40***
Work experience	.25	3.66	.000				
Step 2				.58	.52	.000	143.77***
Work experience	.16	3.52	.001				
Proactive coping	.73	16.06	.000				

Dependent variable is engagement

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.5.2. The Relationship between Preventive Coping, Burnout and Engagement

Hypothesis 2 suggested that preventive coping skills would be associated with burnout positively and engagement negatively. To test the first hypothesis, two multiple regression analyses were conducted.

In the first analysis, the effect of preventive coping skills on burnout was examined. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable;

however the result was not significant. In the second step, preventive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .07$, $F(2,210) = 7.40$, $p < .001$). Preventive coping skills predicted burnout positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.69$, $p < .001$). Hence, it might be concluded that Hypothesis 2a was supported.

Table 3.6 The Effect of Preventive Coping Skills on Burnout (Hypothesis 2a)

	β	T	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.01			1.14
Work experience	.07	1.07	.287				
Step 2				.07	.06	.000	7.40**
Work experience	.05	.78	.436				
Preventive coping	.25	3.69	.000				

Dependent variable is burnout

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Second, the effect of preventive coping skills on engagement was tested. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,211) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). In the second step, preventive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(2,210) = 6.90$, $p < .001$); however preventive coping skills did not predict engagement significantly. Hence, it might be concluded that Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Table 3.7 The Effect of Preventive Coping Skills on Engagement (Hypothesis 2b)

	β	T	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.06			13.40***
Work experience	.25	3.66	.000				
Step 2				.06	.00	.506	6.90**
Work experience	.24	3.59	.000				
Preventive coping	.05	.67	.506				

Dependent variable is engagement * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.5.3. The Relationship between Proactive Coping and Organizational Outcomes

Hypothesis 3 suggested that proactive coping skills would affect organizational outcomes positively (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction,

and organizational citizenship behavior). Four multiple regressions were conducted to test hypothesis 3.

First, professional self-esteem was taken as the dependent variable. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however it did not predict professional self-esteem significantly. In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .33$, $F(2,210) = 51.19$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted professional self-esteem engagement positively ($\beta = .57$, $t = 10.01$, $p < .001$).

Table 3.8 The Effect of Proactive Coping Skills on PSE (Hypothesis 3a)

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.01			1.44
Work experience	.08	1.20	.231				
Step 2				.33	.32	.000	51.19***
Work experience	.02	.27	.791				
Proactive coping	.57	10.01	.000				

Dependent variable is professional self-esteem

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

In the second multiple regression, job performance was entered as the dependent variable. In the first step, work experience was entered the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .50$, $F(2,210) = 106.34$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted job performance positively ($\beta = .70$, $t = 14.34$, $p < .001$).

Table 3.9 The Effect of Proactive Coping Skills on Job Performance (Hypothesis 3b)

	β	T	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.02			3.64
Work experience	.13	1.91	.058				
Step 2				.50	.48	.000	106.34***
Work experience	.05	.97	.335				
Proactive coping	.70	14.34	.000				

Dependent variable is job performance

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Third, job satisfaction was taken as the dependent variable. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .04$, $F(1,211) = 8.98$, $p < .005$). Work experience predicted job satisfaction positively ($\beta = .20$, $t = 3.00$, $p < .005$). In the second step, proactive coping was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(2,210) = 31.64$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted job satisfaction positively ($\beta = .44$, $t = 7.22$, $p < .001$).

Table 3.10 The Effect of Proactive Coping on Job Satisfaction (Hypothesis 3c)

	β	T	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.04			8.98**
Work experience	.20	3.00	.003				
Step 2				.23	.19	.000	31.64***
Work experience	.15	2.47	.014				
Proactive coping	.44	7.22	.000				

Dependent variable is job satisfaction

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

In the last analysis, organizational citizenship behavior was entered as the dependent variable. In the first step, work experience was taken as the control variable; and the result was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1,211) = 3.92$, $p < .05$). Work experience predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .14$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$). In the second step, proactive coping was taken as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .28$, $F(2,210) = 44.79$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping predicted organizational citizenship behavior positively ($\beta = .53$, $t = 9.17$, $p < .001$).

Table 3.11 The Effect of Proactive Coping Skills on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Hypothesis 3d)

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.02			3.92*
Work experience	.14	1.98	.049				
Step 2				.30	.28	.000	44.79***
Work experience	.07	1.24	.216				
Proactive coping	.53	9.17	.000				

Dependent variable is organizational citizenship behavior

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Results showed that, proactive coping predicted outcomes of work attachment styles positively (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior) after controlling for work experience. Hence, it might be concluded that hypothesis 3 was fully supported.

3.5.4. The Relationship between Preventive Coping and Organizational Outcomes

Hypothesis 4 suggested that preventive coping would affect organizational outcomes negatively (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior). Four multiple regressions were conducted to test hypothesis 4. However, preventive coping skills did not predict any of the organizational outcomes significantly. Therefore, it might be concluded that hypothesis 4 was not supported.

3.5.5. The Mediating Role of Engagement between Proactive Coping Skills and Outcomes of Work Attachment Styles

Hypothesis 5 suggested that the relationship between proactive coping skills and organizational outcomes (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior) would be mediated by engagement. To examine the mediating role of engagement, the steps of Baron and Kenny (1986) were followed. According to steps of Baron and Kenny (1986):

- The independent variable must predict the dependent variable significantly.
- The independent variable must predict the mediating variable significantly.
- The mediating variable must predict the dependent variable significantly.
- When the mediating variable is placed in the equation simultaneously with

the independent variable, the effect of independent variable on the dependent variable must decrease.

Since hypothesis 5 had four dependent variables, mediation analyses was conducted for each dependent variable. Hierarchical multiple regression was used for mediation analyses.

First, professional self-esteem was taken as the dependent variable. To test the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .33$, $F(2,210) = 51.19$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted professional self-esteem positively ($\beta = .57$, $t = 10.01$, $p < .001$). To test the relationship between proactive coping as the independent variable and engagement as the mediating variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,211) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .52$, $F(2,210) = 143.77$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .73$, $t = 16.06$, $p < .001$). In order to test the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, engagement was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .49$, $F(2,210) = 101.92$, $p < .001$). Engagement predicted professional self-esteem positively ($\beta = .72$, $t = 14.18$, $p < .001$). To test the mediating role of engagement, both the independent and the mediating variables were entered into the equation simultaneously. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step both proactive coping skills and engagement were entered into the equation and the result was significant ($R^2 = .50$, $F(3,209) = 69.08$, $p < .001$). Since proactive coping lost its significant and only engagement predicted professional self-esteem positively ($\beta = .64$, $t = 8.41$, $p < .001$), it might be inferred that engagement fully mediated the relationship between proactive coping and

professional self-esteem. Sobel test results showed that this mediation is significant ($z = 10.65, p < .001$).

Bootstrapping was conducted to confirm the Sobel test results and estimates from 5000 samples indicated that the indirect effects of proactive coping skills through engagement on professional self-esteem lied between .6638 and 1.1429 with a confidence interval of 95%. As a result indirect effect was seen to be significant.

Table 3.12 Mediation Analysis of Proactive Coping Skills, Engagement, and Professional Self-Esteem

	β	t	Sig.	R^2	R^2 Change	Sig. R^2 Change	F	DV
<i>Analysis one</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.08	1.20	.231	.01			1.44	PSE
Pro (Step 2)	.57	10.01	.000	.33	.32	.000	51.19***	Eng
<i>Analysis two</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.25	3.66	.000	.06			13.40***	PSE
Pro (Step 2)	.73	16.06	.000	.58	.52	.000	143.77***	
<i>Analysis three</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.08	1.20	.231	.01			1.44	PSE
Eng(Step 2)	.72	14.18	.000	.49	.49	.000	101.92***	
<i>Analysis four</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.08	1.20	.231	.01			1.44	PSE
Pro (Step 2)	.11	1.49	.138	.50	.49	.000	69.08***	
Eng(Step 2)	.64	8.41	.000					

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; Pro= Proactive; PSE = Professional self-esteem; Eng = Engagement; WE = Work experience

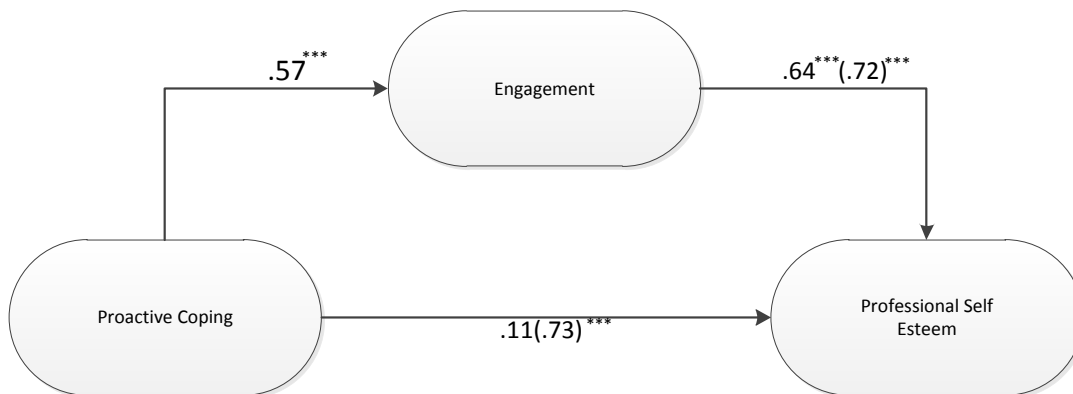


Figure 3.1 Mediation Analysis of Proactive Coping Skills, Engagement, and Professional Self-Esteem

Second, job performance was taken as the dependent variable. In order to test the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, work

experience was entered in the first step as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, proactive coping was entered as the independent variable. The result was significant ($R^2 = .50$, $F(2,210) = 106.34$, $p < .001$) and proactive coping predicted job performance positively ($\beta = .70$, $t = 14.34$, $p < .001$). To test the relationship between independent variable and the mediating variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,211) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .52$, $F(2,210) = 143.77$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .73$, $t = 16.06$, $p < .001$). In order to test the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, engagement was entered into the equation as the independent variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .58$, $F(2,210) = 146.86$, $p < .001$). Engagement predicted job performance positively ($\beta = .77$, $t = 16.89$, $p < .001$). Both the independent and the mediating variables were entered into the equation simultaneously to test the mediating role of engagement. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step both proactive coping skills and engagement were entered into the equation simultaneously and the result was significant ($R^2 = .63$, $F(3,209) = 116.57$, $p < .001$). The effect size of proactive coping skills decreased ($\beta = .31$, $t = 4.89$, $p < .001$) and engagement predicted job performance positively ($\beta = .54$, $t = 8.27$, $p < .001$). Hence, it might be inferred that engagement partially mediated the relationship between proactive coping skills and job performance. Sobel test results showed that this mediation is significant ($z = 11.61$, $p < .001$).

Bootstrapping was conducted to confirm the Sobel test results and estimates from 5000 samples indicated that the indirect effects of proactive coping skills through engagement on job performance lied between .5239 and .9271 with a confidence interval of 95%. As a result indirect effect was seen to be significant.

Table 3.13 Mediation Analysis of Proactive Coping Skills, Engagement, and Job Performance

	β	t	Sig.	R^2	R^2 Change	Sig. R^2 Change	F	DV
<i>Analysis one</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.13	1.91	.058	.02			3.64	JP
Pro (Step 2)	.70	14.34	.000	.50	.48	.000	106.34***	
<i>Analysis two</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.25	3.66	.000	.06			13.40***	Eng
Pro (Step 2)	.73	16.06	.000	.58	.52	.000	143.77***	
<i>Analysis three</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.13	1.91	.058	.02			3.64	JP
Eng(Step 2)	.78	16.89	.000	.58	.56	.000	146.86***	
<i>Analysis four</i>								
WE (Step 1)	.13	1.91	.058	.02			3.64	JP
Pro (Step 2)	.31	4.89	.000	.63	.61	.000	121.60***	
Eng(Step 2)	.54	8.27	.000					

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; Pro= Proactive; JP: Job performance; Eng = Engagement; WE = Work experience

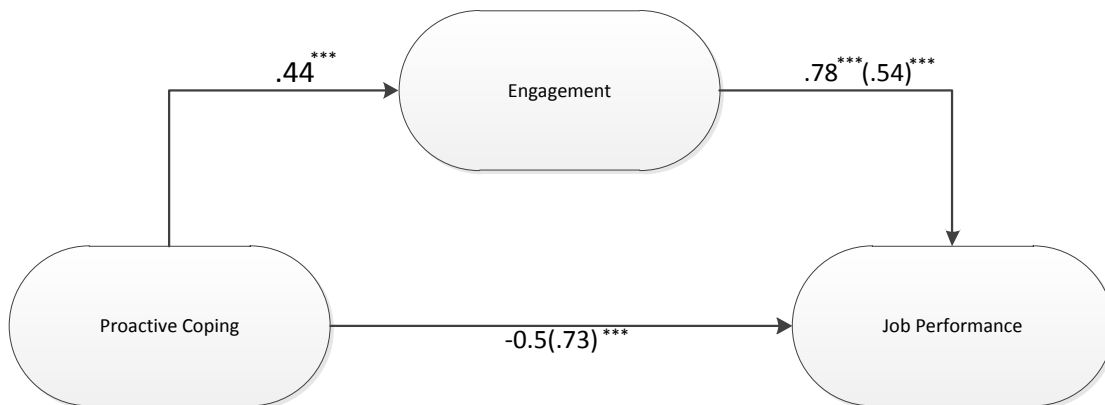


Figure 3.2 Mediation Analysis of Proactive Coping Skills, Engagement, and Job Performance

According to the third part of the hypothesis 5, the relationship between proactive coping skills and job satisfaction would be mediated by engagement. To test the relationship between the proactive coping skills and job satisfaction, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and it predicted job satisfaction significantly ($R^2 = .04$, $F(1,211) = 8.98$, $p < .005$; $\beta = .20$, $t = 3.00$, $p < .005$). In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable, and it also predicted job satisfaction significantly significant ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(2,210) = 31.64$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .44$, $t = 7.22$, $p < .001$). To test the relationship between

independent variable and the mediating variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and the result was significant work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,211) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant and it predicted engagement significantly ($\Delta R^2 = .52$, $F(2,210) = 143.77$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .73$, $t = 16.06$, $p < .001$). For testing the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable; and the result was significant ($R^2 = .04$, $F(1,211) = 8.98$, $p < .005$; $\beta = .20$, $t = 3.00$, $p < .005$). Engagement was entered into the equation as the independent variable in the second step and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .38$, $F(2,210) = 75.58$, $p < .001$). Engagement predicted job performance positively ($\beta = .64$, $t = 11.68$, $p < .001$). In the last analysis, both the independent and the mediating variables were entered into the equation simultaneously to test the mediating role of engagement. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; and work experience predicted job satisfaction significantly ($R^2 = .04$, $F(1,211) = 8.98$, $p < .005$; $\beta = .20$, $t = 3.00$, $p < .005$). In the second step both proactive coping skills and engagement were entered into the equation simultaneously and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .38$, $F(3,209) = 50.33$, $p < .001$). Since proactive coping skills lost its significant and only engagement predicted job satisfaction positively ($\beta = .67$, $t = 8.22$, $p < .001$), it might be inferred that engagement fully mediated the relationship between proactive coping skills and job satisfaction. Sobel test results showed that this mediation is significant ($z = 9.45$, $p < .001$).

Bootstrapping was conducted to confirm the Sobel test results and estimates from 5000 samples indicated that the indirect effects of proactive coping skills through engagement on job performance lied between .8414 and 1.4451 with a confidence interval of 95%. As a result indirect effect was seen to be significant.

Table 3.14 Mediation Analysis of Proactive Coping Skills, Engagement, and Job Satisfaction

	β	t	Sig.	R^2	R^2 Change	Sig. R^2 Change	F	DV
<i>Analysis one</i>								
WE(Step 1)	.20	3.00	.003	.04			8.98**	JS
Pro(Step 2)	.44	7.22	.000	.23	.19	.000	31.64***	
<i>Analysis two</i>								
WE(Step 1)	.25	3.66	.000	.06			13.40***	Eng
Pro (Step 2)	.73	16.06	.000	.58	.52	.000	143.77***	
<i>Analysis three</i>								
WE(Step 1)	.20	3.00	.003	.04			8.98**	JS
Eng(Step 2)	.64	11.68	.000	.42	.38	.000	75.58***	
<i>Analysis four</i>								
WE(Step)	.20	3.00	.003	.04			8.98**	JS
Pro(Step 2)	-.05	-.56	.575	.42	.38	.000	50.33***	
Eng(Step2)	.67	8.22	.000					

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; JS: Job satisfaction; Eng: Engagement; WE: Work experience

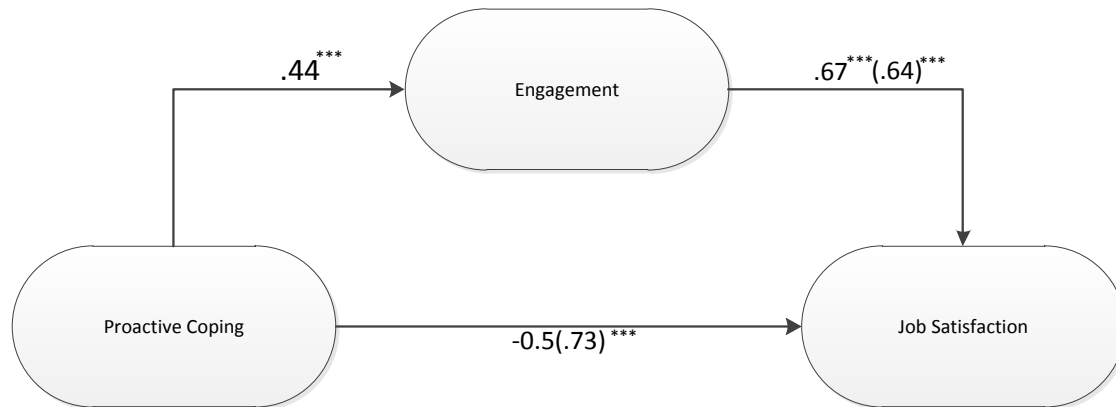


Figure 3.3 Mediation Analysis of Proactive Coping Skills, Engagement, and Job Satisfaction

In the last part of the hypothesis 5, it was suggested that the relationship between proactive coping skills and organizational citizenship behavior would be mediated by engagement. In the first analysis, the relationship between independent and the dependent variables were tested. To test the relationship between the proactive coping skills and organizational citizenship behavior, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable; and the result was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1,211) = 3.92$, $p < .05$). Work experience predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .14$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$). In the second step, proactive coping skills was

taken as the independent variable and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .28$, $F(2,210) = 44.79$, $p < .001$). Proactive coping skills predicted organizational citizenship behavior positively ($\beta = .53$, $t = 9.17$, $p < .001$). To test the relationship between independent variable and the mediating variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,211) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted engagement positively ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered as the independent variable and the result was significant and it predicted engagement significantly ($\Delta R^2 = .52$, $F(2,210) = 143.77$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .73$, $t = 16.06$, $p < .001$). For testing the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable, work experience was entered in the first step as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1,211) = 3.92$, $p < .05$). Work experience predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .14$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$). Engagement was entered into the equation as the independent variable in the second step and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(2,210) = 28.19$, $p < .001$). Engagement predicted OCB positively ($\beta = .45$, $t = 7.18$, $p < .001$). Both the independent and the mediating variables were entered into the equation simultaneously to test the mediating role of engagement. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1,211) = 3.92$, $p < .05$). Work experience predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .14$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$). In the second step both proactive coping skills and engagement were entered into the equation simultaneously and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .29$, $F(3,209) = 30.39$, $p < .001$). Although proactive coping skills predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .46$, $t = 5.23$, $p < .001$), engagement, which is the mediating variable lost its significance. Hence it might be concluded that, the relationship between proactive coping skills and organizational citizenship behavior was not mediated by engagement.

Hypothesis 5 suggested that the relationships between proactive coping skills and organizational outcomes (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior) would be mediated by engagement. Results showed that, engagement mediated the relationship between proactive coping skills and organizational outcomes, except for organizational

citizenship behavior. Hence, according to the results, hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

The model which includes the mediating role of engagement between proactive coping skills and outcomes of work attachment styles was also tested with AMOS 20; however the fit indices for the proposed model were not acceptable (Appendix L).

3.5.6. The Mediating Role of Burnout between Preventive Coping Skills and Outcomes of Work Attachment Styles

Hypothesis 6 suggested that the relationship between preventive coping skills and organizational outcomes (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior) would be mediated by burnout. However, results showed that, preventive coping skills did not have any effect on organizational outcomes. The first step of Baron and Kenny (1986) was not met. Hence, mediation analyses were not conducted. It might be concluded that hypothesis 6 was not supported.

The model which includes the mediating role of burnout between preventive coping skills and organizational outcomes was also tested with AMOS 20; however the fit indices for the proposed model were not acceptable (Appendix M).

3.6. Relative Contribution of Proactive and Preventive Coping on the Engagement, Burnout and Organizational Outcomes

3.6.1 Prediction of Proactive Coping over and About Preventive Coping on Engagement

In order to assess the relationship between proactive coping skills and work engagement, a three-stage hierarchical multiple regressions was conducted and work engagement was entered as the dependent variable. Work experience was entered as the control variable in the first step and the result was significant ($R^2 = .06$, $F(1,210) = 13.40$, $p < .001$). Work experience predicted work engagement significantly ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.66$, $p < .001$). Preventive coping skills was entered in the second stage. The result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F(2,209) = 6.90$, $p < .005$); however preventive coping regression weight was not significant. In the last step, proactive coping skills was

entered into the equation and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .52$, $F(3,208) = 95.93$, $p < .001$) and proactive coping skills predicted work engagement significantly ($\beta = .73$, $t = 16.03$, $p < .001$) over and above the other variables.

Table 3.15 The Effect of Proactive Coping on Work Engagement

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2 Change	$Sig. R^2$ Change	F
Step 1				.06			13.40***
Work experience	.25	3.66	.000				
Step 2				.06	.00	.506	6.90**
Work experience	.24	3.59	.000				
Preventive coping	.05	.66	.506				
Step 3				.58	.52	.000	95.93***
Work experience	.16	3.44	.001				
Preventive coping	.04	.83	.408				
Proactive coping	.73	16.03	.000				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.6.2 Prediction of Preventive Coping Over and Above Proactive Coping on Burnout

To examine the relationship between preventive coping skills and burnout, a three-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however the result was not significant. Work experience did not predict burnout significantly. In the second step, proactive coping skills was entered into the equation and the result was significant ($R^2 = .03$, $F(2,209) = 3.08$, $p < .05$). Proactive coping skills predicted burnout ($\beta = -.15$, $t = -2.24$, $p < .05$). In the last step, preventive coping skills was entered and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $F(3,208) = 6.87$, $p < .001$) and preventive coping skills predicted burnout significantly ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.75$, $p < .001$) over and above proactive coping.

Table 3.16 The Effect of Preventive Coping on Burnout

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2	$Sig. R^2$	F
					Change	Change	
Step 1						.287	1.14
Work experience	.07	1.07	.287				
Step 2				.03	.02	.026	3.08*
Work experience	.09	1.34	.183				
Proactive coping	-.15	-2.24	.026				
Step 3				.09	.06	.000	6.87***
Work experience	.07	1.06	.291				
Proactive coping	-.16	-2.34	.020				
Preventive coping	.25	3.75	.000				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.6.3 Prediction of Proactive Coping Over and About Preventive Coping on Organizational Outcomes

To assess the relationship between proactive coping skills and professional self-esteem, a three-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however the result was not significant. Work experience did not predict professional self-esteem significantly. In the second step, preventive coping skills was entered into the equation; however the result was not significant. In the last step, proactive coping skills was entered and the result was significant ($R^2 = .34$, $F(3,208) = 35.87$, $p < .001$) and proactive coping skills predicted professional self-esteem significantly ($\beta = .57$, $t = 10.10$, $p < .001$) over and above preventive coping.

Table 3.17 The Effect of Proactive Coping on Professional Self-Esteem

	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² Change	<i>Sig. R</i> ² Change	<i>F</i>
Step 1				.01			1.44
Work experience	.08	1.20	.231				
Step 2				.02	.01	.129	1.89
Work experience	.09	1.33	.185				
Preventive coping	-.11	-1.53	.129				
Step 3				.34	.32	.000	35.87***
Work experience	.02	.43	.668				
Preventive coping	-.11	-1.96	.051				
Proactive coping	.57	10.10	.000				

p*<.05, *p*<.01, ****p*<.001

In order to investigate the relationship between proactive coping and job performance, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted in three steps. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable; however the result was not significant. In the second step, preventive coping was entered into the equation; however preventive coping did not explain variance in PSE over and above proactive coping for the PSE. The last step, proactive coping skills was entered and the result was significant ($R^2 = .49$, $F(3,208) = 70.57$, $p < .001$) and proactive coping skills predicted job performance significantly ($\beta = .70$, $t = 14.30$, $p < .001$).

Table 3.18 The Effect of Proactive Coping Skills on Job Performance

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2	$Sig. R^2$	F
				Change	Change	Change	
Step 1				.02			3.64
Work experience	.13	1.91	.058				
Step 2				.02	.00	.832	1.83
Work experience	.13	1.88	.062				
Preventive coping	.02	.21	.832				
Step 3				.50	.49	.000	70.57***
Work experience	.05	.95	.344				
Preventive coping	.01	.15	.879				
Proactive coping	.70	14.30	.000				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

A three-step hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted to examine the relationship between proactive coping skills and job satisfaction. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .04$, $F(1,210) = 8.98$, $p < .005$); work experience predicted job satisfaction significantly ($\beta = .20$, $t = 2.30$, $p < .005$). In the second step, preventive coping skills was entered into the equation; Although the ΔR was significant, preventive coping regression weight was not significant for predicting job satisfaction. In the last step, proactive coping skills was entered and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(3,208) = 21.72$, $p < .001$) and proactive coping skills predicted job satisfaction significantly ($\beta = .44$, $t = 7.24$, $p < .001$) over and above the other variables entered in to the equation previously.

Table 3.19 The Effect of Proactive Coping on Job Satisfaction

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2	$Sig. R^2$	F
					Change	Change	
Step 1				.04			8.98**
Work experience	.20	2.30	.003				
Step 2				.05	.01	.275	5.09**
Work experience	.21	3.08	.002				
Preventive coping	-.07	.07	.275				
Step 3				.24	.19	.000	27.72***
Work experience	.16	2.57	.011				
Preventive coping	-.08	-1.30	.196				
Proactive coping	.44	7.24	.000				

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

A hierarchical multiple regression with three steps was conducted to examine the relationship between proactive coping and organizational citizenship behavior. In the first step, work experience was entered as the control variable and the result was significant ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1,210) = 2.92$, $p < .05$); work experience predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .14$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$). In the second step, preventive coping was entered into the equation; however preventive coping did not explain variance in OCB. In the last step, proactive coping skills was entered and the result was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .28$, $F(3,208) = 29.75$, $p < .001$) and proactive coping skills predicted organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .53$, $t = 9.15$, $p < .001$) over and above the other variables (preventive coping and work experience)

Table 3.20 The Effect of Proactive Coping on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

	β	t	$Sig.$	R^2	R^2	$Sig. R^2$	F
					Change	Change	
Step 1				.02			3.92*
Work experience	.14	1.98	.049				
Step 2				.02	.00	.748	2.00
Work experience	.13	1.94	.054				
Preventive coping	.02	.32	.748				
Step 3				.30	.28	.000	29.75***
Work experience	.07	1.21	.228				
Preventive coping	.02	.29	.775				
Proactive coping	.53	9.15	.000				

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

3.6.4 Prediction of Preventive Coping Over and About Proactive Coping on Organizational Outcomes

To examine the relationships between preventive coping and organizational outcomes (i.e. professional self-esteem, job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior), four hierarchical multiple regressions with three steps were conducted. However, after controlling for work experience and proactive coping, preventive coping did not predict any organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between coping strategies and organizational outcomes and to discover the role of work attachment styles over this relationship and to make a contribution to the literature of coping by examining the influence of proactive and preventive coping which are among the new concepts of coping literature. In line with the expectation proactive coping associated positively with work engagement and organizational outcomes. Moreover preventive coping associated with burnout positively as expected. However; contrary to expectation preventive coping was unrelated with organizational outcomes. The results of the study present comprehensive findings to understand the relationship among these factors and enable to interpret underlying dynamics behind these constructions. In this section, the findings of present study are discussed in detail. After providing a discussion of the findings, the chapter continues with limitations and suggestions of the study. Contributions of the present study and implications for organizations are also presented.

4.1 Evaluation of the Findings

In this study, work experience was taken as a control variable since it might have an impact on the variables of this study such as proactive coping, job satisfaction, burnout and engagement (Mackoniene & Norvile, 2012). The present findings are parallel to other studies that observed positive correlations between work experience, job satisfaction and engagement. Similar results were observed for the positive job satisfaction and engagement relation with the previous findings (Levinson, Fetchkan, and Hohensil, 1988; Mackoniene & Norvile, 2012). Possible explanation for the positive correlation between, job satisfaction and engagement is that more experienced employees have changed at least several jobs compared to younger, less experienced employees working in their first job, and therefore they more satisfied with their

present job. On the other hand, there are contradictory findings for the experience and burnout relationship. While Mackoniene & Norvile(2012) reported negative relationship between burnout and experience, Murns and Cain(2003) and Huebner (1992) reported a positive relation. Although findings of this study indicated a positive relationship between burnout and work experience, significant association could not be found.

The results of this present study supported some of the hypothesis and more importantly the majority of the results provided direct effects. In this section, the findings will be interpreted one by one and as a whole.

4.1.1 Influences of Coping Strategies on Work Attachment Styles

In line with expectation it was found several significant relationships between proactive and preventive coping and work attachment styles in terms of engagement and burnout which is the negative attachment style. With regard to work attachment styles, proactive coping was associated with burnout negatively and engagement positively as expected. However, proactive coping was more related to engagement than to burnout.

The findings of present study are consistent with the studies which reported a negative relationship between proactive coping and burnout (Greenglass & Uskul, 2005; Greenglass, Fiksenbaum, & Eaton, 2006; Gonzalez-Morales, Rodriguez, & Peiro', 2010; Lewin & Sager, 2009; Yip, Rowlinson, & Siu, 2008, Angelo & Chambel, 2014) and positive relationship between proactive coping and engagement (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris 2008; Sohl & Moyer, 2009; Gan, Yang, Zhou, & Zhang, 2007; Reschly, Huebner Appleton, & Antaramian, 2008, Angelo & Chambel). Starting with the negative relationship between proactive coping and burnout which has relatively low correlation compared to the proactive coping and engagement relationship, the underlying mechanism behind it can be explained with two plausible explanations. Firstly, perceived high control of proactive coping oriented individuals on job demands may enlighten this relationship. Since they have high self-esteem and high self-efficacy (Greenglass, 2002; Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002; Veresova & Mala, 2012), they may perceive some work stressors to be manageable and therefore work stressors may be appraised as potentially rewarding by proactive coping individuals

and in turn their motivation and eagerness may increase toward their job instead of feeling burn out. Previous studies also support this idea by underlining the positive role of high self-esteem and high self-efficacy on motivation of employees toward their job (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Parker, Bindl, Strauss, 2010) and negative role of them on experiencing burnout (Alarcon, Eschleman, Bowling, 2009). Second possible explanation to negative relationship between burnout and proactive coping can be experiencing positive mood of proactive coping individuals. Billings, Folkman, Acree and Moskowitz (2000) underlined the importance of positive feelings during stressful situations and indicated that they associated with lower level of negative physical symptoms. According to Burns, Brown, Sachs-Ericsson, Plant, Curtis and Frederickson (2006), using proactive coping may increase the continued experience of positive mood over time and individuals engaging in proactive coping continue to experience less negative emotions and positive mood states when they face with stressful situations because positive feelings. Greenglass (2005) support this idea and suggest that high proactive coping individuals should be related lower burnout because they have resources that can be helpful in alleviating the impact of stress such as self-efficacy, self-confidence and positive emotions. Therefore it can be inferred that since proactive coping individuals experience less negative emotions against work stressors, they may keep their well-being at work and less likely to feel burned out.

In addition to the relationship between proactive coping and burnout, proactive coping and engagement relation was also examined and it was found that proactive coping predicted engagement positively that is consistent with the literature as mentioned before. It is not surprising that proactive coping predicted engagement positively because proactive coping oriented individuals utilize from job resources thanks to their characteristic features such as extraversion and agreeableness which are very helpful in constructing interpersonal relations at work (Hambrick & McCord, 2010). Broaden-build theory also explains this situation by suggesting that positive emotions provide individuals to generate resources and in turn build up more social supportive relationship (Frederickson, 2001). Proactive coping individuals are more likely to receive colleague and/or supervisory support which are among the job resources during work since they are open to seek social support from their environment and it is known that job resources have a crucial role in acquiring work

engagement and lack of resources associates with stress and burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Jonge, Janssen, & Schaufeli 2001). Additionally, proactive coping individuals find more opportunities for personal growth at work which is another job resource that engages employees to their work. As such proactive coping oriented individuals strive to fulfill their ideals by endeavoring to reach personal development and set challenging goals to generate self-promotion (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). Therefore it can be inferred that using proactive coping may enable employees to find more opportunities to use job resources and thanks to these resources like supervisory support, colleague support and opportunities for personal development, they build up a positive state of mind toward their work by coping with the burden of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Another reason carrying proactive coping individuals to engagement can be their motivation. Motivation behind proactive coping is based on challenge appraisal as Schwarzer & Taubert (2002) indicated and proactive coping oriented individuals try to achieve personal quality standards. In this way they are likely to appraise the stressors as challenging at work since stressors may be perceived as opportunity for growth by employees using proactive coping. For instance they may attribute a positive meaning to dealing with stressors in terms of career advancement, promotion or self-enhancement. In this way it can be assumed that when employees appraise the stressful tasks as challenging their motivation towards work also enhance and in turn being motivated they engaged toward their work (Lepine, Podsakoff and LePine, 2005)

The link between preventive coping and work attachment styles is also important as the link proactive coping and work attachment styles. In this regard, Hypothesis 2 suggested that preventive coping skills would be associated with burnout positively and engagement negatively. It was found that preventive coping predicted burnout positively as expected but contrary to expectation preventive coping did not predict engagement either positively or negatively. The coping literature lacks the empirical data to show the association between preventive coping and work attachment styles, especially regarding with burnout there is no study. Therefore this study aimed to contribute to the literature by examining this relationship. One of the possible explanations that can be attributed to the positive relationship between burnout and preventive coping is characteristics of preventive coping individuals. As it

was explained before, preventive coping individuals seems to have low self-esteem, low self-efficacy and high level of worry for their future and it is known that these kind of feelings are among the human related antecedents of burnout (Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009). When they face with demanding situations at work, employees using preventive coping strategies may feel inadequate and low self-control on the tasks and not appraised the stressors in a positive way like hindrance stressors as Lepine, Podsakoff and LePine, (2005) suggested. Therefore they may feel unattached towards their work because situations perceived as hindering impair growth opportunities and in turn diminish engagement and motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Another explanation toward this positive relationship between preventive coping and burnout can be made from the point of job resources and burnout relationship. It is known that lack of resources has been linked to fatigue and burnout in studies (Hakanen et al., 2008, Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004 and negative emotions as in the case of preventive coping may restrain opportunities of building interpersonal relations at work (Fredrickson, 2001). Thus, preventive coping individuals may not find a colleague support or supervisory support which can be helpful in alleviating the burden of job demands and in turn may experience burnout. Moreover contrary to proactive coping individuals, since preventive coping individuals focus on risk aversion behaviors and motivated to fulfill his/her duties to avoid the negative consequences instead of focusing on advancement, accomplishment and aspirations like proactive coping individuals, they may not find opportunities for personal development which is among the job resources and they may disengaged toward their work. In addition to burnout, the relationship between preventive coping skills and engagement was tested but preventive coping did not predict engagement although there was a negative relationship expectation. Therefore it can be inferred that there may be another factors influencing the preventive coping and engagement relationship and this factors can be investigated in future studies.

4.1.2 Influences of Coping Strategies on Organizational Outcomes

In addition to influence of proactive and preventive coping strategies on work attachment styles, influence of these coping strategies was investigated on the

organizational outcomes. It was suggested that while proactive coping would influence positively the organizational outcomes which are professional self-esteem, job satisfaction, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior preventive coping would have negative influence on the negative attachment styles. Beginning with the proactive coping and outcomes of work attachment styles relationship, it was found that proactive coping predicted all of the organizational outcomes positively after controlling work experience factor. Hence, it can be said that hypothesis three was fully supported. The literature lacks the empirical data investigating these relationships therefore it can be asserted that this study will broaden the coping literature by indicating significant proactive coping and organizational outcomes style relationship. Although there is a scarcity in the literature e, relation between proactive and preventive coping and organizational outcomes can be explained from the perspective of Higgin's (1997) regulatory focus theory which assumes that individual's regulation of goals depend on either promotion focus-a regulatory state focusing on advancement, accomplishment and aspirations, or prevention focus-a regulatory state focusing on protection, safety, and avoiding negative outcomes. As can be understand from the literature proactive and preventive coping concepts are based on the regulatory focus theory (Grant & Ashford, 2008), former can be referred to promotion focus and latter can be referred to prevention focus.

The reasons behind the significant positive relationship between proactive coping and professional self-esteem can be enlightened with two plausible explanations. Firstly, since proactive coping individuals have high self-esteem and self-efficacy, they may feel high confidence in their ability to perform their work properly and thanks to this belief their professional self-esteem may increase because they may feel qualified in their profession and construct positive statement towards it. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) support this statement by suggesting that individuals orientation toward promotion or prevention focus influence their perceptions of their job. While promotion focus employees are more likely to perceive their job as positive because they focus on the positive features of the environment , prevention focus employees focus on more negative future of the environment and in turn they may have negative attitudes about their job (Markovits, Ullrich, Van Dick & Davis, 2008 ; Tseng& Kang, 2008). Second possible explanation for this positive

relationship proactive can be made from the perspective of their career motivation. Since proactive coping individuals strive for their challenging goals, they may be very selective during their job search and pursue their goals by taking conscientious actions to find their ideal profession. Previous studies findings related proactivity and level of salaries also can support this idea by suggesting a positive correlation between proactivity and satisfaction from the level of salaries (Seibert, Scott, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Rode, Day, Hooney, Near & Baldwin, 2008). Career construction theory support this situation by implying that individuals' motivation, determination and self-efficacy beliefs predict their career outcomes (Savickas, 1997; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Therefore it would not be surprising for proactive coping employees to have high professional self-esteem since they make an effort to find their ideal profession at the beginning.

This situation also explains the result indicating positive relationship between proactive coping and job satisfaction in line with the expectation. Since proactive individuals are likely to satisfy from their profession it is not surprising that they also likely to satisfy from their job. Employees' enthusiasm because of profession may in turn directly bring job satisfaction towards their job (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham, 1989). In addition to this profession perspective of this relationship, dispositional features of proactive coping employees may clarify job satisfaction. If a person has a positive self-regard as in proactive coping, he/she is more likely to see his/her job in a more positive way and this positive self-evaluation may be associated with job satisfaction (Viel, Houchins, Jolivette, Benson, 2010). Proactive coping is likely to have positive impact on job satisfaction because it is associated with positive emotions and mood states (Frederickson, 2006; Sohl & Moyer, 2009) and positive emotions may enhance general feelings of job satisfaction (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Although there are contradictory findings in the literature, majority of the findings support the positive relationship between proactive coping and job satisfaction. While Mackoniene and Norvile (2012) found negative weak relationship between job satisfaction and proactive coping, other studies indicated significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and promotion focus which is a very similar concept to proactive coping (Brief, Butcher, & Roberson, 1995; Lanaj, Chang & Johnson, 2012).

On the other hand, significant positive relationship between proactive coping and job performance which is in line with expectation can be explained in a way that, proactive coping employees prefer and create situations that enhance the likelihood of high level of performance by setting more challenging goals and taking purposeful actions for self-development (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002 ; Veresova & Mala, 2012). Hence, proactive individuals may designate higher performance standards for themselves and strive to reach their ideal goal. Similar findings were found for the promotion focus oriented individuals. Studies indicated that reaching or exceeding high performance goals meant for self-actualization and self-aspiration for promotion focus employees and they associated setting more challenging goals to reach their ideal (Wallace, Johnson and Frasier, 2009; Higgins and Spiegel, 2004).

Another possible factor explaining the reason why proactive coping predict positively job performance can be its alleviating effect on the negative effect of stress. Knowing that stress has vitally negative impact on job performance (Nawaz, Mohsan and Khan, 2011), using proactive coping may be very useful in blocking the negative influence of stress on job performance and may enable employees to perform their job properly. Lastly, results showed significant positive relationship between proactive coping and organizational citizenship behavior as it was expected. Studies investigating the relation between promotion focus and OCB are also in line this result (Bolino, 1999; Rioux and Penner, 2001; Wallace, Johnson and Frasier, 2009). According to Lavelle (2010), employees may perform OCB in order to gain rewards and achieve better career advancements. This idea is consistent with proactive coping because proactive coping individuals are motivated by the activities and tasks enhancing their self-concept and offering them career advancement (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002; Veresova & Mala, 2012). Experiencing positive emotions instead of negative ones may also explain the reason behind proactive coping and OCB relationship. According to Johnson, Telentino, Rodopman and Cho (2010), employees are more likely to perform OCB when they experience positive emotions. Because employees using proactive coping strategies are less likely to experience negative emotions such as stress, worry and anxiety and more likely to experience cheerfulness related emotions, they may perform OCB by going beyond from their regular responsibilities.

In addition to hypothesis expecting positive relationship between proactive coping and organizational outcomes, hypothesis four suggested that preventive coping would affect outcomes of work attachment styles negatively (i.e. professional self-esteem, job satisfaction, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior). There are no studies examining the relationship between preventive coping and these outcomes. Therefore this study aimed to show these relationships; however, counter to expectations, preventive coping was unrelated to organizational outcomes. In this regard it might be concluded that hypothesis four was not supported. Therefore it can be inferred that lack of significant association between preventive coping and these outcomes may be because of other factors which may influence the relationship between preventive coping and organizational outcomes. Like prevention focus employees, preventive coping individuals performance and attitudes towards his/her job and/or profession may depend on how they frame the task (Higgins, 2000).

While proactive coping individuals frame the tasks in terms of goal achievement, preventive coping individuals frame as goal maintenance. Framing the tasks as goal maintenance in order to avoid negative consequences, preventive coping individuals may take flexible actions in order to be on the safe side. For instance, preventive coping individuals may perceive an obligation to show at least standard performance in order to fulfill the requirement in their job or may want to avoid negative consequences of performing low job performance. In parallel to these reasons they may perform OCB by engaging extra roles. Turkish employees who are using preventive coping might adapt themselves in accordance with the conditions and may have fear of losing their job since the unemployment rate of Turkey is 10.5% which is considerably high as of February, 2014 according to the web site of Turkish Statistics Institute. In this regard the cost of losing the job may be perceived as very risky and in turn they may try to show better performance and have a positive attitude toward their job and profession. Another possible explanation for these insignificant results may be because of the type of jobs. The sample was collected from individuals with different jobs. However if the data had been collected from the jobs requiring high vigilance, such as certain military jobs, security jobs or auditors, preventive coping would be predicted to affect these outcomes positively. Keith and Frese (2005) explain this situation in their study because they observed that prevention people oriented people continually

monitoring their circumstances for errors. Therefore it can be inferred that preventive coping individuals would be positively related for safety performance which consists of employee activities contributing to workplace safety (Griffin & Neal, 2000) and studies found positive association between safety performance and prevention focus (Scholer & Higgins, 2008; Little & Shull, 2008). Future studies should therefore investigate some moderator factors explaining the preventive coping and organizational outcomes relationship and researchers should design their studies specific to the jobs.

4.1.3 Coping and Organizational Outcomes: The Role of Work Engagement Styles

Some important outcomes have been observed by the mediational hypothesis. The results show that engagement partially mediates the proactive coping and organizational outcomes relationships, however contrary to expectations burnout did not mediate the relationship between preventive coping and organizational outcomes

It was suggested in the fifth hypothesis that the relationship between proactive coping and organizational outcomes namely professional self-esteem, job satisfaction, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior would be mediated by work engagement and the results showed that engagement mediates the influence of proactive coping on organizational outcomes were mediated by engagement except for organizational citizenship behavior. Hence, it can be inferred that hypothesis five was partially supported. In the literature there is no study about the mediating role of engagement for the relationship between proactive coping and organizational outcomes. In this manner, it can be asserted that this study was the first study to examine mediating role of work engagement. The findings once more underline the importance of work engagement as an exploratory mechanism between the relationship of coping and outcomes and it can be overtly understand from the results that work engagement mediate the influence of proactive coping. Therefore, it can be suggested that proactive coping is an essential element in acquiring work engagement, and work engagement affects significantly the outcomes which are related to business life. Engaging their work, individuals experience connectivity to the work and in turn they may be motivated to show high performance including task performance and

OCB and may be prone to have more positive attitudes about their job (Kahn, 1990; Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). However the expected mediation between proactive coping and organizational citizenship behavior was not found. Some organizational factors may have role in this relationship such as perceived organizational justice of employees'. Some studies indicated that perception of fairness in organizations influences employees' OCB (Ambrose, 2002; Viswesvaran, & Ones, 2002; Zhang, 2006). When employees perceive some extent of unfair practices at work, they may avoid performing extra roles in addition to their regular job duties. In this regard, future research can be needed to take under consideration possible factors which can be influential for this relationship.

In addition to mediational analysis of work engagement on the relationship proactive coping and the organizational outcomes, another mediational was conducted for the relationship preventive coping and the outcomes of work attachment styles through the role of burnout. Hypothesis six suggested that the relationship between preventive coping and organizational outcomes would be mediated by burnout, however contrary to expectations results showed that preventive coping did not have any effect on organizational outcomes and so mediation analysis could not be performed. Therefore it can be inferred that hypothesis six was not supported. The reason behind this insignificant relationship can be explained by other dynamics as mentioned before. Although preventive coping individuals experience burnout as results of present study suggested, they may not reflect their feelings to their work because of various reasons. They may repress their disengagement toward work and try to fulfill the requirements of their job, sometimes may go beyond their regular job and try to make their best. In this regard future studies should give some thought to these results and examine the dynamics affecting these outcomes. Moreover organizations should also try to understand the factors leading preventive coping individuals to experience burnout and examine the dynamics behind their repressing effort for their negative feelings.

4.2 Contributions of the Study

This study provides several important contributions to the existing literature. First of all it is the first time a study put emphasize on the distinctive feature of proactive and preventive coping by treating the latter one as an antecedent of negative work attachment. These are the two separate subscales of proactive coping inventory and some studies used two coping styles as a single concept of proactive coping although Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) underlined the distinctive features of both scales. Referring their unique definitions as they offered, this study contributed to the existing literature empirically distinguished data for proactive and preventive coping.

Second, this study showed that proactive coping is better predictors of work attachment related outcomes compared to preventive coping. Proactive coping has an influence on all outcomes of work attachment styles namely; professional self-esteem, job satisfaction, job performance and OCB.

Third contribution of this study is about the professional self-esteem. Present study included professional self-esteem as an important outcome of coping strategies since the literature lacks the data related this kind of personal outcome as there is only relationship between efficacy and professional self-esteem relationship was found as it is mentioned before.

Fourth contribution of the current study is the exploration of the mediating role of engagement for the proactive coping and organizational outcomes relationship. This study is the first study to examine mediating role of work attachment styles between coping strategies and organizational outcomes. In this study, the mediational effect of engagement over proactive coping is clearly discovered and underlined the importance of work engagement on organizational outcomes. Although this study could not find a mediational effect of burnout over preventive coping and organizational outcomes, it provides us to understand that individual may repress their negative feelings and strive to not reflect them to their job.

Fifth, this study showed for the first time that in addition to regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997), regulatory coping strategies namely proactive and preventive coping are also important.

Lastly, contribution of this study is that proactive coping and preventive coping scales were translated in to Turkish to provide Turkish literature two new scales with high psychometric properties. Therefore these two scales can be used for the future studies.

4.3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

This study has several limitations. First of all, the number of participants is relatively low in comparison with other studies in the literature. Higher number of participants can provide more accurate results. Therefore futures studies should include adequate participants.

Second, proactive and preventive coping scales were translated in to Turkish and this study is the first to test their psychometric properties. Therefore, the results of this must be taken under consideration accordingly because the reliabilities and validities based only this study.

Third, the study completed with self-report questionnaires and it is not free form bias such as social desirability. Future research should collect the data of outcome variables especially job performance and OCB from supervisors because employees are more likely to give socially desirable responses when level of performance is questioned.

Fourth, it was suggested that preventive coping would predict the organizational outcomes; however results did not support this suggestion. These results may be culture specific. In this regard, cultural dynamics can be added to future studies to reveal better understanding such as individualism, collectivism and uncertainty avoidance dimensions.

4.4 Implications for Managers and Organizations

The results of the study present several implications for managers and organizations. First of all it seems that the effects of proactive and preventive coping are indicative for the work attachment styles of employees. The results showed that proactive coping has some positive outcomes for employees using it. The increase in using the proactive coping provides employees to have more positive attitudes toward their job and profession and to engage their work with a high motivation and decreases

the probability of experiencing disengagement towards to job. Briefly, proactive coping provides increment in work engagement and decreases burnout. Therefore, in terms of practical implications for organizations and managerial perspective, proactive coping can be very important in which the demanding jobs because of its alleviating effect on the negative impacts of stress and additionally its role on increasing potential for growth and well-being. Therefore managers should take notice of its positive effects on employees and invest in the promotion of proactive coping strategy in the organizations. As stress cannot be vanished from the work life, it is important to develop strategies not only alleviating the negative effect of stress but also increasing potential for growth and well-being as in the case of proactive coping. Therefore the present study can be a good guide for managers who would like to help her/his subordinates for their feelings of stress and encourage them for self-promotion and growth.

As proactive coping, preventive coping may provide managers some practical ideas to apply in their organizations. In this study, while proactive coping is related with burnout negatively, preventive coping is related positively. Since burnout lead to negative individual and organizational outcomes, managers can have a better understanding the reason why employees are burned out and show lower performance and negative job attitudes compared to other employees.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji bölümü, Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi yüksek lisans programı, tez çalışması kapsamında hazırlanan bu araştırma projesinde stresle başa çıkma biçimleri ve bu biçimlerin etkileri üzerine bir çalışma yapılmaktadır. Gelecekte bu alanda yapılacak çalışmaların iyileştirilmesi ve çatışmaların yaşandığı durumda yaşanacak sorunları engelleyebilmek adına daha net bilgiler edinebilmemiz için, bu çalışmanın sonuçları büyük önem taşımaktadır.

Araştırma için sizlere bazı testler verilecektir. Bilgilerinizi girerek ve anketleri yanıtlayarak bu çalışmaya katılmak istediğinizi göstermiş olacaksınız. Eğer çalışmaya katılmak istemiyorsanız, lütfen anketleri yanıtlamayınız. Anketler içerisinde, kimlik belirleyici ya da çalıştığınız kuruma dair herhangi bir bilgi istenmemektedir. Bütün anketler anonim olarak toplanacak ve yalnızca bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılacaktır. Anketleri tamamlamak yaklaşık olarak 20 dakika sürecektir.

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul etmeniz durumunda, lütfen soruların hepsini, hiç bir maddeyi atlamadan ve size en uygun cevabı işaretleyerek, eksiksiz bir şekilde cevaplayınız.

Yanıtlarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır ve sadece araştırma ekibinden kişiler bu yanıtlara erişebilecektir. Bu araştırmaya katılmanız mecburi değildir. Katılım tamamen gönüllülük üzerine kuruludur. Herhangi bir sorunuz olması halinde lütfen bizimle iletişime geçiniz.

Bu araştırmanın gerçekleştirilebilmesi ancak sizlerin katkıları ile mümkün olacaktır. Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

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APPENDIX B

Items for Preventive Coping

1. Olası sonuçları göz önünde bulundurarak planlar yaparım
2. Kazandığım her bir kuruşu harcamaktansa kötü günler için biriktirmeyi tercih ederim
3. Olumsuz durumlara karşı hazırlıklıyım
4. Bir felaket meydana gelmeden önce kendimi onun sonuçlarına hazırlarım
5. Becerilerimi kendimi işsizliğe karşı korumak için geliştiririm
6. Ailemin gelecek olan olumsuzluklara karşı iyi bir şekilde korunduğundan emin olurum
7. Tehlikeli durumlardan kaçınırım
8. Stratejelerimi benim için en iyi olacak sonucu düşünerek planlarım
9. Yaşlandığımda muhtaç duruma düşmemek için paramı iyi yönetmeye çalışırım

APPENDIX C

Items for Proactive Coping

1. Sorumluluk almaktan çekinmeyen biriyim
2. Olayların çözümünü doğal akışına bırakırım (-)
3. Bir hedefi başardıktan sonra daha zorlayıcı hedeflerin arayışına girerim
4. Zorlukların üstesinden gelmeyi severim
5. Hayallerimi gerçekleştirmek için çaba sarfederim
6. Birtakım aksilikler olsada,genelde istediğimi elde ederim
7. Başarılı olmak için nelere ihtiyacım olduğunu kesin olarak belirlemeye çalışırım
8. Engelleri aşmak adına her zaman alternatif bir yol bulmaya çabalarım. Kolay kolay pes etmem
9. Kendimi sık sık başarısızlık içinde görürüm bu yüzden beklentilerimi çok yüksek tutmam (-)
10. Bir pozisyona başvurduğumda o pozisyonun tüm gerekliliklerini yerine getireceğimi düşünürüm
11. Engelleri kendi avantajıma dönüştürebilirim
12. Biri bana bir işi yapamayacağımı söylerse o işi kesinlikle yaparım
13. Bir problemle karşılaştığımda o problemi çözmek için sorumluluk alırım
14. Bir problemle karşılaştığımda kendimi kaybeden bir durumda görürüm (-)

APPENDIX D

Items for Burnout

1. İşimden soğuduğumu hissediyorum.
2. İş dönüşü ruhen tükenmiş hissediyorum.
3. Sabah kalktığımda bir gün daha bu işi kaldıramayacağımı düşünüyorum.
4. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların ne hissettiğini hemen anlarım (-)
5. İşim gereği karşılaştığım bazı insanlara sanki insan değillermiş gibi davrandığımı hissediyorum.
6. Bütün gün insanlarla uğraşmak benim için gerçekten çok yıpratıcı.
7. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların sorunlarına en uygun çözüm yollarını bulurum.(-)
8. Yaptığım işten tükendiğimi hissediyorum.
9. Yaptığım iş sayesinde insanların yaşamına katkıda bulunduğuma inanıyorum. (-)
10. Bu işte çalışmaya başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı sertleştim.
11. Bu işin beni giderek katılaştırmasından korkuyorum.
12. Çok şeyler yapabilecek güçteyim. (-)
13. İşimin beni kısıtladığını hissediyorum.
14. İşimde çok fazla çalıştığımı hissediyorum.
15. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlara ne olduğu umurumda değil.
16. Doğrudan doğruya insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla stres yaratıyor.
17. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlarla aramda rahat bir hava yaratırım (-)
18. İnsanlarla yakın bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi canlanmış hissederim. (-)
19. Bu işte birçok kayda değer başarı elde ettim. (-)
20. Yolun sonuna geldiğimi hissediyorum.
21. İşimdeki duygusal sorunlara serinkanlılıkla yaklaşırım. (-)
22. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların bazı problemlerini sanki ben yaratmışım gibi davrandıklarını hissediyorum..

APPENDIX E

Items for Work Engagement

1. Çalışırken kendimi enerji dolu hissedirim.
2. Yaptığım işi anlamlı ve amaç yüklü buluyorum.
3. Çalışırken zaman akıp gider, nasıl geçtiğini anlamam.
4. İsteyken güçlü ve dinç hissediyorum.
5. İşimle ilgili konularda şevk duyarım, çok hevesliyimdir.
6. Çalışırken işimden başka her şeyi unuturum.
7. İşim bana ilham verir.
8. Sabahları kalktığımda işe seerek giderim.
9. Yoğun olarak çalıştığımda kendimi mutlu hissedirim.
10. Yaptığım işle gurur duyuyorum.
11. Kendimi işime kaptırırım.
12. Uzun zaman süreleri boyunca aralıksız çalışmaya devam edebilirim.
13. Benim için işim kapasitemi gelişmeye zorlayan büyük bir uğraştır.
14. Çalışırken kendimden geçerim.
15. İşimde zihnimi çabuk ve güçlü bir şekilde toparlarım.
16. Kendimi işimden ayırmam zordur.
17. İşimde bazı şeyler yolunda gitmediğinde bile sebatkarımdır-yılmam

APPENDIX F

Items for Professional Self Esteem

1. Kendimi sahip olduğum mesleğimden daha iyi mesleklere layık görüyorum.
2. Mesleğim benim için önemlidir.
3. Mesleğimi kisiliğime uygun bulmuyorum. (-)
4. Mesleğim sorulduğunda gurur duyarak bir cevap veremiyorum. (-)
5. Mesleğimde üretken ve verimli olabileceğimi düşünüyorum.
6. Mesleğimi istemeyerek seçtim. (-)
7. Mesleğim benim benliğimin bir parçasıdır
8. Mesleğimin gerektirdiği zihinsel etkinliklere kendimi veremiyorum. (-)
9. Mesleğime çok saygı duyuyorum.
10. Tercih hatası yüzünden şu anda istemediğim bir meslek alanındayım. (-)
11. Mesleğimin aranan ve istenilen bir meslek olduğunu düşünüyorum.
12. Mesleğimin değerlerini hala benimseyebilmiş değilim. (-)
13. Mesleğimden memnunum
14. Mesleğim insanlar üzerinde etki bırakabilecek niteliklere sahiptir.
15. Mesleğimi küçümsüyorum. (-)
16. Mesleğime duygusal olarak kendimi verebiliyorum
17. Bu mesleği seçtiğim için kendi içimde çatışma yaşadığım olur. (-)
18. Mesleğim vasıtasıyla insanlık için önemli ve faydalı işler başarabilirim.
19. Yeteneklerimin mesleğime uygun olmadığını düşünüyorum. (-)
20. Mesleğimin parlak bir geleceği olduğunu düşünüyorum.
21. Mesleğimi değiştirmeyi düşünüyorum. (-)
22. Mesleğimin benim ihtiyaçlarımı karşılayamadığını düşünüyorum. (-)
23. Onur duyarak söyleyebileceğim bir mesleğim olmasını isterdim. (-)
24. Mesleğimi kendim istediğim için yapıyorum
25. Mesleğime ilişkin olumsuz bir eleştiri aldığımda mesleğimi değersiz görme eğilimine giriyorum (-)
26. Yeri geldiğinde mesleğimi rahatlıkla savunabilirim.
27. İlgilerimin mesleğime uygun olmadığını düşünüyorum.
28. Mesleğimin itibarlı olduğunu düşünüyorum.

29. Gerçekte zevk almadığım halde,mesleğimden zevk alıyormuş gibi görünürüm.

(-)

30. Mesleğim, bir meslekte bulunmasını istediğim özelliklere sahip.

APPENDIX G

Items for Job Satisfaction

1. Genel olarak konuşmak gerekirse, bu iş beni çok tatmin ediyor.
2. Bu işte yaptığım çalışmalar, genel olarak, beni tatmin ediyor.
3. Bu işte çalışanların çoğu işlerinden tatmin olmaktadırlar

APPENDIX I

Items for Job Performance

1. Yüksek kalitede iş ortaya koymaktayım.
2. İşimin esasını oluşturan ana görevlerimi başarıyla yerine getirmekteyim.
3. İşimi yaparken zamanı verimli bir şekilde kullanabilmekte ve iş planlarına bağlı kalmaktayım
4. İş başarılı bir şekilde yapabilmek için gerekli teknik bilgiyi görevlerimi yerine getirirken etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.
5. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken sözlü iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.
6. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken yazılı iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.
7. Kendi işimin bir parçası olmayan işleri de yapmak için gönüllü olmaktayım.
8. Kendi işlerimi yaparken büyük bir heves ve gayret içerisindeyim.
9. Gerektiğinde çalışma arkadaşlarıma yardım etmekte ve onlarla işbirliği içerisinde çalışmaktayım.
10. Kurum kurallarını ve prosedürlerini onaylamakta ve bunlara uyum göstermekteyim.
11. Kurum hedeflerini onaylamakta, desteklemekte ve savunmaktayım.

APPENDIX J

Items for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

1. İş yükü ağır olan diğer çalışanlara yardım ederim.
2. Görev bilinci en yüksek çalışanlardan biriyimdir.
3. Grupta her zaman baskaları tarafından idare edilmesi gereken, açıkları kapatılması gereken biriyimdir. (-)
4. İş arkadaşlarıma sorun yaratmaktan kaçınırım.
5. Kurumdaki değişimleri sürekli olarak takip ederim.
6. Her zaman çevremdekilere yardım etmeye hazırım.
7. Aldığım paranın hakkını vermenin gerekliliğine inanırım.
8. Önemli konularla ilgili şikayet ederek çok zaman kaybederim. (-)
9. Davranışlarımın iş arkadaşları üzerindeki etkisini göz önünde tutarım.
10. Katılımı zorunlu olmayan fakat önemli görülen toplantılara katılırım.
11. İşe gelememiş bir kişiye yardım ederim.
12. İşe devamlılığım standartların üzerindedir.
13. Pireyi deve yaparım. (-)
14. Baskalarının haklarına tecavüz etmem.
15. Katılımı zorunlu olmayan fakat kurum imajı için önemli olan görevleri üstlenirim.
16. İşle ilgili problemleri olanlara kendi istegimle yardım ederim.
17. Fazladan molalar vermem.
18. Olumlu yönleri odaklanmak yerine her zaman hata ararım. (-)
19. Diğer çalışanlarla sorun oluşmaması için önlemler alırım.
20. Kurumsal duyuru, not... vb. materyalleri okur ve takip ederim.
21. Yeni gelenlerin ortama alışmalarına zorunlu olmadığım halde yardım ederim.
22. Kimse farkında olmadığı zamanlarda bile şirket kurallarına uyarım.
23. Kurumun yaptıklarında her zaman kusur bulurum. (-)
24. Davranışlarımın diğer çalışanların işlerine olan etkisine dikkat ederim.

APPENDIX K

Items for Demographic Characteristics

Yaş: ____

Cinsiyet: ____K ____E

İşiniz/Mesleğiniz: _____

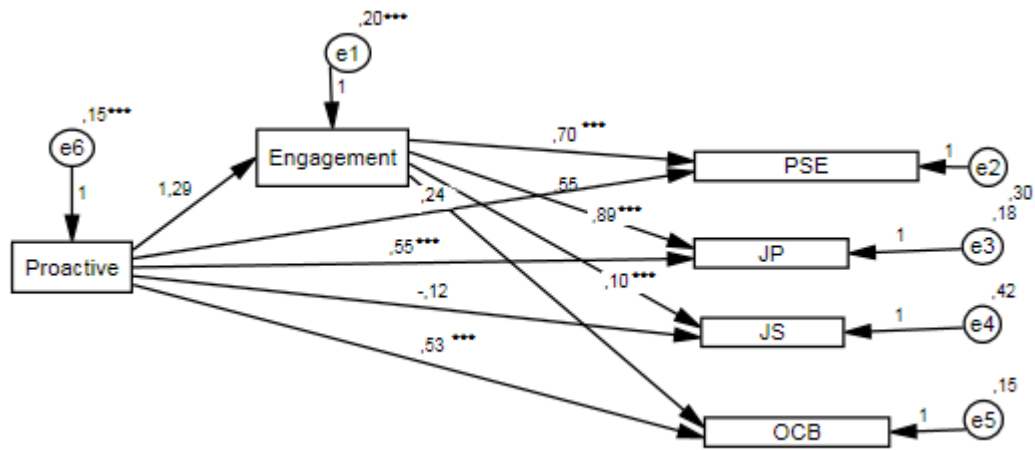
Eğitim Durumunuz: _____

Ünvanınız: _____

Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız: _____

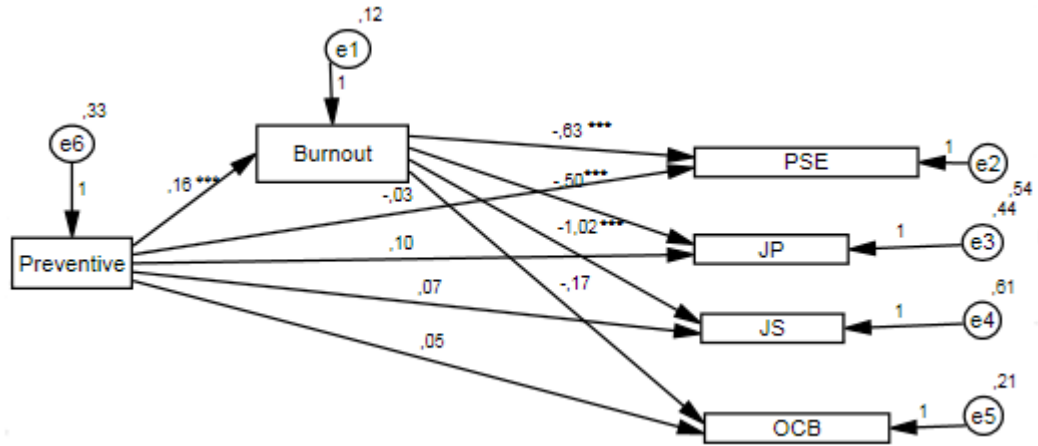
Toplam kaç yıldır iş hayatındasınız: _____

APPENDIX L
MODEL TEST – 1



$\chi^2(6) = 73.31^{**}$, GFI = .91, AGFI = .67, RMSEA = .23, SRMR = .03, CFI = .91

APPENDIX M
MODEL TEST – 2



$\chi^2(6) = 304.62^{**}$, GFI = .67, AGFI = -.17, RMSEA = .49, SRMR = .12, CFI = .22

APPENDIX N
EXTENDED TURKISH SUMMARY

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

1. GİRİŞ

Modern yaşam standartlarının getirdiği artan rekabetçilik olgusundan ötürü stres hayatımızda kaçınılmaz bir fonksiyon olarak yer almaktadır. Bu fonksiyonun insan sağlığına ve iş performansına olan olumsuz etkisi nedeniyle stres psikoloji çalışmalarının odak noktalarından biri haline gelmiş, stresin bireyler ve organizasyonlar üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerini önleyen ya da azaltan stratejiler araştırmacılar tarafından çokça çalışılmıştır. Başa çıkma stratejileri, stresin olumsuz etkilerini önleyen ya da azaltan faktörler arasındadır ve Pareek (1997) tarafından olumsuz koşulların ve stresin üstesinden gelmek adına denenilen yollar ve gösterilen çabalar olarak tanımlanmıştır.

Stres gibi, stresle başa çıkma yolları da araştırmacılar tarafından oldukça fazla bir şekilde çalışılmıştır (Greenglass, Schwarzer, and Taubert, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Hobfoll, 1989; Lazarus, 1991; Mostert & Joubert, 2005; Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007). Bu araştırmalardan geleneksel başa çıkma araştırmaları stresli hissedilen zamanda yapılabileceklere vurgu yaparken, son araştırmalar stresli durumlar oluşmadan önce yapılabileceklere odaklanmaktadır. Özellikle, pozitif psikoloji akımının etkisinden sonra başa çıkma kavramı daha farklı bir biçimde ele alınmıştır (Peiro, 2007) ve artık kişisel gelişme ve öz-yönlendirmeli hedefe ulaşma stratejilerini konu edinmektedir (Schwarzer & Knoll, 2003). Bu yüzden Schwarzer and Taubert (2002) tarafından hedef odaklı ve uyarlanabilir metodlara odaklanan proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma stratejileri önerilmiştir. Onlara göre, geleneksel başa çıkma modelleri başa çıkmanın reaktif özgünlüğüne odaklanıp geçmiş veya süregelen stres etkenlerini dikkate alırken, proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimleri henüz gerçekleşmemiş, öngörülen, olası stres etkenlerini ele alır. Proaktif başa çıkma biçimi, bir bireyin zorlu iş/görevleri edinme, yeni fırsatlar yaratma ve zorlu iş/görevler yoluyla

yükselme yönündeki çabalar olarak tanımlanır. Öte yandan önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ise bireyin güvende hissetmek adına inşa ettiği kişisel kaynaklar olarak tanımlanır. Proaktif başa çıkma biçiminde amaç güvende hissetmeye ek olarak kişisel gelişim ve yükselmek için fırsatlar yaratmaktır.

Stresin çalışanların esenliğini olumsuz yönde etkileyen en önemli faktörlerden biri olması sebebiyle, stresle başa çıkma biçimlerinden olan proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimlerinin örgütsel sonuçlardan mesleki öz saygı, iş doyumu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkisini gözlemlemek mevcut çalışmanın amaçlarından biridir. Ayrıca bu başa çıkma biçimlerinin tükenmişlik ve çalışan bağlılığına etkisi ve bu bağlanma biçimlerinin başatme stratejileri ile yukarıda anılan örgütsel sonuçlar arasında aracı rolü oynayıp oynamadığı da çalışmanın amaçlarındandır.

Önceki çalışmalar, proaktif başa çıkma biçimini tükenmişlik ile negatif yönde ilişkilendirilirken (Uskul & Greenglass, 2005), çalışan bağlılığı ile pozitif yönde ilişkilendirmiştir (Sohl & Moyer, 2009); ancak önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ile işe bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen sınırlı sayıda çalışma vardır. Bu bağlamda bu çalışmanın amaçlarından bir tanesi de önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ile işe bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi gözlemlemektir.

Proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimleri ile işe bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen çalışmaların kısıtlılığının yanı sıra, proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimleri ve bu çalışmada ele alınan örgütsel sonuçlardan mesleki öz saygı, iş doyumu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasındaki ilişki hakkında da çok az şey bilinmektedir. Dolayısıyla bu çalışmanın bir diğer amacı da proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimlerinin örgütsel sonuçlar üzerindeki etkisini gözlemlemektir.

Yukarıda bahsi geçen başa çıkma biçimleri ve örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkiyi tükenmişlik ve çalışan bağlılığını aracı değişken rolü ile incelemek de bu çalışmanın amaçları arasındadır. Tükenmişliğin, örgütsel sonuçlardan iş performansı (Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads, 1994), iş doyumu (Kalliath & Morris, 2002, Dallender & Arnetz, 1999) ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde olumsuz bir etkiye sahip olduğu gözlenmiştir. Öte yandan çalışan bağlılığının iş performansı (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), iş doyumu ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduğu bulunmuştur (Saks, 2006); ancak mesleki öz saygı ile işe

bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen çalışmalara psikoloji yazınında rastlanmamıştır.

Yukarıda açıklanan bilgilerden hareketle, bu çalışmada test edilen hipotezler şunlardır:

Hipotez 1: Proaktif başa çıkma tükenmişlik ile negatif yönde, çalışan bağlılığı ile pozitif yönde ilişkilidir.

Hipotez 2: Önleyici başa çıkma tükenmişlik ile pozitif yönde, çalışan bağlılığı ile negatif yönde ilişkilidir.

Hipotez 3: Proaktif başa çıkma mesleki öz-saygı, iş doyumu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahiptir.

Hipotez 4: Önleyici başa çıkma mesleki öz-saygı, iş doyumu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde negatif bir etkiye sahiptir.

Hipotez 5: Çalışan bağlılığı, proaktif başa çıkma ile mesleki öz-saygı, iş doyumu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasındaki ilişkide aracılık rolü oynar.

Hipotez 6: Tükenmişlik, önleyici başa çıkma ve mesleki öz-saygı, iş doyumu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasındaki ilişkide aracılık rolü oynar

2. YÖNTEM

Mevcut çalışmaya toplam 215 katılımcı dahil olmuştur. Katılımcıların 114'ü kadın (%53), 101'i erkek (%47) olup yaşları 22 ila 54 arasında değişmektedir. Katılımcıların büyük bir kısmı üniversite mezunu (% 70.2) ve mezuniyet sonrası programlardan (%24.7) mezun olmuştur. Tüm katılımcılar anketleri internet yolu ile tamamlamıştır. Tüm örneklemden 90'ı pilot çalışma için seçilmiştir.

2.2 Ölçekler

Proaktif Başa Çıkma Envanteri

Mevcut çalışmada Greenglas, Schwarzer ve Taubert (1999) tarafından geliştirilen Proaktif Başa Çıkma Envanterinden alınan proaktif başa çıkma ve önleyici başa çıkma alt ölçekleri kullanılmıştır. Ölçekler Türkçe'ye çevirmen aracılığı ile çevrilmiş çeviri sonucu bir madde önleyici başa çıkma ölçeğinden çıkarılmıştır. Pilot çalışma sonrasında ise bir madde düşük korelasyondan dolayı proaktif başa çıkma ölçeğinden çıkarılmıştır. İç tutarlılık katsayıları proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma ölçekleri için sırasıyla .75 ve .87 olarak bulunmuştur.

Utrecht İşe Bağlanma Ölçeği

Schaufeli ve Bakker (2003) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup toplamda 17 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçek Türkçe'ye Eryılmaz ve Doğan (2012) tarafından çevrilmiştir. Mevcut çalışmada iç tutarlılık katsayısı .95 olarak elde edilmiştir.

Maslach Tükenmişlik Sendromu Envanteri

Maslach ve Jackson (1981) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup toplamda 22 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Türkçe'ye Ergin (1992) tarafından çevrilmiştir. Mevcut çalışmada iç tutarlılık katsayısı .70 olarak bulunmuştur.

Mesleki Öz-Saygı Ölçeği

Ölçek Arıcak (1999) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup toplamda 30 maddeden oluşmaktadır. İç Tutarlılık katsayısı mevcut çalışmada .96 olarak bulunmuştur.

İş Doyumu Ölçeği

İş tanısı ölçeğinin (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) iş doyumu alt ölçeğinden alınan 3 madde Bilgiç (1999) tarafından kullanılmıştır. İç tutarlılık katsayısı bu çalışmada .81 olarak bulunmuştur.

Performans Ölçeği

Performans ölçeği Beffort ve Hattrup (2003) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup toplamda 9 madde içermektedir. Türkçe'ye Karakurum (2005) tarafından çevrilmiştir. İç tutarlılık katsayısı bu çalışmada .92 olarak bulunmuştur.

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Ölçeği

Ölçek Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) tarafından geliştirilmiş olup toplamda 24 madde içermektedir. Türkçe'ye Bayazıt, Aycan, Aksoy, Göncü, and Öztekin (2006) tarafından çevrilmiştir. İç tutarlılık katsayısı bu çalışmada .74 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3 İşlem

Bu çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve tüm katılımcılara çalışmaya katılmadan önce çalışmanın amacına yönelik bilgi veren gönüllü katılım formu verilmiştir. Veriler internet aracılığı ile elde edilmiş ve kartopu örnekleme kullanmıştır. Veri toplamadan önce Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Etik Komitesi'nden etik izin alınmıştır

3. BULGULAR

3.1 Pilot Çalışma

Proaktif Başa Çıkma Envanteri araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe'ye çevrildiğinden, bu envanterin psikometrik özellikleri incelenmiştir. Pilot çalışmaya 90 kişi katılmıştır. İlk olarak, dokuz maddeden oluşan Proaktif Başa Çıkma Alt ölçeğinin içsel tutarlılığına bakılmış ve sonuç. 72 olarak raporlanmıştır. İkinci olarak, 14 maddeden oluşan Önleyici Başa Çıkma Alt ölçeği incelenmiştir ve içsel tutarlılığı. 61 olarak raporlanmıştır. Ölçeğin ikinci maddesi, alt ölçeğin diğer maddeleri ile düşük ilişileşim gösterdiği için elenmiştir. Böylelikle 13 maddeli halinin içsel tutarlılığı. 67 olarak raporlanmıştır.

3.2 Betimleyici İstatistikler ve Araştırma Değişkenleri Arasındaki Korelasyonlar

Araştırma değişkenlerinin içsel tutarlılıkları (α), ortalamaları (M), ve standart sapmaları (SD) Tablo 3.1’de, değişkenler arasındaki korelasyonlar ise Tablo 3.2’de gösterilmiştir.

Demografik değişkenler arasında, cinsiyet sadece mesleki öz saygı ile negatif yönde ($r = -.14, p < .05$) ilişkili bulunmuştur. Yaş, çalışan bağlılığı ($r = .16, p < .05$) ve iş doyumu ($r = .19, p < .01$) ile pozitif ilişkilidir. Toplam çalışma tecrübesi, çalışan bağlılığı ($r = .25, p < .01$), iş doyumu ($r = .20, p < .01$) ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ($r = .14, p < .05$) ile pozitif ilişkilidir. Önleyici başa çıkma, tükenmişlik ($r = .25, p < .01$) ile pozitif ilişkilidir. Proaktif başa çıkma ise çalışan bağlılığı ($r = .75, p < .01$), mesleki öz saygı ($r = .58, p < .01$), iş performansı ($r = .71, p < .01$), iş doyumu ($r = .46, p < .01$), örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ($r = .55, p < .01$) ile pozitif, ve tükenmişlik ile negatif yönlü ilişkilidir ($r = -.15, p < .01$). Çalışan bağlılığı iş performansı ($r = .77, p < .01$), iş doyumu ($r = .65, p < .01$), ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ($r = .47, p < .01$) ile pozitif, tükenmişlik ile negatif yönde ilişkilidir ($r = -.22, p < .01$). Tükenmişlik, iş performansı ($r = -.24, p < .01$), iş doyumu ($r = -.41, p < .01$) ile negatif, mesleki öz saygı ($r = -.30, p < .01$) ile pozitif korelasyon göstermektedir.

Bağımlı değişkenler arasındaki korelasyonlar incelendiğinde, mesleki öz saygı ile iş performansı ($r = .67, p < .01$), iş doyumu ($r = .56, p < .01$), ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ($r = .35, p < .01$) arasında pozitif ilişkiler bulunmuştur. İş performansı ise iş doyumu ($r = .52, p < .01$) ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ($r = .64, p < .01$) ile pozitif ilişkilidir. Son olarak iş doyumu ise örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ile ($r = .28, p < .01$) pozitif korelasyon göstermiştir.

3.3 Faktör Analizi Sonuçları

Proaktif Başa Çıkma Envanteri araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe’ye çevrilmiştir ve envanterin içsel tutarlılığının incelenmesi adına pilot çalışma düzenlenmiştir. Varimax rotasyonu ile açıklayıcı faktör analizi ana çalışmada yapılmıştır. Başlangıç sonuçları beş-faktörlü çözüm vermiştir. Fakat birçok madde kıyaslanabilir düzeyde çapraz yüklendiği için ve ilk iki faktör tarafından varyansın %46.64’ü açıklandığı için faktör analizi iki faktör çözümüne zorlanmıştır. Sonuçlar, dokuz maddenin ilk faktöre. 40 ve daha fazla yüklendiğini ve ilk faktörün %28.02’i açıkladığını göstermiştir. Diğer 13

madde ise ikinci faktöre. 40 ve daha fazla yüklendiği ve ikinci faktörün de varyansın %18.62'ini açıkladığı görülmüştür (Tablo 3,3). Başlangıç öz değerleri birinci faktör için 6.17 ve ikinci faktör için 4.14 olarak raporlanmıştır.

Veri setinin, Önleyici Başa Çıkma ve Proaktif Başa Çıkma Alt ölçeklerinin iki-faktör modeline uygunluğunu incelemek adına doğrulayıcı faktör analizi EQS 6.1 ile uygulanmıştır.

Ki-kare istatistiklerine göre sonuçlar anlamlı çıkmıştır $\chi^2(208) = 500,18, p < .001$.

Bunlara ek olarak, uyum indeksleri de düşük olmakla beraber kabul edilebilir seviyeye yakın sonuçlar vermiştir (GFI = .83, AGFI = .80, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .09, CFI = .84). Böylelikle bu çalışmada envanterin iki faktör modeline göre çalışmada kullanılmasına karar verilmiştir.

3.4. Hipotezlerin Test Edilmesi

Hipotez 1 proaktif başa çıkma becerilerinin tükenmişlik ile negatif, çalışan bağlılığı ile pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğunu önermiştir. Sonuçlara göre, ilk olarak, proaktif başa çıkma tükenmişliği negatif yönde yordamıştır ($R^2 = .03, F(2,210) = 3.08, p < .05; \beta = -.15, t = -2.24, p < .05$). İkinci olarak, proaktif başa çıkma çalışan bağlılığını pozitif yönde yordamıştır. ($R^2 = .58, F(2,210) = 143,77, p < .001; \beta = .73, t = 16.06, p < .001$). Analizlerde toplam iş tecrübesi kontrol edilmiştir (Tablo 3,4 ve Tablo 3,5). Sonuçlara göre Hipotez 1 tamamen desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 2 önleyici başa çıkmanın tükenmişlik ile pozitif, çalışan bağlılığı ile negatif yönlü ilişki olacağını önermiştir. Sonuçlara göre, ilk olarak, önleyici başa çıkma tükenmişliği pozitif yönde yordamıştır ($R^2 = .07, F(2,210) = 7.40, p < .001; \beta = .25, t = 3.69, p < .001$). İkinci olarak, önleyici başa çıkmanın, çalışan bağlılığı üzerindeki etkilerine bakılmıştır fakat sonuçlara göre aralarında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Bütün analizlerde toplam iş tecrübesi kontrol edilmiştir (Tablo 3,6 ve Tablo 3,7). Sonuçlara göre Hipotez 2 kısmi olarak desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 3 proaktif başa çıkmanın işe bağlanma biçimlerini pozitif yönde etkilediğini önermiştir. Sonuçlara göre proaktif başa çıkma mesleki öz saygıyı ($R^2 = .33, F(2,210) = 51.19, p < .001; \beta = .57, t = 10.01, p < .001$), iş performansını ($R^2 = .50, F(2,210) = 106.34, p < .001; \beta = .70, t = 14.34, p < .001$), iş doyumunu ($R^2 = .23, F(2,210) = 31.64, p < .001; \beta = .44, t = 7.22, p < .001$), ve örgütsel vatandaşlık

davranışını ($R^2 = .30$, $F(2,210) = 44.79$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .53$, $t = 9.17$, $p < .001$) pozitif yönde yordamıştır. Bütün analizlerde toplam iş tecrübesi kontrol edilmiştir (Tablo 3.8, Tablo 3.9, Tablo 3.10, ve Tablo 3.11). Sonuçlara göre Hipotez 3 tamamen desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 4 önleyici başa çıkmanın işe örgütsel sonuçları negatif yönde etkilediğini önermiştir. Sonuçlara göre önleyici başa çıkma ile çalışan bağlılığı biçimleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamaktadır; bu nedenle Hipotez 4 desteklenmemiştir.

Hipotez 5 proaktif başa çıkmanın işe bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişkide çalışan bağlılığının aracı değişken rolü olduğunu önermektedir. İlk olarak, proaktif başa çıkma ile mesleki öz saygı arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Bu ilişkide, proaktif başa çıkmanın mesleki öz saygı üzerindeki direkt etkisi ($R^2 = .33$, $F(2,210) = 51.19$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .57$, $t = 10.01$, $p < .001$), çalışan bağlılığının denkleme girmesi ile anlamlılığını yitirmiştir. Böylelikle, çalışan bağlılığının proaktif başa çıkma ve mesleki öz saygı arasındaki ilişkide tam aracı değişken rolü oynadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bütün analizlerde toplam iş tecrübesi kontrol edilmiştir (Tablo 3.12). Sobel test sonuçları da sonuçların anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir ($z = 10.65$, $p < .001$). İkinci olarak, proaktif başa çıkma ile iş performansı arasındaki çalışan bağlılığının aracı değişken rolü incelenmiştir. Bu ilişkide proaktif başa çıkmanın iş performansı üzerindeki direkt etkisi ($R^2 = .50$, $F(2,210) = 106.34$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .70$, $t = 14.34$, $p < .001$), çalışan bağlılığının denkleme girmesi ile azalmıştır ($R^2 = .63$, $F(3,209) = 116.57$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .54$, $t = 8.27$, $p < .001$). Böylelikle, çalışan bağlılığının proaktif başa çıkma ve iş performansı arasındaki ilişkide kısmi aracı değişkenlik ettiği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bütün analizlerde toplam iş tecrübesi kontrol edilmiştir (Tablo 3.13). Sobel test sonuçları da sonuçların anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir ($z = 11.61$, $p < .001$). Üçüncü olarak, çalışan bağlılığının proaktif başa çıkma ve iş doyumu arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişken rolü incelenmiştir. Bu ilişkide, proaktif başa çıkmanın iş doyumu üzerindeki etkisi ($R^2 = .23$, $F(2,210) = 31.64$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .44$, $t = 7.22$, $p < .001$), çalışan bağlılığının denkleme girmesi ile anlamlılığını yitirmiştir. Böylelikle çalışan bağlılığının proaktif başa çıkma ve iş doyumu arasındaki ilişkide tam aracı değişken rolü oynadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bütün analizlerde toplam iş tecrübesi kontrol edilmiştir (Tablo 3.14). Sobel test sonuçları da sonuçların anlamlı olduğunu

göstermiştir ($z = 9.45, p < .001$). Son olarak, çalışan bağlılığı proaktif başa çıkma ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları ile ilişkisinde aracı değişken rolü incelenmiştir; fakat sonuçlara göre bu ilişkide çalışan bağlılığı aracı değişken rolü göstermemektedir.

Hipotez 5, çalışan bağlılığının proaktif başa çıkma ve işe bağlanma biçimleri (mesleki öz-saygı, iş performansı, iş doyumu ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı) arasındaki ilişkiler arasında aracı değişken rolü olduğunu önermektedir. Sonuçlara göre, çalışan bağlılığının aracı değişken rolü proaktif başa çıkma yöntemleri ve işe bağlanma biçimleri, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı hariç olmak üzere, arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişkendir. Böylelikle hipotez 5 kısmi olarak desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 6, tükenmişliğin önleyici başa çıkma yöntemleri ve iş bağlanma biçimleri (mesleki öz-saygı, iş performansı, iş doyumu ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı) arasındaki ilişkiler arasında aracı değişken rolü olduğunu önermektedir. Fakat sonuçlara göre tükenmişlik bu ilişkilerde aracı değişken rolünde bulunmamaktadır. Böylelikle Hipotez 6 desteklenmemiştir.

4. TARTIŞMA

Mevcut çalışmanın amacı başa çıkma stratejileri ile örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek, işe bağlanma biçimlerinin bu ilişki üzerindeki rolünü gözlemek, ve başa çıkma yazınında yeni kavramlar arasında olan proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimlerinin etkilerini inceleyerek bu alana katkı sağlamaktır.

Bu çalışmada toplam iş tecrübesi demografik değişkeni, diğer değişkenler üzerinde bir etkiye sahip olabileceği düşüncesiyle kontrol değişkeni olarak ele alındı (Mackoniene ve Norvile, 2012). Toplam iş tecrübesi ile ilgili elde edilen mevcut bulgular önceki çalışmalarla paralellik göstermiş; toplam iş tecrübesinin iş doyumu ve işe bağlanma ile pozitif ilişkilili olduğu gözlemlenmiştir (Levinson, Fetchkan, and Hohensil, 1988 ; Mackoniene & Norvile, 2012). Bu pozitif ilişkinin olası bir nedeni tecrübeli çalışanların daha genç ve az tecrübeli çalışanlara kıyasla birden fazla iş değiştirmiş olmaları ve mevcut işlerinde bir işten ve organizasyondan olan beklentilerine daha çok yaklaşmış olmaları olabilir.

Bu çalışmada beklentilere paralel olarak proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimleri ile işe bağlanma biçimleri ilişkisi arasında biraç anlamlı bulgular elde edilmiştir. Proaktif başa çıkma biçiminin beklendiği gibi tükenmişlik ile negatif yönde ilişkili, çalışan bağlılığı ile pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Bu bulgular, proaktif başa çıkma biçimi ve tükenmişlik ile arasında negatif ilişki rapor eden çalışmalar ile (Uskul & Greenglass, 2005; Greenglass, Fiksenbaum, & Eaton, 2006; Gonzalez-Morales, Rodriguez, & Peiro', 2010; Lewin & Sager, 2009; Yip, Rowlinson, & Siu, 2008, Angelo & Chambel, 2014) ve proaktif başa çıkma biçimi ve işe bağlanma arasında pozitif ilişki rapor eden çalışmalar ile paralellik göstermiştir (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris 2008; Sohl & Moyer, 2009; Gan, Yang, Zhou, & Zhang, 2007; Reschly, Huebner Appleton, & Antaramian, 2008, Angelo & Chambel). Bu bulguların nedeni proaktif başa çıkma biçimine odaklı kişilerin yüksek özgüven ve yüksek öz yeterlilikleri sayesinde iş yaşamında karşılaştıkları zorlukları kontrol edilebilir olarak algılamaları ve bu bağlamda bu zorlukları ödüllendirici faktörler olarak değerlendirerek işlerine daha motive bir şekilde yaklaşmaları olarak açıklanabilir.

Bu çalışmada, proaktif başa çıkma biçimi ve işle bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki bağın önemli olduğu kadar önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ve işe bağlanma biçimleri arasındaki ilişki de önemlidir. Bu bağlamda önleyici başa çıkma biçiminin tükenmişlik ile pozitif yönde, çalışan bağlılığı ile negatif yönde ilişkili olacağı beklenmiştir. Beklenildiği gibi önleyici başa çıkma biçiminin tükenmişlik ile pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu gözlemlenmiş; ancak beklentilerin aksine çalışan bağlılığı ile ne pozitif ne de negatif yönde bir ilişki saptanamamıştır. önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ve tükenmişlik arasındaki pozitif ilişki, önleyici başa çıkma biçimine odaklanmış kişilerin düşük öz güven ve geleceklerine yönelik duydukları yüksek endişe düzeyleri ile açıklanabilir ve bu bunların tükenmişliğin öncülleri olduğu bilinmektedir (Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009).

Proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimlerinin işe bağlanma biçimlerine etkisine ek olarak, bu başa çıkma stratejilerinin organizasyonel sonuçlar üzerindeki etkisi de incelenmiş, proaktif başa çıkma biçiminin örgütsel sonuçlar olarak ele alınan mesleki öz saygı, iş doyumunu, iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı değişkenlerinden tümü ile pozitif ve anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuş; ancak önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ile bu değişkenler arasında herhangi anlamlı bir ilişki gözlemlenememiştir. Proaktif başa

çıkma biçimi ile örgütsel sonuçlar arasında gözlemlenen pozitif ilişki yine proaktif başa çıkma biçimine odaklı kişilerin yüksek özgüvenleri ve öz yeterlilikleri ile açıklanacağı gibi, bu kişilerin kariyerler motivasyonları ile de açıklanabilir. Proaktif başa çıkma biçimini kullanan çalışanlar zorlu hedefleri başarmak yönünde çaba gösterdikleri için, iş arama süreçlerinde çok seçici bir süreç izleyebilirler ve kendi idealleri ile örtüşecek bir iş bulmak adına da amaca yönelik adım atabilirler. Dolayısı ile mevcut işlerine yönelik pozitif bir turum geliştirmeleri ve bu bağlamda yüksek performansları göstermeleri beklenebilir. Kariyer oluşturma teorisi de motivasyon, öz yeterlilik inancı ve kararlılık göstergelerinin örgütsel sonuçları yordadığını belirterek bu durumu desteklemektedir (Savickas, 1997; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Önleyici başa çıkma biçimi ve örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen bir çalışmaya psikoloji yazınında rastlanmamıştır. Bu yüzden mevcut çalışma bu alana katkı sunmayı amaçlamış; ancak önleyici başa çıkma biçiminin örgütsel sonuçlar ile ilişkili olduğu bulunamamıştır. Bunun nedeni bu ilişkiyi etkileyen diğer faktörler olabilir. Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu'nun 2014 Şubat ayı verilerine göre % 10.5 olarak açıkladığı işsizlik oranı Türkiye'deki işsizlik oranının yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu bağlamda katılımcıların böylesi yüksek işsizlik ortamında işlerini kaybetmenin oldukça riskli olduğunu değerlendirerek tükenmişlik yaşasalar dahi yüksek performans göstermek için çaba sarfettikleri, mevcut işlerini kaybetme korkusu ile işlerine karşı pozitif bir tutum geliştirdikleri söylenebilir.

Mevcut çalışmada, başa çıkma biçimleri ile örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkisinde işe bağlanma biçimlerinin aracı değişken rolü de incelenmiş, çalışan bağlılığının kısmi olarak proaktif başa çıkma ve örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkiye aracı değişkenlik ettiği gözlemlenmiş; fakat önleyici başa çıkma biçiminin örgütsel sonuçlar ile herhangi bir ilişki göstermemesi yüzünden tükenmişliğin bu ilişkideki aracı değişken rolü gözlemlenememiştir. Psikoloji yazınında işe bağlanmanın ve tükenmişliğin bu ilişkideki aracı değişken rolüne rastlanmamıştır. Bu bağlamda mevcut çalışmanın bu ilişkide işe bağlanma biçimlerinin aracı değişken rolünü inceleyen ilk çalışma olduğu söylenebilir. Bu çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular bir kez daha işe adanmışlığın, başa çıkma ve örgütsel sonuçlar üzerinde açıklayıcı bir işlev üstlendiğini ve proaktif başa çıkmanın örgütsel sonuçlar üzerindeki etkisine aracılık ettiğini göstermiştir. Çalışanlar işlerine kendilerini adayarak yüksek derecede

motivasyona sahip olurlar ve dolayısıyla yüksek performans ve işlerine karşı pozitif bir tutum gösterebilirler (Kahn, 1990; Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011).

4.1 Çalışmanın Katkıları

Bu çalışma mevcut yazına birkaç yönden katlı sağlamıştır. İlk olarak, proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimlerinin ayırt edici özelliklerine vurgu yaparak proaktif başa çıkma biçimini pozitif işe bağlanma biçiminin, önleyici başa çıkma biçimini negatif bağlanma biçiminin öncülleri olarak ele almıştır. Mevcut çalışmanın ikinci katkısı mesleki öz-saygı ile başa çıkma biçimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi çalışmaya dahil etmek olmuştur. Ayrıca bu çalışma başa çıkma stratejileri ve örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkiyi incelerken, bu ilişkiye işe bağlanma biçimlerinin aracı değişken rolünü de dahil etmiş ve bu ilişkileri daha geniş bir bakış açısından yorumlama fırsatını sunmuştur. Son olarak bu çalışma için proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma biçimleri ölçekleri Türkçe'ye çevrilmiş ve Türk Psikoloji yazınına katkı sağlamıştır.

4.2 Çalışma Sınırlılıkları ve Öneriler

Çalışmanın önemli bir sınırlılığı çalışmanın kişi beyanatlı raporlar ile tamamlanması ve bu yüzden sosyal istenirlik yanlılığına açık olmasıdır. Bu yüzden gelecek araştırmalar örgütsel sonuçlar faktörlerini, özellikle iş performansı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı faktörlerini çalışanların yöneticilerinden elde ettikleri veriler ile ölçmelidir. Ayrıca bu çalışma için Türkçeye çevrilen ve psikometrik özellikleri ilk kez bu çalışmada test edilen proaktif ve önleyici başa çıkma ölçeklerinin geçerlilik ve güvenilirlikleri sadece bu çalışmada elde edildiği için sonuçlar dikkatle incelenmelidir.

APPENDIX O: TEZ FOTOKPİSİ İZİN FORMU

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Ersen
Adı : Önder
Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : The Effect of Coping Strategies on Individual and
Organizational Outcome Perceptions: Mediating Role of Work Attachment Styles

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora ☐

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐
3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. ☐

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: