

THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
AND JOB SATISFACTION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
WORKPLACE INCIVILITY AND TURNOVER INTENTION

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ABSTRACT

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This study aims to investigate the mediation effects of organizational commitment with its all components and job satisfaction on the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. In order to test the hypotheses proposed, data were collected from 254 white-collar employees of a public institution located in Ankara and analyzed by using quantitative methods. According to the test results, while workplace incivility had significant associations with turnover intention, job satisfaction and organizational commitment with its all components except continuance commitment; turnover intention was affected by both job satisfaction and organizational commitment with its all components. The results of the mediation analysis revealed that job satisfaction and organizational commitment except continuance component fully mediated the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Since there is limited research in the literature, which studied the relationship between workplace incivility, job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment at the same time for a Turkish sample, it is expected that this study will shed light on future studies focusing on these variables.

Keywords: Workplace Incivility, Organizational Commitment, Counterproductive Work Behavior, Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention

ÖZ

ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK VE İŞ TATMİNİNİN, İŞYERİ NEZAKETSİZLİĞİ İLE İŞTEN AYRILMA NİYETİ İLİŞKİSİNDEKİ ARACILIK ROLÜ

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Bu çalışma iş tatmini ve tüm birleşenleriyle örgütsel bağlılığın işyeri nezaketsizliği ile işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki aracı rolünü araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Araştırma kapsamında kurulan hipotezlerin test edilmesi amacıyla, Ankara’da yer alan bir devlet kurumunda çalışmakta olan 254 adet beyaz yakalı devlet memurundan veri toplanmış ve bu veri sayısal analiz yöntemleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Analiz sonuçlarına göre işyeri nezaketsizliği; devam bağlılığı dışındaki diğer tüm örgütsel bağlılık birleşenleri, iş tatmini ve işten ayrılma niyetiyle anlamlı düzeyde ilişkilendirilmiş olup; işten ayrılma niyeti ise iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılığın tüm birleşenleri tarafından güçlü ve anlamlı bir şekilde etkilenmiştir. Devamında gerçekleştirilen aracılık testleri, devam bağlılığı hariç diğer iki örgütsel bağlılık birleşenleri ve iş tatminin işyeri nezaketsizliği ile işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki ilişkide tam aracı değişken olarak yer aldığını ortaya koymuştur. İşyeri nezaketsizliği, iş tatmini, işten ayrılma niyeti ve tüm birleşenleriyle örgütsel bağlılık kavramlarını, Türkiye örnekleminde içeren az sayıda araştırma olması nedeniyle, bu çalışmanın söz konusu değişkenleri ele alan gelecek araştırmalara ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşyeri Nezaketsizliği, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Üretkenlik Karşıtı İş Davranışları, İş Tatmini, İşten Ayrılma Niyeti

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The business life of modern times has been rapidly changing due to highly competitive markets based on productivity, differentiation and efficiency. Since in a competitive environment it is crucial for establishments to differentiate themselves in terms of goods and services they provide, organizations must also focus on creativity, quality and variety to survive (Kotler & Armstrong, 2017).

Human resources are an important factor for the sustainability and consistent development of an organization. The performance, productivity, creativity and efficiency of the employees belonging to an organization is the overall characteristics and worth of that organization. Human assets are important values for organization that can create value (Pfeffer, 2007). Therefore, organizational commitment and job satisfaction may be significant determinants that an organization should assure.

High levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction increases productivity, organizational success, interpersonal integration and the quality of production (Pearson & Porath, 2005). This absence of commitment and satisfaction leads to counterproductive behaviours such as withdrawal, workplace deviance and incivility and reduces job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (Henne & Locke, 1985; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Bowling & Hammond, 2008; Taylor et al., 2012). Employees with low commitment satisfaction tend to lower their effort for the organization and develop turnover intentions.

Turnover is one of the most studied variables in organizational psychology (Griffeth et al., 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Turnover can be detrimental and costly to an institution. Turnover of an employee means reoccurred training and recruiting costs of

new employees. Besides, since a new employee may not be as integrated to the organization and be knowledgeable about the job content as experienced employees, there will be productivity and performance shortness for some time (Maertz & Campion, 1998; Koys, 2001; Shaw et al., 2005; Addae et al., 2006). In addition, a leaving employee may show the better alternative job options to other employees and increase the turnover intention of others as well. Lastly, a quitter employee may transfer the secret information and innovations of the previous organization to the new one. Therefore, because of managerial and workplace related issues and losing the organization memory or even worse, organizational secrets to other institutions, turnover is a crucial study topic for modern world organizational behaviour research.

An employee spends time in work and with co-workers more than at home with family members. Therefore, except from pay, promotions, career opportunities and security, interpersonal relations at work is a crucial issue for organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Workplace deviant behaviours such as aggression, violence, mobbing and bullying might be easily examined and prohibited with the legislations at labour law. On the other hand, because of its ambiguous structure, workplace incivility may be a harder case to detect and take precautions.

Technological developments and use of the Internet at the communication structure in business world, support of informal workplace climate due to increase creativity, integration and citizenship among employees, productivity pressures resulted from competitiveness and have caused uncivil behaviours occur more frequently. A study by Cortina et al. (2001) showed that among 1180 public-sector employees, 71% of them had experiences of workplace incivility in previous 5 years. A research has showed that 91% of the respondents experienced incivility from other employees in the organization again within past five years (Lim & Lee, 2011). Pearson & Porath (2013) claimed that they have collected data of thousands of employees over the past 14 years about the interpersonal relationship experiences and the results have revealed that 98% of those employees have experienced workplace incivility.

The aim of the present study is first to test the potential effects of workplace incivility on turnover intention, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, second to

examine how organizational commitment and job satisfaction mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

There are limited number of studies focusing on the mediation effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction on the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention both in Turkey and worldwide. While workplace incivility is an increasingly important concept, the turnover rates and the levels of commitment of the governmental authorities are also questioned frequently in Turkey. Therefore, this study was conducted in a specific public institution of Turkey in Ankara. The institution has an important mission for the internal trade, foreign trade and development of Turkey. In this study, white-collar employees who work in this institution were questioned with variety of questionnaire forms consisting of the Turkish adaptations of the scales which had been prepared by the prominent researchers in organizational behaviour area. This study will lead to a better understanding the incivility perception of Turkish white-collar civil servants in a specific government institution, their commitment, satisfaction, turnover intention levels and the cause effect relationships between these variables.

This study includes six chapters. After the introduction chapter, Chapter II, “The Literature Review” gives information about the theoretical arguments and major approaches in the literature. The literature review starts with a conceptual framework of counterproductive work behaviours, followed by workplace incivility, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention, respectively.

In Chapter III, the hypotheses of the study and explanations of the relationships between workplace incivility, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention are presented in detail and the model was constructed.

Chapter IV is the methodology part that covers sampling and data collection procedures, structure of the demographics of the questionnaire and the scales which have been used for the regression analyses. Original and Turkish adaptation of the scales and an example of the questionnaire form are given at Appendices.

Chapter V includes the descriptive statistics, the reliability and validity of the scales, correlation between the variables and test of the hypotheses. The tests of the hypotheses are handles in two parts. At first part, the correlation between two variables are examined with simple regression models, and at second part mediation effects of organizational and job satisfaction between workplace incivility and turnover intention are investigated.

Lastly, the discussion of the test results, implication for managers, limitation of the present study and recommendations for future researcher are given at Chapter VI. This final chapter is followed by References and Appendices.

CHAPTER II

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the conceptual frameworks, antecedents, outcomes, approaches and theories of specific organizational behaviors which are focused in this study will be reviewed. Firstly, counterproductive work behaviors will be touched on since these behaviors are the core of workplace incivility and turnover intention. Afterwards, workplace incivility, organizational commitment and its components, job satisfaction and finally turnover intention will be examined, respectively.

2.1 Overview Of Counterproductive Work Behaviours

The main goal of profit and nonprofit organizations is to fulfil the reason of existence of the organization. While the reason to exist of profit organization is to produce value with effective, efficient and low-cost methods, the reason to exist of non-profit organizations varies by the field of working of the organization. Charity institutions aim for helpless people, unions focus on protecting its members, municipalities serve for the citizens and public institutes concerns about regulating in specifically assigned position. Therefore, independent from the sector, every organization focuses on maximizing productivity, minimizing operation costs and eliminating the factors that damage the workplace climate and operation chain.

There are two kinds of organizational behavior that employees exhibit in their work lifes, one is the behaviors that are in the job definition, and the others are either the positive and negative, non-job-related behaviors that the employee does in workplace.

The negative behaviors directly or indirectly, harm the other employees, the organization, company and its shareholders.

2.1.1. Definition of Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) are simply all actions made by employees which hurt productivity and workplace climate. CWBs are defined as hidden or clear voluntary acts that hurt or intend to hurt the organization directly or other members of the organization such as co-workers, supervisors, customers, clients or stakeholders (Martinko et al, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005). Sackett (2002) defines CWBs as the intentional behaviors of an organization member which are against the legitimate interests of the organization. Hogan & Hogan (1989) defines CWBs with the term of delinquency by claiming that acts like hostility to rules, thrill-seeking impulsiveness, social insensitivity and alienation are main indicators of the reliability of an employee.

CWBs cause various harmful effects on organization such as lost or damaged property, decreased productivity, high insurance costs, increased turnover ratio and hence increased cost of hiring and educating new employees, increased employee dissatisfaction and experienced job stress (Penny & Spector, 2005).

Although the basic definition of CWBs are widely accepted among various researchers, also different terms have been used to refer the harmful behaviors in organization such as workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennet, 1995; Hollinger, 1986), aggression (Spector, 1978; Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Neuman & Baron, 1998), delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), abusive behavior (Keashly et al., 1994), retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) revenge (Bies et al., 1997), antisocial behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), protest (Kelloway et al., 2010), mobbing (Zapf et al., 1996) and bullying (Hoel et al., 1999). Regardless of the denomination of the term, all are the harmful acts to organize which do not comply with the social norms.

2.1.2. Antecedents of Counterproductive Work Behaviors

An average employee spends more time in workplace than social life. Therefore, the workplace climate, relationship with co-workers and stress factors in the organization are as important as salary, career opportunities and organizational facilities. Even if the main reason of working is financial, employees expect a peaceful and fair atmosphere in their workplace. There are various approaches about the reasons of CWBs. CWBs depend on the personal factors of instigator employees (Penney et al., 2005) or organizational factors (Martinko et al., 2002). According to Neuman & Baron (2005), CWBs which they named as workplace aggression and violence, occur in a sense of revenge and retaliation when an employee has an intention to harm another employee because of evaluation the target as harmful to himself. Spector (2002) proposes that CWBs are the outcomes of negative emotions, personality factors and environment. Kelloway et al. (2010) claims that CWBs are protesting injustice which behaviors such as aggression, sabotage and stealing occur as protesting acts which employees try to achieve over some goals in the organization when the employees have the feeling of being victim in an unfair climate.

According to the integrative theory of CWBs by Martinko et al. (2002) that created a causal reasoning model of CWBs, situational variables and individual differences affects employee's cognitive processing and cognitive processing creates CWBs through senses of anger, frustration, guilt and shame in the perception of injustice climate. Some examples of the situational variables are organizational culture, competitive environment, leadership style, reward systems, inflexible policies, rules and procedures, adverse working conditions etc. and some examples of the individual differences are negative affectivity, emotional stability, integrity, gender, self-esteem, self-efficacy and nonneuroticism (Martinko et al., 2002).

Spector (2011) pointed out that CWBs can be defined from two different perspectives, such as individual and organizational. From organizational perspective CWBs are the acts that are against the legitimate interests of an organization. According to that perspective, the main target is damaging the organization. In addition, harmful employees can also target other employees by harassment and physical acts. From

individual perspective, the target is hurting the other employees. This means CWBs do not have to directly harm the organization, but they can harm through hurting the human elements of the organization.

Gruys & Sackett (2003) indicated that only intentional behaviors should be included in the concept of CWBs. Even if an accident damages the organization or elements in the organization, it is not a CWB since the action is not targeting the organization or the individuals.

Like Gruys & Sackett (2003), Spector & Fox (2005) also claimed that if the act does not intent to harm the organization or the elements of the organization, it is not considered as a CWB. CWBs are structurally different from working accidents and instantaneous fights among employees resulted by high tension and stress. CWBs should be intentional, but not accidental or unconscious. This means employees choose to harm the elements of organization (co-workers, supervisors, customers, physical assets) with volitional planned acts.

2.1.3. Dimensions of Counterproductive Work Behaviors

The first conceptual framework for CWBs in organization is developed by Hollinger & Clark (1982, 1983). In their research they developed a broad list of deviant workplace behaviors and classified all those CWBs into two broad categories as property deviance and production deviance. The first category named property deviance is the set of actions which harm the tangible property of the organization such as stealing property, tools or money, damaging the assets or misusing organization resources. The second category named production deviance includes acts violating the organizational norms representing how work should be accomplished with a specific quality and quantity such as lateness, absenteeism, leaving early, taking too much and longer breaks and sloppy work.

While agreeing about the two-category typology proposed by Hollinger & Clark (1982), Robinson & Bennett (1995) argued that the interpersonal deviant behaviors

such as harassment and aggression are not included in the approach, therefore they expanded the previous framework and suggested two new categories such as political deviance and personal aggression. The new conceptual model has two dimensions. While the horizontal dimension separates CWBs into interpersonal and organizational categories, the vertical dimension focuses on the severity of the act. The new categories introduced by Robinson & Bennett belong to the interpersonal dimension. The third category of the quadrant model named political deviance includes the minor interpersonal deviant behaviors such as showing favoritism, spreading rumors, gossip and blaming. Lastly, the fourth category named personal aggression includes the more serious and severe acts such as sexual harassment, verbal abuse, physical action and theft from co-workers.

Gruys & Sackett (2003) developed another conceptual model consists of 11 dimensions. These dimensions are theft and related behavior, destruction of property, misuse of information, misuse of time and resources, unsafe behavior, poor attendance, poor quality of work, alcohol use, drug use, inappropriate verbal actions and inappropriate physical actions (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). The multidimensional scaling analysis in their research revealed that all eleven categories fall in the specific two dimensions which mirror the previous taxonomy proposed by Robinson & Bennet (1995). After the solution of the multidimensional scaling analysis, Gruys & Scakett proposed a quadrant model of consists of two dimensions. The interpersonal versus organizational dimension divides the behaviors about whether the action aimed at individuals or the organization, and the task relevance dimension focuses on whether the behavior is relevant to tasks that are performed (Gruys & Sackett, 2003).

After analyzing the previous models, Spector et al. (2006) developed another classification which categorizes CWBs into five dimensions which are abuse towards others, production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal. Abuse is the set of behaviors that hurts other employees physically or psychologically such as nasty comments, threats, despise, ignore and so on. Production deviance is intentionally harming the efficiency and effectiveness of the job tasks performed such as working slowly or intentionally failing. Employees who perform production deviance seen as effective workers, however, in reality their contribution to the organization is

dramatically reduced. Sabotage involves destroying or damaging physical property. The reason behind that anger and frustration consisting act is to draw attention about some structure, change or policy at the organization that undesired, force other employees or protest the organization. Theft is illegally taking properties belonging to other employees or organization for common use. The reason behind theft can be self-interest or similar causes as in sabotage behavior. Lastly, withdrawal happens when employee does not devote himself to the job and avoid elements in the organization, such as co-workers, supervisors or most commonly the job itself. Withdrawal can be either physical or psychological. Low job satisfaction, health or family problems, psychological disorders, stress, relationship with co-workers and personal differences can affect withdrawal. Withdrawal does not have the severe intention to harm the organization like aggression or sabotage, instead the act is resulted as the desire of being isolated from the unfair, stressful and/or dissatisfactory working climate. Withdrawal behaviors are lateness, tardiness, taking too frequent and longer breaks, absenteeism and turnover intention (Spector et al., 2006).

While one of the research variables of this study, turnover intention is generally included in withdrawal behaviors, the other research variable of the study, “workplace incivility” is strictly different from aggression. While incivility is an ambiguous behavior (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), aggression is an act intending to harm physically or psychologically other employees. Both actualized acts and unsuccessful attempts can be considered as aggression (Spector, 2011). The conceptual place of workplace incivility in the framework of CWBs is explained in the following section.

2.2. Conceptual Framework Of Workplace Incivility

2.2.1. Definition of Workplace Incivility

Civil behavior is treating other people with politeness and dignity while respecting social norms. Workplace civility defines the similar behavior with respecting workplace norms. Andersson & Pearson (1999, p. 457) defined workplace incivility as “*a low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in*

violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” at their study in 1999 as a new organizational behavior in the conceptual framework of CWB. This definition includes the three distinctive characteristics of workplace incivility from other deviant behaviors. Firstly, incivility involves violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Workplace norms are part of the social norms. These norms are non-documented rules, ethics, standards, customs and traditions that should be obeyed. Even if every organization exists in various fields and operates differently, every of them have a similar culture that some behaviors are acceptable, and some are not. Secondly, incivility is a low-intensity behavior. There is no physical interaction in the cases of incivility acts different from workplace aggression or violence. Thirdly, intent to harm of the act is ambiguous. Ambiguity means the inability to decide whether there are malicious intentions behind the act. Unlike other deviant behaviors such as sabotage, aggression, violence and vandalism, intention of an uncivil act is not obvious to all parties such as the targeted, instigator and observer employees. Instigator may excuse for the uncivil behavior. Instigator may perform an uncivil act because of ignorance, hurry or carelessness without any intention to harm. On the other hand, even if the intention of the instigator is not friendly, it is not easy to detect the intention behind of an uncivil act since the instigator may easily deny or bury any accusation by finding excuses (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2000).

The most differentiating features of incivility are the ambiguity and low-intense. Therefore, it is hard to decide whether an act performed in order to harm an employee psychologically. All uncivil acts are nonphysical. Workplace incivility includes interruption, condescending tone, unprofessional terms of address (Cortina & Magley, 2009), verbal abuse and nonverbal disrespectful behaviors such as ignoring, glaring at and excluding co-workers (Lim et al., 2008), sarcastic remark about a subordinate’s mistake in front of other employees (Pearson et al., 2000), making jokes at another’s expense (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007), making unwanted attempts to draw employee into discussion of personal matters or paying little attention to the statement or opinion (Hershcovis, 2011).

In sum, although workplace incivility is a phenomenon related to the concept of CWB, it significantly differs from other CWBs due to its ambiguous structure. In addition,

since incivility is a non-physical act which has low intensity, the term of incivility can be easily distinguished from the other examples of CWB.

2.2.2. Comparison of Workplace Incivility and Other Forms of Mistreatment in Workplace

Workplace incivility is a type of deviant behavior within the concept of CWB (Pearson et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2017). The other deviant behaviors such as workplace violence, aggression, mobbing, bullying, sexual harassment and abuse are similar but different concepts from workplace incivility.

Antisocial behavior is an umbrella term for deviant behaviors that harm the organization and its stakeholders. Deviant employee behavior, or workplace deviance, is a type of antisocial behavior. Robinson & Bennett (1995, p. 556) defined workplace deviance as “*voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both*”. This broad range definition covers most of the interpersonal CWBs in workplace including workplace incivility, aggression and violence since both people and property in the organization are part of the definition and it does not include the intention of the instigator. Although incivility, aggression and violence overlap at some behavioral situations, they are conceptually different. Aggression is a broader term than violence and incivility since it covers violence fully and incivility partially. Violence is a high-intensity physically aggressive behavior where incivility is a low-intensity non-physically deviant behavior. Aggression is a deviant behavior with the intention to harm where the intention of uncivil behavior is ambiguous (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Note that even if the intention to harm is ambiguous, most of the uncivil behaviors have the intention to harm. Aggression covers these uncivil behaviors which have the intention to harm. On the other hand, there are also some uncivil behaviors which are resulted by ignorance or carelessness (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). These are the

uncivil behaviors which are conceptually included in deviant behaviors but different than workplace aggression.

Some researchers categorized deviant work behaviors into three forms as, violence, aggression and incivility by the level of intensity where violence has high-intensity, aggression has high-to moderate-intensity and incivility has low-intensity. In addition, aggression was also categorized into two forms which are mobbing and bullying. Mobbing is a chronic physical or not physical aggression which has high-to moderate-intensity and bullying is a chronic not physical aggression which has moderate-to low-intensity (Pearson et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2017).

Abusive supervision and workplace incivility overlap in some concepts. Abusive supervision is a set of sustained and frequent non-physical acts of verbal and non-verbal behaviors. There are two main characteristics that distinguish abusive supervision and incivility. Firstly, abusive supervision focuses on one particular instigator, which is supervisor. In abusive supervision the deviant behavior is always performed against the employees who are at lower positions. On the other hand, incivility is a broader term that includes co-workers, supervisors, subordinates (Pearson et al., 2000; Cortina et al., 2001) and in some researches includes customers (Sliter et al., 2014) as well. In incivility an uncivil behavior can occur between any human elements of the organization. Secondly, while a negative act may be evaluated as incivility, it does not constitute abusive supervision. To claim the existence of abusive supervision, there should be continuous set of negative behaviors by the supervisor (Hershcovis, 2011).

In brief, the main characteristic of workplace incivility which causes that incivility differs from the other deviant behaviors is ambiguous intention. Although there are other non-physical deviant behaviors which have low intensity, only workplace incivility has ambiguous intent to harm.

2.2.3. Forms of Workplace Incivility

The structure and evaluation of an uncivil behavior changes according to the source or the perceiver. There are three forms of incivility according to the source, such as co-worker, supervisor and customer incivility (Sliter et al., 2012). Although antecedents and outcomes of these different incivility forms are similar, there are also some differentiations. On the other hand, since most studies and scales analyze these forms together, there is relatively little knowledge about the differences.

Incivility can also be divided into three groups by the perceiver (Porath & Pearson, 2013). These groups are, experienced, witnessed and instigated incivility. The literature mainly focuses on the experienced incivility as most of the scales are. Experienced incivility is the perception of the targeted employee and witnessed incivility is the perception of the observer employees. Both incivility groups focus on the antecedents and the outcomes of the behavior.

2.2.4. The Nature of Workplace Incivility

Famous physician Isaac Newton's the famous third law of motion indicates that every action will be resulted as a reaction. This physical law is also suitable to the science of organizational behavior. Andersson and Pearson (1999) have presented the incivility spiral and argued that a negative action by one party employee will lead to a negative reaction from another party.

The incivility spiral may begin when one or more employees (party A) instigate an uncivil act towards another employee or group of employees (party B). After the perception of incivility, the target may interpret the uncivil act as an interactional justice. This cognition may result in negative affect which may eventually create the desire for reciprocation. Then, now "party B" will perform an uncivil act, which may not reflect intent to harm, towards "party A". In this case, "party A" may perceive and interpret the uncivil response as an interactional justice. This cognition may result in negative affect and consequently desire for reciprocation as well. However, this time,

“party A” may perform a more intense uncivil act by making a rude remark. This rise at intensity occurs when at least one of the parties in the spiral perceive the uncivil act as an identity threat which is called the tipping point. After this point, both parties may start to perform deviant acts with increasing intensity and obvious intent to harm that the incivility spiral transforms to a deviation spiral. Of course, either party may choose departure instead of continuing the spiral. Targeted party may reflect negative affect instead of a sign of reciprocation. In this case, instigator party may apologize, try to find an excuse or deny the intent. Or the targeted party may ignore the instigator and avoid from the instigator party. On the other hand, if none of the parties choose departure, because of the incremental structure of the spiral the relationship between the parties goes to much intense situations, such as the loss of face, desire for revenge, coercive behavior, anger, insult, desire for nonproportional revenge and even physical attack, respectively (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

One of the severest workplace deviant behaviors, workplace violence involves large variety of attempted high-density destructive behaviors from vandalism to physical abuse and assaults that intent to harm employees both physically and psychologically (Neuman & Baron, 1998). However, incivility can be escalated into aggression or violence quickly (Lim et al., 2008). The reason behind that escalation is the sense of revenge and anger of employees. Incivility spiral indicates that although incivility is the mildest form of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005), it is also the precursor of all other CWBs. In the cases where none of the party retreats, the uncivil behavior may transform to even a physical assault with ongoing mutual insults like a snowball effect in the whole organization resulting as an aggressive working climate where employees have no respect to work norms since most employees who are exposed to or observed the uncivil behavior, act similarly.

In sum, although workplace incivility is a non-physical behavior with low intensity, it may cause a chain of deviant behaviors with increasing intensity between different parties which may lead to severer interpersonal conflicts. Therefore, it can be claimed that workplace incivility can be the initiator of other deviant behaviors with higher intensity and may has similar consequences that other deviant behaviors and CWBs cause.

2.2.5. Antecedents of Workplace Incivility

The variables that predict workplace incivility can be grouped into two categories as individual and organizational factors. Individual factors include personality (Baron & Neuman, 1998; Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Dion, 2006; Sliter et al. 2014), gender (Pearson et al., 2000; Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2011), stress (Cortina et al., 2001; Dion, 2006; Barlett et al., 2008; Lim et al., 2008; Miner et al., 2012) and status (Pearson et al., 2000; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim et al., 2008; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Lim & Lee, 2011) among others while organizational factors include workplace climate (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007; Bartlett et al., 2008), leadership (Cortina, 2008), workload (Pearson et al., 2000; Dion, 2006) and technology (Pearson et al., 2000; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Lim & Teo, 2009) among others. Although, there are various parallelism between the predictors of workplace incivility and other variables of the model of this study, especially variables related to stress and emotions, the predictors of workplace incivility are not the focus of this study. Further research for the antecedents of workplace incivility can be found in Appendix A.

2.2.6 Outcomes of Workplace Incivility

Even the intention to harm is ambiguous for uncivil behaviors, the negative outcomes are not. Various researchers categorized the outcomes of workplace incivility into two groups, individual and organizational outcomes. Workplace incivility increases depression among the targeted employees (Cortina et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005), stress levels (Caza & Cortina, 2007; Miner et al., 2012), negative affect (Pearson et al., 2001), ostracism (Caza & Cortina, 2007), depression (Frone, 2000), role conflict (Leiter & Maslach, 1988), cognitive distraction (Cortina & Magley, 2009), physical health (Lim et al., 2008; Miner et al., 2012), psychological well-being, physical well-being, occupational well-being (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007), emotional exhaustion (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Laschinger et al., 2014), family – work conflicts (Lim & Lee, 2011), burnout (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007; Miner-Rubino

& Reed, 2010; Rahim & Cosby, 2013) and reduces job satisfaction (Penney & Spector, 2005; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Laschinger et al., 2009; Miner et al., 2012) and organizational commitment (Frone, 2000; Laschinger et al., 2009) at individual level; and increases employee withdrawal (Cortina et al., 2001), turnover intentions and actual turnover (Frone, 2000; Laschinger et al., 2009; Cortina et al., 2011), negative organizational culture, desire for reciprocation among employees (Bunk & Magley, 2013) and lowers employee's justice perception (Griffin, 2010; Lim & Lee, 2011), trust in leaders (Pearson et al., 2001), organizational citizenship behavior (Taylor et al., 2012), harmony among employees, job performance (Porath & Pearson, 2013), productivity (Pearson & Porath, 2005; Lim et al., 2008), creativity (Cortina & Magley, 2009), efficiency and respect to the work norms and organizational culture (Pearson et al., 2001) at organizational level.

Just because incivility is a non-physical behavior it does not mean that its outcomes will not be physical as well. Experienced incivility causes poorer mental health which leads to physical problems. Psychological stress can cause detrimental effects on physical health such as increased heart diseases, migraines, ulcers. In addition, employees who suffer from mental problems are more likely to have unhealth lifestyles such as insomnia and usage of drugs and alcohol (Lim et al., 2008).

The individual level of negative outcomes of workplace incivility is based on the targeted employee and the organizational level of negative outcomes are mostly based on the third-party observer employees and the organizational climate. Targeted employees who experienced incivility remarks that they lose time avoiding the instigator and work time worrying about the incident at work (Porath & Pearson, 2009). A worse scenario is that experienced incivility incivility can cause desire for reciprocation among employees through emotional reactions such as anger, guilt, fear, sadness, goal relevance, future, expectancy and disgust (Bunk & Magley, 2013).

Targeted employees experience negative affection after being exposed to uncivil behaviors and they feel depressed, down, disappointed, angry, irritated and so on. When an employee perceives incivility, the reaction may be withdrawal, ignore or the desire for reciprocate. In some cases, employee chooses to ignore the instigator. On

the other hand, if the uncivil behavior of the instigator continues or even is condoned by the third-party observer employees, the targeted employee may feel alienated and withdraw from the work society. And if the uncivil behavior continues, the targeted employee may choose to withdraw permanently that is turnover. The sense of reciprocation or in extreme cases revenge is directly related to the power balance between the target and instigator. If the targeted employee has relatively less power than the instigator, the most possible outcomes will have negative affection or withdrawal. On the contrary situation where employee has the power to deal with the instigator, then the desire for revenge will occur (Pearson et al., 2001). Therefore, the likelihood of the other employees, which experienced incivility before, of becoming instigators of uncivil acts may increase with the sense of retaliation (Lim et al., 2008; Porath & Pearson, 2013).

In addition, an uncivil behavior can also affect third party employees who witness or hear about the incident. Since the respect for work norms decreases among employees, they may imitate the instigator and act similar uncivil behaviors against the target, the instigator or other employees. Therefore, the relationship between employees may dramatically fall and the working climate, productivity and effectiveness of working may decrease. In addition, if uncivil behaviors continue and there is no satisfying punishment for instigators, the perception of injustice may rise among employees which creates distrust and less respect towards the organization and management (Pearson et al., 2001).

Concisely, workplace incivility may be the initiator of numerous negative outcomes, including deterioration in organizational climate, increased stress level and depression among employees, ostracism, burnout, mental and health problems, withdrawal, sense of retaliation, reduced creativity, performance, productivity, organizational citizenship behavior and perceived organizational justice. Most of these results that occurred by an uncivil act, may be a predictor of reduced organizational commitment, job satisfaction and even turnover in future. As it will be discussed in following chapters, the effect of incivility may be transferred through stress, emotions and perceptions as well.

2.3. Organizational Commitment and Its Components

2.3.1. Definition of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the emotional and psychological attachment of employees to their organizations (Kanter, 1968; Buchanan, 1974; Allen & Meyer 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Kanter (1968) defined organizational commitment as *“a process through which individual interest become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fulfilling those interest, as expressing the nature and needs of the person”* (p.500). According to Kanter, commitment is a mathematical equation of cost and revenue, in other words, commitment is about either to continue membership of the organization or leaving it by evaluating the possible gains and losses. Porter et al. (1974) defined organizational commitment as the intensity of an employee’s engagement and identification to the current organization. They proposed that the intensity of commitment is related to the integration level of an employee to current the organization. Buchanan (1974) explained commitment as the emotional attachment of employees to the values and goals of their organizations without regarding their own interests, and embracement of their role in the organization with the aim of realizing those organizational goals. Likewise, Mowday et al. (1982) also linked organizational commitment to the strong belief in goals and values of the organization and willingness to make effort for the good of the organization while maintaining the membership of the organization with desire. Becker (1960) related organization commitment with the past behaviors of the person and its binding effect between the person and the organization. Sheldon (1971) defined that organizational commitment is *“an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attached the identity of the person to the organization”*. Like Sheldon (1971), Allen & Meyer (1990) and Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) stated that organizational commitment as *“the psychological state that binds the individual to the organization”* and Mathieu & Zajac (1990) indicated that organizational commitment is a bond between employees and their organization. To sum, organizational commitment has two aspects, one is emotions and other is personal interests. An employee with high organizational commitment may desire to maintain

the membership at the organization due to the positive emotions such as integration, attachment and loyalty; or due to the personal gains.

2.3.2. Forms of Organizational Commitment

Various researchers indicated that organizational commitment can be characterized into three components, which are the acceptance of the organizational goals and values, willingness to make considerable efforts on the behalf of these goals and values, and substantially high passion to be keep continue being a part of the organization (Buchanan, 1974; Porter et al., 1974; Mowday et al, 1979; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

On the other hand, the organizational commitment is conceptualized into two categories, behavioral and attitudinal (Mowday et al., 1982). Approaches on behavioral commitment focuses on the systematic repetition of a behavior under specific circumstances and its effects on person's attitudes. The strongest link between the person and the organization is the possible costs and loss of opportunities in case of leaving the organization. It is assumed that commitment will influence the attitudes of employees towards their organization and in long term those attitudes will increase the likelihood of repetition of behaviors related to commitment. According to Meyer & Allen (1991), after employees exhibit a specific behavior, they will develop an attitude to justify their behavior and in time, this pattern of act will increase the likelihood of repetition of the behavior.

2.3.2.1 Behavioral Approaches of Organizational Commitment

The behavioral organizational commitment approach presented by Becker (1960) which he indicated that investments by individual to the organization and the high cost of leaving the organization creates consistent lines of behaviors and the rejection of other alternatives which in time bind the individual to the organization. The

commitment towards the organization is a result of tacit investments of the employee related to the certain organizational elements.

In this approach, commitment is a tendency that individual continues the consistent lines of behaviors considering the possible loss of the investments made. In other words, there is a positive relation between the investment the person gave importance and the commitment the person has to the organization. If the importance value of personal investments increases, the level of commitment increases as well. On the other hand, if investments lose their importance or the person finds substitute or better alternative opportunities, the commitment to the organization will be reduced. Becker (1960) named this behavior pattern as “side bets”. Exhibiting positive behavior towards organizational elements means winning the bet of staying in the organization.

The side bet theory can be indirectly related to interpersonal interactions as well. Becker (1960) mentioned that employees can also bet for social processes. Employees try to introduce themselves with a positive image to the other employees of the organization. If there is some level of commitment towards the organization, it can be expected that the person will continue a positive image.

To sum, behavioral approach of organizational commitment is related to personal interests of an employee rather than the level of the employee’s integration or emotional attachment. Every act done by an employee is a result of the employee’s decision process and evaluation of the potential benefits and losses.

2.3.2.2 Attitudinal Approaches of Organizational Commitment

Most researchers have focused on the attitudinal organizational commitment approaches. Attitudinal organizational commitment simply occurs when employees identifies themselves with the organization and attaches the organizational goals and values (Mowday et al., 1982). Although both attitudinal and behavioral commitments mutually boost each other, on the contrary of behavioral commitment, attitudinal

commitment is an active loyalty and highly relation to emotions and desires instead of basic win-lose logic.

Etzioni (1961) relates commitment on power and authority among the members of the organization and his approach consists of three components, which are moral, calculative and alienative commitments. These components of commitment represent the hierarchy and integration of the individual in the organization. Moral commitment is the most positive and affective commitment, meanwhile alienative is the most negative, involuntary and forced commitment. Moral commitment occurs when employee internalize the organizational goals, values and norms and evaluates his contribution to the organization is valuable. On the other hand, alienative commitment occurs in highly negative orientation to the organization and individual behavior being constrained. In this kind of commitment, the individual has no desire to stay in the organization but is forced to do so. Lastly, calculative commitment, which is conceptually at the middle of the other two commitment components about orientation and desire, represents a win-lose relation with the organization. This kind of commitment is achieved by rewarding the employees for their efforts (Etzioni, 1961).

Penley & Gould (1988) proposed a three-dimensional commitment model based on Etzioni's (1961) earlier approach which comprises of moral, calculative and alienative commitments. They claimed that Etzioni's work has some conceptual deficiencies. They questioned the complexity of the model and whether moral and alienative commitment are independent or simply opposite concepts. They also questioned the suitability of the model with quantitative tools. In their research, they found out that although Etzioni's model is insufficient, it provides a rich evidence of the multidimensionality of the concept of commitment (Penley & Gould, 1988).

Kanter (1968) proposed that organizational commitment links personality systems to social systems. She categorized commitment into three components, continuance, coherence and control commitment:

Continuance commitment is simply the commitment to continued participation which involves individual's cognitive orientations. This kind of commitment comes from the

value of investments related to be a member of the organization and the cost and difficulty of leaving the organization. There are two processes supporting the progress of continuance commitment. Sacrifice occurs when employee must give up something valuable for himself as a price of being the member of the organization. Once the employee makes the sacrifice, his motivation will rise. Since there is a high price for being a member of the organization, employee will evaluate the membership as a precious and more meaningful belonging. The sense of sacrifice usually comes from devotion to the organization. The second process supporting continuance commitment is investment. Like Becker's (1960) theory of "side bet", process of investment provides the employee devotes to the organization, thus in long term he can get the profit in return of the investment he has made. Although this is a simple relationship based on self-interest and leaving the organization is costly after making the investment, it is expected that the profit gained in long term strengthens the link between individual and organization (Kanter, 1968).

Cohesion commitment is related to the affective attachment of an individual to other members of the organization. The strong attachment between the members of the organization can create the sense of "brotherhood", thus makes easier to prevent threats against the existence of the group. Like continuance commitment, there are also two processes supports the progress of commitment. Firstly, renunciation is abandoning any kind of solo, dual or multi relationships which has a possibility to create conflicts in the group. To create high internal cohesiveness, organization discourages certain kinds of activities such as the insulation from outside, dyadic renunciation (i.e. free love or sexual relations) and renunciation of family (i.e. parent-child separation). Secondly, the process of communion simply means the individual's sense of becoming one with the organization. In this commitment, the individual cannot think himself distinguishable from the group and identify himself and all the members of the group as a part of the organization. Process of communion can be support management acts such as communal work efforts, group works, job rotation, communal dwelling, satisfying interpersonal relationship between members, organizational slogans, logos, uniforms or clothing, regular group meetings etc. (Kanter, 1968).

The last component namely control commitment involves the link between individual's evaluative orientation and organizational norms. The behaviors of the member of the organization is formed by the goals of the organization and this structure binds the individual normative evaluation to the organizational norms. Control commitment consists of two processes, mortification and surrender. Mortification tries to break the autonomous identity and individual self-esteem of employees by emphasizing that the employee has not much value without the guidance of the organization, therefore employee should obey the organizational norms instead of choosing another direction. Confession, self-criticism, mutual criticism, surveillance and punishment of deviants are some examples of mortification process. Surrender process occurs when the employee is affected by greatness and charisma of the organization and surrenders to the great authority of the organization. Surrender process is supported by institutionalization, legendary or charismatic organizational leaders, authority hierarchy, expecting to take vows before becoming the member etc. (Kanter, 1968).

Buchanan (1974) defined that organizational commitment consists of three components which are identification, involvement and loyalty. Identification indicates the adoption of the goals and values of the organization, involvement describes psychological embracement to the organizational role and work activities and lastly loyalty means the affective attachment to the organizational.

O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) suggested another three-component commitment approach which comprises of compliance, identification and internalization. Compliance involves while an employee adopts specific attitudes which are parallel to the values and norms of the organization with the intent of earning the specific rewards presented by the organization. Identification involves when an employee desires to continue being a member of the organization and for that purpose accepts the continuously getting stronger relation with the organization. And lastly internalization occurs when employee evaluates individual value and norms are parallel with the values and norms of the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Lastly, Allen & Meyer (1990) pointed out that attitudinal commitment reflects three general themes, affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and obligation to maintain membership in the organization. Affective attachment occurs when individual adopts the organizational goals, values and norms and enjoys the membership in the organization with high level of identification and involvement. Perceived cost is the possible losses and unearned rewards in case of turnover. And finally, obligation reflects the responsibility and loyalty of the individual to the organization.

In this study, this three-dimensional approach of Allen & Meyer (1990) will be used to analyze the components of organizational commitment since it is a combined and upgraded classification of both previous attitudinal and behavioral approaches.

2.3.2.3 The Three-Dimensional Approach of Allen & Meyer

Allen & Meyer (1990) defined organizational commitment as a psychological state which creates a link between the employee and the organization. They associated affective, continuance and normative commitment with some keywords which are “desire”, “need” and “obligation”, respectively. This means, employees with high affective commitment continue being a member of the organization because they desire to, employees with high continuance commitment continue because they need to and the ones with high normative commitment continue because they feel they are obliged to.

Allan & Meyer’s (1990) notion is a combination of attitudinal and behavioral commitment approaches. They claimed that organizational commitment reflects three themes, affective attachment, perceived costs and obligation. In Allen & Meyer’s (1990) approach, affective, continuance and normative commitment are related to these themes, respectively. All three components of the commitment are a psychological state that characterize the employee’s relationship with the organization and relates the decision whether the employee maintain or end the membership in the

organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Beyond these, the nature of the psychological state differs for each components of commitment.

Meyer & Allen (1991) defines affective commitment as *“the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization”* (p.67). By this definition, affective commitment overlaps Kanter’s (1968) cohesion commitment and Etzioni’s (1961) moral commitment notions. Both approaches involve the sense of brotherhood and a strong attachment between employees of an organization. In addition, affective commitment includes the identification and internalization dimensions suggested by O’Reilly & Chatman (1986) as well.

Affective commitment occurs when employees desire to maintain their membership of the organization. The desire to maintain the organization membership arises due to the work experiences employees have. Once employees emotionally attach to the organization, they desire to continue being a member of the organization regardless of rewards or costs. In other words, desire occurred due to the experiences is the basis of the affective commitment. Employees with high affective commitment accept and embrace the goals, values and norms of the organization and they see themselves as a part of the organization. Affective commitment is much stronger than other two components of organizational commitment because employees with high commitment are more loyal and devoted to their organization since the link between individual and organization is purely based on desire (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

According to Meyer & Allen (1991) continuance commitment refers to *“the awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization”* (p.67). By definition, continuance commitment overlaps with Kanter’s (1968) continuance commitment, Etzioni’s (1961) calculative commitment and Becker’s (1960) side bet approach. There is also parallelism between continuance commitment and O’Reilly & Chatman’s (1986) compliance dimension.

Continuance commitment related to the threat of losing benefits gained from the organization and perceived cost associated with turnover and the lack of alternatives in case of turnover. Since some employees consider the possible loss of the investment

and labor they have already given to the organization and some think that they cannot find any better alternatives, they cannot afford to leave the organization. As employees spend longer years in the organization, they invest more to the organization, therefore in case of a possible turnover, there will be more investment loss and finding any better alternatives will be harder. Besides, if employees think that they cannot use their skills and knowledge in another organization, they may want to stay in the organization even if they have no attachment. Lastly, some employees may stay at the organization just because of the economic issues. The financial and service-related benefits, salary and retirement opportunities may stop employees from turnover. On the other hand, even if these kinds of employees stay at the organization with high continuance commitment, may harm the organization as well by negative attitudes and counterproductive work behaviors. After all, the commitment that these employees have is not a commitment related to identification with the organization, but personal interests (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Meyer & Allen (1991) defines normative commitment as “*a feeling of obligation to continue employment*” (p.67). Kanter’s (1968) control commitment is conceptually a similar term to normative commitment. Employees with high normative commitment think that they ought to stay at the organization because the organization has invested for them a lot. Therefore, moral obligation and desire to not disappoint the organization is the basis of normative commitment. Socialization efforts, employee training, business trips, fair and acceptable organizational administration, personal perceptions and organization spirit are some of the effectors that employees evaluate the organization that deserving of their loyalty. Normative commitment gains strength with internalization and moral obligation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Normative commitment is different from affective commitment since the employee evaluates being a member of the organization is a duty and right and legitimate; different from continuance commitment since the possible losses in case of a turnover is not employee’s main consideration, but loyalty is (Wasti, 2000).

All three components of Allen & Meyer’s (1990) multidimensional commitment model are conceptually distinguishable. On the other hand, there is a correlation between affective and normative commitment. Meyer et al. (2002) proved that

affective and normative commitment are not identical concepts. Even if they are separate, they also share similar inherent psychological overlap (Meyer et al., 1993). Affective commitment has a substantial correlation with normative commitment (Jaros et al., 1993; Allen & Meyer, 1996). The correlation is not a unity and although both commitment components share similar patterns of correlations with same antecedent variables, the magnitude of the correlation is different (Meyer et al., 2002). Allen & Meyer (1996) explain the relation between affective and normative commitment as not being possible to feel a strong obligation to an organization without also having a strong emotional attachment. Since work experiences effects both affective and normative commitment, it is natural to find out a correlation between those commitment components (Meyer et al., 1993; Allen & Meyer, 1996). On the other hand, there is no must that organizational commitment components share a correlation. In some cases, one or more components may be negative while other is positive. Meyer & Allen (1991) adds that an employee can feel a strong desire and need to stay at the organization, but little obligation.

In short, organizational commitment has three components that each of them indicates a different attitude and behavior against the organization. Affective commitment and normative commitment are related to emotions. Affective commitment increases through attachment, integration and affection where normative commitment occurs within the sense of obligation and gratitude. On the other hand, continuance commitment is mostly related to personal benefits and depends on the benefits and drawbacks of continuing as a member of the organization.

2.3.3. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

As mentioned previously, organizational commitment has three main components related to emotional attachment, sense of obligation and gain-loss evaluation. Therefore, the predictors of organizational commitment involve personal psychological factors, workplace experiences and other work alternatives at the outside with potentially higher benefit. Mathieu & Zajac (1990) classified the

antecedent variables of organizational commitment into five categories, which are personal characteristics, job characteristics, organizational characteristics, role states and group/leader relations. On the other hand, Meyer et al. (2002) accepted the typology made by Mowday et al. (1982) as the antecedent variables of organizational commitment into four groups, which are demographic variables, individual differences, work experiences and alternatives / investments. Demographic variables include age, gender, education, organizational tenure and marital status. Individual differences involve locus of control and self-efficacy. Work experiences contain organizational support, transformational leadership, role ambiguity, role conflict, interactional, distributive and procedural justice. Lastly, alternatives / investments group contains alternatives, investments, transferability of education and transferability of skills. Although various researchers constructed different typologies, the classifications contain most of the predictors.

Firstly, personal characteristics include age, sex, education, marital status, position, organizational tenure, perceived personal competence, ability, salary, protestant work ethic and job level (Angel & Perry, 1981; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Angel & Perry (1981) showed that age is positively, and education level is negatively correlated with organizational commitment. They explained this result by the fact that by getting older, the ability to find alternatives is getting harder. On the other hand, Meyer & Allen (1991) argued that an employee which acquired valuable skills and talents might be able to find an alternative job easier than the younger and less experiences ones. A skilled employee does not have to have high continuance commitment because of his long working years at the organization. Besides, young employee may not be aware of the alternatives, so may see the continuing the current job as an obligation.

Employees who have higher education level, therefore more likely to have higher job-related skills have higher chance to find another job in a certain time than employees with low education (Angel & Perry, 1981). Mathieu & Zajac (1990) found a weak and negative correlation between education and organizational commitment. The correlation was stronger with attitudinal compared to calculative commitment. These findings can be proved by Mowday et al.'s (1982) assertion that educated employees

have higher expectations from their organization and it is hard to fulfil these expectations of the young comparing to the older employees. Therefore, job and organization dissatisfaction naturally are higher among educated employees. Marital status and salary had a weak positive correlation with commitment. Married employees are less likely to take risk of leaving the current job and trying to find an alternative one. Both position and organizational tenure had a small effect on commitment. Organizational tenure more strongly related to calculative commitment and position tenure more strongly related to attitudinal commitment. Employee ability and skill level had no significant relation with commitment on the contrary of general view that skilled employees having higher calculative commitment. (Mathie & Zajac, 1990).

Angel & Perry (1981) indicated that women have a stronger commitment to their organizations than men. They explain this result by mentioning two points. First, historically women have been less involved with business than men and second women enjoy less interorganizational mobility than men, so they tend to stay. They also mentioned that gender has no significant effect on different educational levels (Angel & Perry (1981). On the other hand, Mathieu & Zajac (1990) found no significant relationship between gender and commitment. Yet, within an insignificant level, men are slightly more committed than women and the relationship was slightly stronger with attitudinal commitment.

Job characteristics involve skill variety, task autonomy, challenge and job scope; organizational characteristics are organizational size and centralization; and role states include role ambiguity, conflict and overload (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A research by Glisson & Durick (1988) indicated that leadership, organization's age, size of the workgroup and the service provide by the workgroup are significant predictors of commitment. Besides, work characteristics, role ambiguity and role conflict had also significant but relatively weaker effects on commitment. They argued that variables related to organization characteristics are better predicting commitment and the variables related to job characteristics are better predicting job satisfaction.

The size of the organization is another important antecedent of commitment. Rhodes & Eisenberger (2002) claimed that larger organizations care less about their employees

than the smaller ones. Small organizations are more sensitive to the demands, suggestions and needs of their employees, hereat this need increases employee integration. Sommer et al. (1996) indicates that in larger organizations, the interpersonal relations, cooperation among employees, contribution to the organizational decisions are getting complicated and weaker since the process of identification, involvement to decision making and integration are also getting harder. On the other hand, in larger organizations it can be expected that the rewards, payment and career steps might be more satisfactory.

The last category of the predictors of organizational commitment; group/leader relations involve group cohesiveness, task independence, leader initiating structure, leader consideration, leader communication and participative leadership (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). It is clear that interpersonal interactions play an important role in organizational commitment. As mentioned previously, both workplace incivility, aggression and other CWBs creates stress and negative emotions. These negative outcomes of workplace incivility are transferred and become as predictors of low levels of organizational commitment. Since affective and normative components of organizational commitment are highly related to the human assets of the organization (*emotional attachment and sense of obligation are resulted as the human interactions mostly*), it is natural that interpersonal relations, leadership and employee integration are important predictors of organizational commitment. As it is mentioned in following chapters, while interpersonal relations increase the commitment, counterproductive work behaviors and workplace incivility decreases the integration, involvement and organizational commitment of the targeted employees.

Since the characteristics of the three components of organizational commitment are distinct from each other, there are numerous differences between the relationship between the components of organizational commitment and their predictors. Results of the test by Meyer et al. (2002) showed that the correlation of demographic variables with all components of commitment are positive but weak, however, as expected, continuance commitment had a stronger correlation with age (Angel & Perry, 1981). External locus of control correlated negatively, self-efficacy correlated positive but weakly with affective commitment. Work experiences had significant relations with

commitment. Affective commitment had the strongest correlation with work experience variables and continuance commitment had opposite correlation direction to affective and normative commitment. Role ambiguity and role conflict strongly correlated with affective commitment while role conflict also strongly correlated with continuance commitment. Availability of alternatives and investment variables correlated with all three components of the commitment, yet the strongest correlation was between continuance commitment. Finally, affective commitment had a strong and significantly stronger correlation than continuance and normative commitment with job satisfaction and job involvement (Meyer et al., 2002).

Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) claimed that the reason behind the fact that affective commitment has stronger and more in number correlation with the antecedent variables of commitment than continuance and normative commitment is due to the variety effect of emotions and affection. Meyer & Allen (1991) indicated that personal characteristics, organizational structure and work experiences are the important predictors of affective commitment. In addition, work experiences such as employee/supervisor relations, role clarity may have indirect effect on affective commitment.

Note that, while some researchers classified job satisfaction as an antecedent of commitment, some only focused on the correlation between these two concepts. Meyer et al. (2002) indicated that there is a correlation between commitment and job satisfaction while the strongest correlation is with affective commitment. In their model, Johnston et al. (1990) listed the antecedents of organizational commitment as role ambiguity, leadership, role clarification, role conflict and job satisfaction. In their study Williams & Hazer (1986) claimed equity, routinization, instrumental information, pre-employment expectations, perceived job characteristics, leadership consideration and age have indirect effect on organizational commitment through job satisfaction. They claimed that job satisfaction is the main predictor of organizational commitment. In this study, organizational commitment and job satisfaction will be used as separate mediator variables and the potential predicting relationship between them will be neglected since the main question of the study is whether organizational

commitment or job satisfaction has a mediating effect on the relationship between turnover intention and workplace incivility.

In brief, the antecedents of organizational commitment involve personal, interpersonal, job-related and organizational factors. The demographic variables such as age, tenure and education level; the structure and size of the organization, the characteristics and content of the job, and interpersonal relations directly effect organizational commitment. Lastly, since workplace incivility is an interpersonal behavior, the potential relationship between incivility and organizational commitment is proposed in this study.

2.3.4. Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

In literature it is a widely accepted notion that organizational commitment is a direct predictor of turnover intention (Angel & Perry, 1981; Mowday et al., 1982; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Johnston et al., 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Somers, 1995; Griffeth et al., 2000; Price, 2001; Aryee et al., 2002). In addition, commitment does not only affect turnover, but it is also a strong predictor of withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism low job performance and lateness (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and citizenship performance (Taylor et al., 2012).

Mathieu & Zajac (1990) classified the consequences of low organizational commitment into two categories, job performance and withdrawal behaviors. Similarly, Mowday et al. (1982) argued that the worst effect of low commitment is the decrease of job performance. In their study, Mathieu & Zajac (1990) claimed that there is a positive relation between attendance and negative between lateness and turnover, but the effects are weak. Note that the study revealed that the correlation between turnover and attitudinal is stronger than the correlation between turnover and calculative commitment. Commitment had no relation with employee's perception of job alternatives. Lastly, commitment correlated stronger to the intention to search for job alternatives and turnover intention.

Meyer et al. (2002) categorized the consequences of organizational commitment into five groups, turnover, withdrawal, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, stress and work-family conflict. All components of commitment are negatively associated with turnover. Affective commitment had the strongest association, followed by normative and continuance commitment, respectively. As mentioned by other researchers as well, association between commitment and withdrawal behaviors was higher than actual turnover. Affective commitment again had the strongest relation, followed by normative and continuance, respectively for the case of withdrawal behaviors. Secondly, absenteeism negatively was associated with affective commitment and positively associated with normative and continuance commitment, but very weakly. Thirdly, job performance was associated positively with affective and normative commitment, negatively associated with continuance commitment. While citizenship behavior had a positive association with affective and normative commitment, there was no association with continuance commitment. Lastly, stress and work-family conflict were associated negatively with affective commitment, negatively with continuance commitment and did not have a correlation with normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

To sum, employees with higher organizational commitment tend to have higher organizational citizenship behavior, job performance and lower stress levels, withdrawal behaviors and turnover intention.

2.4. Job Satisfaction

2.4.1. Definition of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the set of feelings resulted by the perception of employees about their current job. While the positive perception of the job indicates job satisfaction, reverse means job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction is the perception of feelings and other internal responses that are based on norms, values and expectations (Schneider & Snyder, 1975). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as *“a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences (p.1300).*

Williams & Hazer (1986) mentioned that job satisfaction is the affective response of an employee to the characteristics of the job. Henne & Locke (1985) added that job satisfaction is a psychological state that creates various mental or physical reactions. According to Schneider & Snyder (1975), job satisfaction is an individual evaluation of job conditions or the outcomes that occur because of having the current job.

According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is related to how an employee perceives and evaluates a job with the influence of individual and job factors. While individual factors are personality, mental health and values, job factors are work, pay, promotions, benefits and policies, co-workers, supervisors and top leadership. Co-workers should be nice to work with, respectful and civil while supervisors should be considerate, fair, honest and credit and praise the subordinates in decision making.

Job satisfaction usually is categorized into subgroups such as work, pay, promotion, supervision and co-worker satisfaction (Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Pool, 1997). On the other hand, some researchers may focus on seven subgroups which include satisfaction with customers and satisfaction with policy and support (Rutherford et al., 2009). Each of the subgroup is a singular satisfaction level of an employee towards a specific characteristic of the job. For example, the co-worker subgroup of job satisfaction involves the emotional perception of an employee towards other members in the organization, which is related to workplace incivility more than other subgroups of job satisfaction as mentioned at previous chapters. In this study, job satisfaction is analyzed as overall without segmentation.

2.4.2. Distinction of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Various researchers accepted a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Johnston et al., 1990; Reed et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 2002). In addition, some of them claimed job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organizational commitment (Williams & Hazer, 1968; Johnston et al., 1990) as well.

Although job satisfaction and organizational commitment seem similar since both related to emotional perceptions and a significant predictor of turnover intention which will be mentioned further in this study, they are conceptually distinct. Mowday et al. (1982, p.28) separated the concept of organizational commitment and job satisfaction as “*Commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, whereas satisfaction emphasized the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties.*” In other words, job satisfaction is related to perception of employees about their job and organizational commitment is related to the perception and attachment of employees to their organization.

In their research to distinguish the predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment Glisson & Durick (1988) tested the possible predictors of both variables. The predictors are categorized into three groups. While the predictors related to characteristics of job tasks are role conflict, role ambiguity, skill variety, task identity and task significance, the predictors related to characteristics of organization are workgroup size, budget and age, organization age, leadership and residential services. Thirdly, characteristics of the employees are years in the organization, tenure, age, gender, education and salary. Results showed that while the characteristics of job tasks significantly predicted job satisfaction, characteristics of the organization significantly predicted organizational commitment, naturally. On the other hand, although characteristics of the employees significantly predicted organizational commitment, it was not associated to job satisfaction (Glisson & Durick, 1988).

While some predictors related to job satisfaction such as age, gender, education level (Mobley et al., 1979; Williams & Hazer, 1986), organizational climate (Schneider & Snyder, 1975), organizational justice (Zagladi et al., 2005) and emotional exhaustion (Rutherford et al., 2009) also predicts organizational commitment, the correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment proposed in past researches do not imply that an employee will have high commitment and satisfaction or vice versa at the same time. It is possible that some employees may have high positive attachment to the organization and its goals and values, but at the same time are dissatisfied about their job within the organization (Glisson & Durick, 1988). For example, an employee may be very pleased about being a member of a well-known

organization that offers high benefits to its employees but dissatisfied with the content of the job- or job-related factors.

In short, likewise to the literature, a positive correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction can be expected since various researchers indicated that both variables have similar antecedents. On the other hand, there is no sufficient findings about the causation relation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in organizational psychology literature. Therefore, in this study both variables are evaluated as distinct mediators between turnover intention and workplace incivility and no causation relation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is proposed.

2.4.3. Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

There are various assertions about the antecedents of job satisfaction. Williams & Hazer (1986) proposed the predictors of job satisfaction are age, pre-employment expectations, job characteristics perception, leadership consideration, instrumental information, routinization and equity. Curry et al. (1986) also mentioned that routinization, distributive justice, integration, work overload, employee personality, organizational structure and environmental variables are significant predictors of job satisfaction. According to Lambert et al. (2001) the antecedents of job satisfaction can be categorized into two groups, demographic characteristics and work environment factors. Demographic factors are age, gender, years of service and education level; and work environment factors are role conflict, task variety, financial rewards, relations with co-workers and participation. Glisson & Durick (1988) listed significant predictors of job satisfaction as role ambiguity, task identity, task significance, leadership. According to Pool (1997) the predictors of job satisfaction are task substitutes, organizational substitutes, leadership behavior and work motivation. Lee et al. (2012) claimed that occupational prestige, organizational reputation, corporate social responsibilities, job content itself, job environment and organizational characteristics are significantly related to job satisfaction.

Lambert et al. (2001) claimed that there are two reasons that age positively affects job satisfaction. Firstly, there is a higher possibility that older employees may have had the chance to find a job that makes them satisfied over time than younger employees. Secondly, older employees may focus not only the job content but also the elements in the workplace such as friends and involvement to the organization. A familiar climate with an average job may be more perceived by the older employee more satisfying than a stranger climate with a perfect job.

Price (2001) listed the antecedent of job satisfaction as opportunity, job stress and routinization which affects negatively and job involvement, positive affectivity, autonomy, distributive justice, pay, promotional chances and social support which are related to job satisfaction positively. Positive affectivity is not only a predictor of job satisfaction, it also affects some other exogenous determinants of satisfaction which are related to emotions. Since job satisfaction is related to perception, positive affectivity creates selective perception that the employee may perceive the benefits of the job. Job stress occurs because of inadequacy, role conflict, role ambiguity and workload. Justice climate is another important factor since the employee evaluates the process of rewarding and punishments and the result leads to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Social support is related to interpersonal relations. Integration, work group cohesion and group relations are some factors of social support (Price, 2001).

At Mobley et al.'s (1979) employee turnover model, it was proposed that the predictors of satisfaction are at two categories, individual values and job-related perceptions. Individual factors are age, tenure, education, interests, personality, family responsibility, skill level, status etc. Secondly, job-related perceptions are affected by organizational factors such as goals, values, policies, rewards, practices, job content, supervision, work group, climate, conditions etc.

According to Bowling & Hammond (2008), job complexity, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback, supervisor and co-worker social support, and person-environment fit positively related to job satisfaction while role ambiguity, role conflict, interpersonal conflict and work-family conflict negatively related. Also, correlations were found between job satisfaction and overall and all three components

of organizational commitment, job involvement and all forms of organizational justice, positively.

Previous studies revealed that a relationship between job satisfaction and workplace incivility may be claimed through some antecedents of job satisfaction. The predictors of job satisfaction which are related to interpersonal relationship among employees such as relationship with co-workers, integration, leadership behavior, job environment, workplace climate, employee personality and co-worker social support are also related to workplace incivility, as mentioned previously. Although the literature has also some direct indications about the relationship between incivility and satisfaction, which will be discussed in the next chapter, a conceptual link may be constructed through these variables solely as well.

2.4.4. Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Low job satisfaction may create employee reactions against the organization which is harmful to the goals of the organization. Some important outcomes that low job satisfaction causes are lateness (Blau, 1994), absenteeism (Rusbult et al., 1988), negative affectivity (Lee et al., 2012), alternative job searching behavior (Price, 2001), weak organizational citizenship behaviors (Bowling & Hammond, 2008), increased error rate (Rusbult et al., 1988), low job performance, protest, withdrawal behaviors (Henne & Locke, 1985) and most importantly turnover intention.

While some researchers claimed that job satisfaction have significant direct effect on turnover intention (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mobley et al., 1979; Price, 2001; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Lambert et al., 2001, Zagladi et al., 2005), some others proposed that job satisfaction affects turnover intention indirectly through organizational commitment (Johnston et al., 1990; Meyer et al., 2002).

On the other hand, Steers & Mowday (1981) proposed that job dissatisfaction may be the result of the behavior of turnover also with the explanation of cognitive dissonance. The job dissatisfaction resulted by the turnover intention may happens in two ways.

Firstly, when some employees who were satisfied about their previous jobs, try to comfort themselves by assigning the responsibility of the decision to environmental factors, after leaving the previous organizations for another alternatives. For example, comparing the old and new job, reevaluating the alternatives and trying to put the turnover decision into the logic are some examples of dissonance behavior. These employees may reduce interpersonal relationship with the co-workers from the previous job and develop new relationship based on the current job and evaluate most of the elements of the previous job is less satisfactory than the new one. Secondly, some employees who are dissatisfied about their current jobs but do not leave the current organization for an alternative one, may again try to deny the responsibility of the decision and blame environmental factors. For instance, an employee who could not leave the current job because of family or children factors, financial or logistical issues would form higher levels of dissatisfaction towards the current job. But naturally, after some time, cognitive reevaluation based on dissonance behavior will step in and the employee who realized that the current job is the only alternative, will develop positive satisfaction (Steers & Mowday, 1981).

In short, there is a mutual causation relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Previous studies reveal that job dissatisfaction may be resulted as turnover intention and turnover intention of dissatisfied employees may create dissatisfaction towards other employees or themselves. In this study, only the predicting power of job satisfaction on turnover intention will be examined in order to find out the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

2.5. Turnover Intention

2.5.1. A Brief View of Withdrawal Behaviors

Withdrawal behaviors are one of the forms of counterproductive work behaviors, defined by Spector et al. (2006) as the behaviors restricting the amount of the time spent of the employee at work. Withdrawal behavior includes lateness, taking frequent

and long breaks, absenteeism and turnover which is a single act and certain of withdrawal (Blau, 1994). In addition to these physical withdrawal behaviors, there are also psychological behaviors such as passive compliance, reduced effort and mental laziness at work (Pinder, 2008).

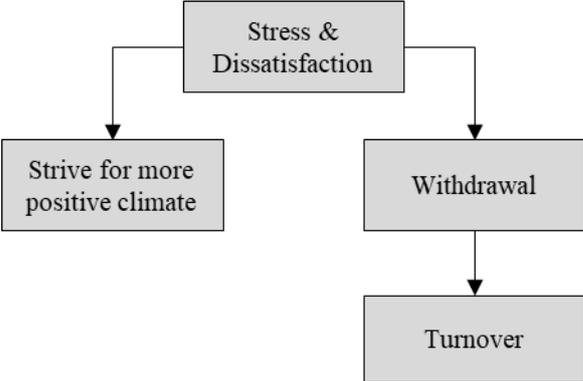


Figure 1: Stress and Turnover

When dissatisfaction or stress occurs in work environment, employees either choose to strive for more positive climate by dialogue or legal actions, or simply withdrawing into their shell, starting to less care about the work and the organization. And at some point, alienation peaks and the employee consider leaving the organization as shown at Figure 1. On the other hand, if unsatisfied employees do not perceive the alternative jobs as attractive as their current job or fails to search an alternative, they will perform other withdrawal behaviors instead of turnover intention and actual turnover (Mobley et al., 1979).

Withdrawal behaviors occurs while employees becomes disengaged from the organization. Turnover is considered as the most extreme form of withdrawal behaviors. An employee may wish to avoid the negative situations which induce negative emotions such as stress and dissatisfaction at work by simply leaving the organization.

2.5.2. Meaning of Turnover Intention and Actual Turnover

Price (1977) defined turnover as the percentage of the employees who have left the organization in a certain period divided by the mean of the quantity of workers in that period. According to Tett & Meyer (1993), turnover is the termination of employees' employment with the organization while turnover intention as a conscious desire to leave the organization.

Turnover can be in two ways, either voluntary or involuntary (Lambert et al., 2006). Voluntary turnover involves willingness of an employee to choose to leave the organization even if there is the possibility of staying. Voluntary turnover might be the result of a more secure and appealing job, non-mandatory retirement, lack of career opportunities, dissatisfaction etc. Involuntary turnover occurs when an employee unwillingly leaves the organization due to a getting fired because of poor performance or not obeying the organizational rules, legislative issues or reasons beyond the organization's and employee's control such as retirement, death and health problems. In addition, Maertz & Campion (1998) discussed that some departures such as quitting due to pregnancy, leaving for family relocation and quitting to avoid expected involuntary termination which means simply getting fired, can be included into the both involuntary and voluntary turnover.

Since involuntary turnover is either at the control of the organization or resulted by unavoidable natural causes, organizations generally focus on voluntary turnover behavior. On the other hand, once turnover happens, there is nothing more to do by the organization. Therefore, organizations try to detect the turnover intentions of the employees to take measures about it before the actual turnover happens.

Turnover intention is an employee's cognitional evaluation of the decision of leaving or staying at the organization. Mobley et al. (1979) defined turnover intention as the desire of an employee to break away from the organization. According to Griffeth et al. (2000), turnover intention is the consideration of an employee to leave voluntarily the current organization permanently. Turnover intention is the most important phase of the process of leaving the organization (Price, 1977). Because in that phase the

employee starts to search for alternative jobs and reduce its commitment to the organization dramatically. Therefore, turnover intention is the strongest predictor of voluntary turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Griffeth et al., 2000; Price, 2001). It is not possible to measure the actual turnover before it happens, but since turnover intention is a meaningful predictor of actual turnover, analyzing turnover intention behavior of employees is the best option.

There are different forms of turnover intention which are intention to leave the job but not the organization, intention to leave the organization but not the sector and intention to leave the sector (Nauta et al., 2009). This study and most of the studies in literature focus on intention to leave the organization.

The process of employee turnover starts with the experienced job dissatisfaction. In this phase, the employee may think of leaving the job or perform other withdrawal behaviors like absenteeism. In the second phase, the employee thinks about leaving the job. In third phase, he evaluates the potential benefits of searching alternatives and the cost of leaving. If the employee decides that benefits are higher than cost of leaving, then the employee starts to search for alternative jobs. Note that non-job-related determinants such as transfer of spouse may initiate this phase as well. In the next phase, the employee evaluates and make comparison of alternative jobs versus the current job. If the employee decides that alternative one is better, then turnover intention occurs and finally leads to actual turnover (Mobley, 1977). According to Carmeli & Weisberg (2006), turnover is a three-step process, first considering about quitting the organization, second starting to search for alternative organizations, and third leaving the organization (Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006). In short, not every turnover intention will be resulted as turnover, however turnover intention is the beginning of the turnover process.

2.5.3. Potential Benefits and Costs of Turnover and its Intention

Turnover is costly for both the employee and the organization (Lee et al., 2004). The cost faced by the employee is the sunk cost of the spent years in the organization. This

cost is even higher for long-time working employees who had given years of labor investment to the organization. If employees leave the organization, the investments made on the organization will become lost. In addition, quitting employees also take risks about the new jobs. Since not all the employees have the chance to find an alternative before leaving the current organization, there is always the possibility of not being able to find a job which is better than the previous one, in a short time. Secondly, there is also a possibility that although a job or organization may be appealing from outside, it may turn out to be more dissatisfying and unavailing after starting. On the other hand, employees having low investment to the organization have little to lose, therefore the possibility of their quit is more probable (Rusbult et al., 1988). In short, after an employee loses its faith, emotional attachment and sense of obligation to the organization which are related to affective and normative commitments, the employee makes the calculative decision of leaving or staying at the organization while considering the sunk cost which is related to the continuance commitment.

Organization faces observable and hidden costs at turnover issues. The observable costs are staffing and training costs of the newly hired employee, administrative costs, operational disruption, loss of production capacity, profit and experienced employee (Maertz & Campion, 1998; Koys, 2001; Addae et al., 2006).

First of all, turnover directly influences the overall performance of an organization since turnover rate is significantly and negatively related to organizational productivity (Shaw et al., 2005). Voluntary turnover influences organizational productivity and effectiveness in a negative way because of the loss of the experiences of employees who have wide knowledge about the processes, content of the job, organizational structure and customer goals. Even if newly hired employees may be really enthusiastic about the job, creative and productive, they will need some time to get used to the organization and job. Organization suffers from capacity insufficiency especially when turnover rate is high and turnover act is frequent in a short time. In addition, since turnover behavior is not much predictable and even it was predicted, sometimes finding an employee with the key skill and experience is not easy and turnover becomes very costly to the organization.

Secondly, turnover may also damage the organizational climate since a turnover may lead to the reduction at motivation of other employees because of losing a desirable supervisor, manager or co-worker. In addition, turnover is usually be resulted as employment of inexperienced employee who cannot contribute to the work load in a short time as much as the employee who left. Therefore, insufficient staffing causes overworking which leads to dissatisfaction among remaining employees (Lambert, 2006).

Thirdly, turnover may also cause the transfer of the classified information, developed process design and strategic decisions to the rival organizations. An employee may start to work in a rival organization after turnover from the previous organization, and then may transfer the information and knowledge learnt previously in years which means all the investments made by the previous organization to the employee and innovations that the previous organization made in order to differentiate itself in the competitive sector may pass to the rival organization.

On the other side, turnover may be beneficial in some situations with certain circumstances. Since long-tenured employees usually gets higher payment, replacement of high paid employees with new and young employees with low salary provides the organization to save money by reducing the wage budgets. In addition, since employees with high turnover intention will have low commitment to the organization and less desire to work, turnover can give an opportunity to the organization to change the employees having poor performance with new bloods who are more enthusiastic (Maertz & Campion, 1998). On the other hand, mostly undesirable employees quit since the chance of finding an alternative job of productive and creative employees is more likely then mediocre employees. Therefore, the drawbacks of turnover outweigh the benefits of turnover. In fact, employee retention is an important determinant in the competitive environment among organizations (Liu et al., 2010).

In short, the drawbacks of turnover intention and actual turnover such as sunk costs associated to the old dismissed employees and new hiring, training and integration costs related to substitute employees, operational disruption, deterioration in

workplace climate, information transfer through the old employee to a rival organization, possibility of a turnover intention chain of other employees outweigh the positive outcomes such as the chance of getting rid of unproductive old employees and hiring more enthusiastic employees with lower payment. Therefore, the aim of an organization should enhance workplace climate, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of an employee to minimize any voluntary turnover intentions. However, if turnover intention occurs and perfectly detected by the human resources department, the organization should take measures to prevent this situation, of course, if the employee is a desired one with high contribution to the organization.

2.5.4. Predictors of Turnover Intention

Numerous researchers indicated that organizational commitment (Angel & Perry, 1981; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Johnston et al., 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Jaros et al., 1993; Jenkins, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Somers, 1995; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 2002; Addae et al., 2006; Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006; Loi, 2006; Cole et al., 2010) and job satisfaction (Mobley et al., 1979; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Chen & Spector, 1991; Jenkins, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Shaw, 1999; Lambert et al., 2001; Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006; Dion, 2006) are significant predictors of turnover intention, and some researchers claimed that job satisfaction affects turnover intention through organizational commitment (Johnston et al., 1990. Zagladi et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2010).

Among all predictors of turnover intention, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job alternatives are the variables which are most frequently studied for the relation to voluntary turnover (Lee et al., 2004). Before the term “*intention to stay*” was not used, job satisfaction had been considered as one of the most important antecedents of turnover. However, later researches have shown that job satisfaction can explain a small amount of variance at turnover. Various researchers indicated that

turnover intention is a significant mediator of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973; Mobley, 1977).

There are some approaches claiming that job satisfaction is an indirect predictor of turnover intention that influences turnover intention through organizational commitment (Zagladi et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2010). According to the organizational commitment model of Johnston et al. (1990), organizational commitment is the direct predictor of turnover intention. Job satisfaction and role ambiguity affects turnover intention through organizational commitment. Griffeth et al. (2000) claimed that although job satisfaction is a strong predictor of turnover, organizational commitment predicts turnover better.

Porter & Steers (1973) mentioned that while age, tenure, suitability similarity of vocational interests to the job, pay, promotion, job and supervisor satisfaction, supervisory experience, job autonomy and responsibility and role clarity negatively; work unit size, task repetitiveness, extreme personality characteristics and family responsibilities positively predict turnover intention.

Age and tenure have negative and significant relationships with turnover intention (Price, 1977; Carmeli & Weisberg, 2006; Liu et al, 2010). According to Cortina et al. (2011), age and gender significantly relates to turnover intention. Lambert (2006) mentions that gender, tenure and education are significant predictors of turnover intention. Women are more likely to quit their jobs than men. Since tenure is highly correlated with the employee's investments to the organization, high tenure means higher costs of turnover, therefore employees with high tenure are less likely to quit their jobs. In addition, employees with higher education are also more likely to quit than employees with lower education since finding a better alternative job is easier for more educated people.

On the other hand, according to Griffeth et al. (2000), personal characteristics are not good predictors for turnover. They indicated that no relationship found between gender and turnover, and race and turnover. On the other hand, the perceived alternatives for another job possibilities modestly predicts turnover. In addition, withdrawal behaviors

such as absenteeism and lateness are important antecedent variables of turnover. The high performers of these withdrawal behaviors have higher tendency to quit (Griffeth et al., 2000).

In their model Steers & Mowday (1981) indicated the direct predictors of turnover intention as affective responses to job, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and involvement. In addition, job expectations and values, employee characteristics, alternative job opportunities, organizational experience and job performance level indirectly affect turnover intention.

Steers & Mowday (1981) also proposed that a turnover behavior of an employee may affect the turnover intention of other employees who observed the turnover act. These employees may reevaluate their job since one of them has chosen to leave that job. In addition, the leaver may also provide information about the favorable alternative job opportunities to co-workers before leaving the organization.

Rusbult et al. (1988) categorized the main predictors of turnover into three groups which are job satisfaction, investment size and alternatives. In their study, they proved that low job satisfaction will be resulted as higher possibility of turnover. Secondly, employees with higher investment are less likely to turnover. Employees who have great investment to their organization have much to lose while employees with low investment has little to lose, so the decision of leaving the organization is much easier for employees with low investment. Lastly, the high-quality alternatives such as better job opportunities, early retirement, acceptability of not working a while, labor supply and external support are some trigger factors to the employee to leave the job if there is dissatisfaction for the job. On the other hand, employees who have no desirable alternatives have to wait quietly for the bad working conditions to improve in future with hope (Rusbult et al., 1988).

Cotton & Tuttle (1986) categorized the factors that affect turnover intention into three groups which are external factors (alternative employment perceptions, unemployment rate, union presence etc.) work-related factors (pay, reward, overall job satisfaction etc.) and personal factors (age, tenure, gender, education, marital status, behavioral

intentions etc.). They pointed out that age, tenure, union presence, unemployment rate, pay, reward, job satisfaction and role clarity affect turnover intention negatively while alternative employment perceptions, education and behavioral intentions affect turnover intention positively. In addition, turnover intention is higher for women and lower for married employees (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986).

Some other predictors of turnover or turnover intention according to various researchers are burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1982), education (Price, 1977), job stress, role stress, work-related family conflict (Lambert, 2006) and emotional exhaustion (Cole et al., 2010) which affect turnover intention positively and person-organization fit (Liu et al., 2010), perceived organizational support (Loi, 2006), psychological empowerment, distributive justice, interpersonal justice (Cole et al., 2010), instrumental communication, job variety and fair supervision (Lambert, 2006) which affect turnover intention negatively.

In brief, although there are various variables affecting turnover intention, proposed by numerous researchers, such as role ambiguity, job autonomy, role clarity, unemployment rate, union presence, age, tenure, gender, marital status, personality characteristics, family responsibilities and alternative jobs opportunities; organizational commitment and job satisfaction were widely considered as the most significant predictors of turnover intention. In addition, since variables that are resulted by interpersonal conflicts such as stress, emotional exhaustion, unfair climate perception and supervisory experience also affects turnover intention, this may indicate a possible relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This study examines the direct effects of workplace incivility on organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the direct effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction on turnover intention, and the indirect effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention through organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

As mentioned at previous parts, the literature has a widely accepted opinion about the predicting power of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. On the other hand, workplace incivility has a relatively complicated context since its nature is unclear. Studies show that incivility is as harmful as other highly intense physical deviant behaviors. On the other hand, incivility is much more difficult to be detected. Thus, in many organizations, the uncivil behaviors stay hidden and continuously damages the workplace climate. In this study, it is proposed that workplace incivility undermines the organization by dramatically reducing the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the employees who experienced incivility.

Although there are numerous researches that investigated the predicting power of incivility on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention separately; this thesis attempts to analyze the pattern behind the turnover intention of employees linked to experienced incivility by using the concepts of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In addition, the concept of organizational commitment is not analyzed by overall only, but the three components of organizational commitment are also tested in order to identify a more confidential result for the mediating effect of commitment between incivility and turnover intention. Therefore, a comprehensive model that includes workplace incivility,

organizational commitment and its three components, job satisfaction and turnover intention is constructed.

In the following sections, the previous studies about the conceptual relationship between workplace incivility, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention are referred, and the hypotheses are constructed.

3.1. Workplace Incivility as a Predictor of Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

As mentioned in the previous chapters, workplace incivility causes negative affectivity, stress, depression, psychological problems, emotional exhaustion, burnout, withdrawal and organizational injustice perception. Like similar concepts such as workplace aggression, violence, mobbing, bullying etc., workplace incivility is an important source of negative emotions towards organizational and job-related elements. In this chapter the previous findings in the organizational behavior literature about the potential associations between workplace incivility and organization commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention will be explained. On the other hand, the theoretical association between these variables may be proposed through predictors and outcomes of each variable in the model of this study as well. For example, as mentioned previously, some predictors of job satisfaction, revealed by numerous researchers, are interpersonal conflicts, job environment, job stress, supervisor and co-worker support, integration and unpleasant co-worker contact. Since these predictors of job satisfaction are direct or indirect outcomes of workplace incivility, a connection between workplace incivility and job satisfaction may be constructed through negative emotions resulted by interpersonal relations. Since job satisfaction is the perception of the job environment with its all elements such as the content of the job, the co-workers, supervisors, customers etc., interpersonal conflicts may directly affect the perception of job environment negatively. As a second example, turnover intention has also emotional predictors such as job stress, supervisory experience emotional exhaustion and interpersonal conflicts. Therefore, a connection between workplace incivility and turnover intention through emotions related to interpersonal relations can be

constructed also. Since the affective and normative components of organizational commitment also related to emotions and affection, a similar association can be constructed between organizational commitment and workplace incivility as well.

In addition to emotion-based associations, the organizational behavior literature has various indications about the predicting power of workplace incivility on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention. Some of the researches focus on similar terms to incivility such as workplace aggression, mobbing, bullying, harassment etc., and some others have direct indications for the predicting power of workplace incivility. Firstly, various researchers indicated that workplace incivility positively predicts turnover intentions (Robinson & Kelly, 1998; Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005; Bartlett et al., 2008; Laschinger et al., 2009; Cortina et al., 2011; Rahim and Cosby, 2013; Sharma, 2016) and negatively predicts organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Cortina et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Caza & Cortina, 2007; Bartlett et al., 2008; Laschinger et al., 2009; Miner-Rubino & Reed, 2010; Cortina et al., 2011; Hershcovis, 2011; Smith et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2018) and job satisfaction (Keashly et al., 1994; Robinson & Kelly, 1998; Cortina et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005; Caza & Cortina, 2007; Bartlett et al., 2008; Laschinger et al., 2009; Cortina et al., 2011; Bunk & Magley, 2013; Sharma, 2016).

Miner & Settles (2012) indicated that workplace incivility decreased both life and job satisfaction while increasing job stress and depression. Miner et al. (2012) also proved that incivility was positively related to job stress and negatively related to job satisfaction. Similarly, in their research, Penney & Spector (2005) found that all job stressors including workplace incivility were negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Naturally as mentioned before, the relationship between job satisfaction and incivility was reciprocal. Workplace incivility created job dissatisfaction as job dissatisfaction may be resulted as turnover intention or other counterproductive work behaviors, including incivility too.

There are various scholars who have found significant relationship between job satisfaction and incivility through emotion or stress-related mediator variables. Bunk

& Magley (2013) pointed out that there was a meaningful relationship between incivility and job satisfaction, mediated by emotional reactions. In addition, Miner-Rubino & Reed (2010) claimed that organizational trust mediated the relationship between workgroup incivility and job satisfaction. Laschinger et al. (2014) solely focused on co-worker incivility and remarked that experienced incivility from co-workers predicted job satisfaction significantly through emotional exhaustion. In their research focusing on the responses of university students to incivility, Caza & Cortina (2007) indicated that incivility affected institutional satisfaction through perceived injustice and perceived ostracism which ultimately resulted as disengagement and low performance. Keashly et al. (1994) claimed that interpersonal relations in an organization was related to job satisfaction by proving that abusive behaviors and mistreatment cause job dissatisfaction. They added that the relationship between satisfaction and incivility can occur if the targeted employee perceives the misbehavior.

Andersson & Pearson (1999) stated that workplace incivility caused lower productivity, higher aggressiveness and turnover intention in an organization. In addition, if the organization tolerates workplace incivility, the uncivil behavior will be adopted by other employees who have not shown uncivil behavior before, and this will lead to greater levels of turnover intention.

Various researches focused on the influence of incivility on job satisfaction and turnover intention at the same time. In his research, Sharma (2016) found out that incivility is related to turnover intention and job satisfaction by emphasizing that 30% of the variations in turnover intention and job satisfaction are directly resulted by incivility. Robinson & Kelly (1998) indicated that employees who were engaged in less antisocial work behaviors had lower turnover intention and higher satisfaction with co-workers.

Incivility, in fact, is not only a significant predictor of satisfaction and turnover, but also a strong one. Herscovis (2011) remarked that incivility predicts job satisfaction significantly stronger than interpersonal conflict and predicted turnover intention significantly stronger than bullying and interpersonal conflicts.

A study by Frone (2000) focusing on the personal and organizational outcomes of interpersonal conflict revealed that although there were positive relations between interpersonal conflict with supervisor and turnover intention, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, it was not also correct for the case of interpersonal conflict with co-workers. The results showed that organizational commitment was the strongest outcome of interpersonal conflict, followed by job satisfaction and turnover intentions, respectively.

In her research focusing on the mediating effect of interactional justice between incivility and intention to remain, Griffin (2010) revealed that both individual and environmental levels of incivility significantly predicted intention to remain that is the opposite behavior of turnover intention. Interactional justice climate was important in organizational incivility. However, for individual's experience of incivility, climate had no mediating effect since employees blame organization less in individualistic cases.

Cortina et al. (2011) found out that experienced incivility is positively related to turnover intention, and women who experienced incivility had higher turnover intention rates than men. Rahim and Cosby (2013) also declared a positive significant relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention through job burnout, in their research which has been applied to employed undergraduate students in United States.

Laschinger et al. (2009) also analyzed workplace incivility in two forms, co-worker and supervisor incivility. According to the results of their research, both forms were significant predictors of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. Job satisfaction had the strongest correlation with workplace incivility and satisfaction was followed by turnover intention and organizational commitment, respectively. The effect of supervisor incivility on job satisfaction was stronger than the effect of co-worker incivility on job satisfaction. But for the case of organizational commitment, the effect of co-worker incivility was slightly stronger than supervisor incivility. On the other hand, only supervisor incivility was significantly related to turnover intention where the beta coefficient of co-worker incivility was very small

and nonsignificant. Laschinger et al. explained the results by the nature of the incivility. It is natural that co-worker incivility has smaller effect on turnover intention and job satisfaction since an employee has little control over supervisor behavior which will be resulted as an experience of power imbalance and unfair climate for the employee. On the other hand, both co-worker and supervisor incivility strongly predicted organizational commitment since interpersonal relations and work friends are important factors for the attachment to the organization.

Leiter & Maslach (1988) indicated that there was a negative relation between unpleasant co-worker/supervisor contact and organizational commitment, yet the correlation of co-worker contact was weak. The research results showed that unpleasant co-worker contact indirectly and negatively affected organizational commitment through emotional exhaustion and unpleasant supervisor contact directly affects organizational commitment.

In their meta-analytic research, Yang et al (2014) studied the possible outcomes of workplace mistreatment climate which includes incivility, aggression and bullying. The positive psychological mistreatment climate means the employees' awareness of organizational resources which help managing mistreatment such as management support, policies and procedures. The research results showed that there was a significant positive correlation between positive psychological mistreatment and mistreatment reduction motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychological mistreatment also affected emotional strain and turnover intention negatively and significantly.

It is mentioned before that, due to the technological developments, interpersonal communication has shown substantial changes that cyber incivility through digital technologies have become widespread in addition to traditional face-to-face incivility. In their study focusing on cyber incivility, Lim & Teo (2009) proved that there is no significant structural difference between traditional or cyber incivility by revealing that cyber incivility is negatively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment and positively associated with turnover intention.

To sum up, the following hypotheses are proposed:

***Hypothesis 1:** Workplace incivility is positively related to turnover intention.*

***Hypothesis 2:** Workplace incivility is negatively related to organizational commitment.*

***Hypothesis 3:** Workplace incivility is negatively related to job satisfaction.*

In literature, there are few studies focusing on the relationship between incivility and all forms of organizational commitment. Yet, it can be expected that incivility is a predictor of affective commitment which is a form of commitment based on emotional attachment and identification. Since it is mentioned previously that workplace incivility is negatively associated with the employee's affection to organization, citizenship behavior and justice perception; and causes stress, burnout and emotional exhaustion, it is expected that affective commitment may be the strongest form of commitment affected by incivility.

Smith et al. (2010) found out that lower levels of workplace incivility, either came from supervisors or co-workers, resulted as higher levels of affective commitment. They found out both supervisor and co-worker incivility are related to affective commitment; however, only the relationship between co-worker and affective commitment is significant. They explain the reason of these results as, since they use newly graduate students as the survey attendants, logical to be more sensitive towards co-worker incivility since new employees need more co-workers support to keep pace with the newly exposed working environment.

Hershcovis (2011) indicated that workplace incivility is a significant predictor of affective commitment. This relationship is highly stronger than the correlation between incivility and abusive supervision and slightly better than the correlation between incivility and interpersonal conflicts.

In their study, Taylor et al. (2012) revealed that workplace incivility was a significant predictor of affective commitment, and affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and citizenship performance. Similarly, Liu

et al. (2018) remarked that there is a negative relationship between workplace incivility and affective commitment, and affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and organizational citizenship behavior through burnout.

Even if affective and normative commitment do not fully overlap each other (Meyer et al., 2002), there is a considerable correlation between them (Jaros et al., 1993; Allen & Meyer, 1996). Surely, the possibility of the situations where affective and normative commitment not correlating is low. Weak correlation occurs when an employee has an obligation to stay at the organization because of morality without having a high affectivity towards the organization, or vice versa.

Like affective commitment, normative commitment may also be affected by experienced incivility. Since normative commitment involves socialization, fair workplace climate, loyalty, feeling of gratitude and integration, it can be expected that workplace incivility may be negatively associated with normative commitment through negatively influencing those variables. Yet the strength of relationship between incivility and normative commitment is expected to be weaker than the relationship between incivility and affective commitment since affective commitment is the component that has the highest relation with affectivity and emotions.

Meyer et al. (2002) indicated that affective commitment is the strongest organizational commitment form that is affected by work experiences, followed by normative commitment. On the other hand, continuance commitment is more related to the availability of alternatives and investments made to the current organization.

While affective commitment and normative commitment are more emotion-based forms, continuance commitment is highly about personal benefits. While affective commitment is related to emotional attachment and normative commitment is related to moral obligation, continuance commitment is related to the evaluation of costs of leaving the current organization and benefits of the current organization versus the alternative ones. On the other hand, a weak association between workplace incivility and continuance commitment may be proposed through the evaluation of the mental

and physical costs resulted by experienced incivility. As mentioned previously, workplace incivility causes psychological and even physical problems related to stress, emotional exhaustion and burnout. Since continuance commitment involves the evaluation of benefits and losses continuing the membership of the organization, employees may take the health problems resulted by the experienced incivility in the organization into consideration for the evaluation process. Thus, a negative association between workplace incivility and continuance commitment may be expected, but this relationship will be weaker than affective and normative commitment.

Thus, in addition the following sub-hypotheses are proposed:

***Hypothesis 2a:** Workplace incivility is negatively related to affective commitment.*

***Hypothesis 2b:** Workplace incivility is negatively related to normative commitment.*

***Hypothesis 2c:** Workplace incivility is negatively related to continuance commitment.*

3.2. Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction as Predictors of Turnover Intention

Before the term of turnover intention has been used in literature, a negative relationship between actual turnover and organizational commitment was studied frequently. In their three-component model of organizational commitment, Meyer & Allen (1991) proposed that all three components of commitment and Porter & Steers (1973) mentioned that job satisfaction are significant predictors of turnover. Porter et al. (1974) found a negative relationship between turnover and both organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Porter et al. also found a correlation between commitment and satisfaction. In their meta-analysis, Cotton & Tuttle (1986) proposed that both organizational commitment and job satisfaction strongly correlated with turnover. Griffeth et al. (2000) indicated that although job satisfaction and organizational commitment predicted turnover negatively, the correlation of commitment is stronger.

Numerous researchers have constructed turnover models including the predicting effects of organizational commitment and/or job satisfaction to turnover intention. Mobley et al. (1979) constructed an employee turnover model which individual values, expected utility of the current job, expected utility of alternative jobs and job satisfaction were the main predictors of turnover intention. In their turnover model, Williams & Hazer (1986) proposed that both organizational commitment and job satisfaction affected turnover intention which leads to turnover. They claimed that organizational commitment is a significant mediator between job satisfaction and turnover intention which means the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention is indirect and through organizational commitment. It was also added that organizational commitment is a stronger predictor of turnover intention than job satisfaction. At their model, Johnston et al. (1990) also proposed that job satisfaction indirectly affected turnover intention since organizational commitment mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. According to the study, organizational commitment was a significant predictor of turnover intention which in turn related to actual turnover. In addition, results showed that job satisfaction was one of the strongest predictors of organizational commitment. Shaw (1999) pointed out that there is a strong negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Moreover, the relationship is stronger when employees are in high positive affectivity.

While Reed et al. (1994) accepted job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of turnover intention, they also stated that satisfaction and commitment do not only affect turnover intention, but also they have mutual impact on each other. Thus, in their model, there was a positive relationship between commitment and job satisfaction which increased the influence of both variables on turnover intention.

In their research, Mathieu & Zajac (1990) revealed that there was a significant and negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. Although actual turnover, lateness, attendance (positively) and job performance (positively) were also related to organizational commitment, turnover intention had the strongest correlation. They also showed that job satisfaction had an indirect relationship with turnover intention through organizational commitment as well.

Tett and Meyer (1993) argued that both organizational commitment and job satisfaction directly influences turnover intention, and turnover intention is the most powerful predictor of the behavior of quitting job. They claimed that there was a stronger relation between satisfaction and turnover intention than the relation between commitment and turnover intention. On the other hand, for the case of actual turnover, the case was opposite since the relation between commitment and actual turnover was stronger than the relation between satisfaction and actual turnover. In addition, turnover intention mediates the relationship between turnover and job satisfaction. Therefore, the correlation between intention to leave and job satisfaction is expected to be stronger than the correlation between actual turnover and job satisfaction

According to Steers & Mowday's (1981) model, affective responses to job which are job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement are direct predictors of turnover intention and these relationships are moderated by non-work influences. Rutherford et al. (2009) proposed that organizational commitment and job satisfaction with all subgroups are predicted by emotional exhaustion and both predict turnover intention, significantly.

Some researches claimed that job satisfaction mediates the relation between turnover intention and the outcomes that will cause turnover intention. For example, Liu et al. (2010) indicated that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between turnover intention and person-organization fit. In their research, Zagladi et al. (2005) remarked that job satisfaction is a significant negative predictor of turnover intention and mediates the relationship between organizational justice and turnover intention.

On the other hand, although some researchers did not conceptually combined organizational commitment and job satisfaction in their studies, the significant predicting ability of commitment and satisfaction for turnover intention. Angel & Perry (1981) revealed that organizational commitment is a significant predictor of turnover intention and other withdrawal behavior such as tardiness, but not absenteeism. In their study, Chen & Spector (1991) indicated that job satisfaction and anger were the strongest predictors of turnover intention among other strain variables such as role ambiguity, role conflict, work load and negative affectivity. Loi (2006)

showed that organizational commitment was negatively related to turnover intention and it had a mediating role between perceived organizational support and turnover intention. Cole et al. (2010) indicated that organizational commitment was a strong predictor of turnover intention and significantly mediated the relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions.

Although all commitment components are related to turnover or turnover intention, researchers mostly focused on affective commitment since affective commitment is the most important commitment component for managements. Continuance commitment is calculative and increases or decreases with the existence of benefits and damages of current job and alternatives. On the other hand, affective commitment and slightly the normative commitment involves emotions and it is more possible for management to improve these components with wise actions.

Meyer et al. (2002) indicated that all components of organizational commitment were strong predictors of turnover. Affective commitment had the strongest correlation, followed by normative commitment. Continuance commitment had the weakest correlation. The results were the same for the predicting power of the components of organization commitment for withdrawal behaviors. In addition, for the case of absenteeism, affective commitment was the only one significantly correlated. For organizational citizenship behavior, while affective and normative commitments were related to positively, continuance were not related as getting a zero-beta coefficient. Similarly, Allen & Meyer (1996) indicated that affective and normative commitment are significantly related to turnover intention. Affective commitment had the strongest correlation, following by normative commitment. On the other hand, the relation between continuance commitment and turnover intention was relatively weaker than other two components of organizational commitment. Likewise, in his research, Somers (1995) pointed out that affective commitment was the only commitment component that significantly predicted turnover and while both affective and normative commitment predicted intent to remain which is the opposite term of turnover intention significantly, continuance commitment did not.

On the contrary, a study by Jaros et al. (1993) revealed that affective, continuance and normative commitment moderately to strongly affected withdrawal variables and indirectly affected turnover intention and actual turnover through withdrawal behaviors. They noted that continuance commitment was the only one which significantly correlated with actual turnover.

In their study, Carmeli & Weisberg (2006) pointed out that affective commitment, job satisfaction and job performance significantly predicted turnover intention. Carmeli & Weisberg separated job satisfaction into two forms; intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Extrinsic job satisfaction involves monetary rewards, job security and other monetary benefits while intrinsic job satisfaction is related to routine, job complexity, task identity and job autonomy. The results showed that intrinsic job satisfaction was the strongest predictor of turnover intention, followed by affective commitment, extrinsic job satisfaction and job performance, respectively. On the contrary, Jenkins (1993) revealed that while both affective commitment and job satisfaction were correlated with turnover intention, affective commitment had the strongest relation.

Addae et al. (2006) found out a significant and negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention. In addition, they remarked that psychological contract breach moderates the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention. The feeling that employers fail to fulfill the promised obligations affects employees with higher affective commitment more than employees with lower commitment and causes higher intention to quit. The reason is that more loyal and attached employees have stronger disappointment.

Herewith, as numerous studies indicate that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are significant predictors of turnover intention, following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Organizational commitment is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4a: Affective commitment is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4b: Normative commitment is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4c: Continuance commitment is negatively related to turnover intention.

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention.

3.3. Mediating Roles of Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Since organizational commitment and job satisfaction are closely linked to workplace incivility and turnover intention, the mediation effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction between workplace incivility and turnover intention can be proposed. The organizational behavior literature has some similar researches about the mediation abilities of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Some of these researches directly focused on workplace incivility, while some of them examined concepts related to incivility.

Cortina et al. (2001) mentioned that frequently experienced workplace incivility might increase job withdrawal and turnover intentions and might reduce job satisfaction. They also proposed that when the frequency of workplace incivility increases, the targeted employee's job satisfaction decreases, and job stress rises, and further situations are resulted as turnover.

Lambert et al. (2001) stated that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between turnover intention and work environmental factors. Even though these factors cannot explain incivility, they may be affected by incivility since these factors has been described with five dimensions such as role conflict, task variety, financial rewards, relations with co-workers and autonomy. The dimension of relations with co-workers can be associated with workplace incivility.

In their research, Parker & Kohlmeyer (2005) remarked that organizational commitment acted as a mediator in the relationship between perceived discrimination and turnover. The direct effect of discrimination on turnover was not significant while the indirect effect through commitment was. They also showed that organizational

commitment partially mediated the relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction. Research results indicated that both job satisfaction and organization commitment predicted turnover intention directly while job satisfaction also affected turnover intention through organizational commitment.

The conceptual model of Dion (2006) proposed that job satisfaction might mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Dion also mentioned that stress affected all those three variables and was affected by workplace incivility as well. Based on the research, Dion proposed another model in which job satisfaction was also predicted by turnover intention and stress, indirectly.

According to Bowling & Hammond (2008), interpersonal conflict affects job satisfaction negatively, and job satisfaction decreases turnover intentions which signals a possible mediation effect of job satisfaction between interpersonal conflicts and turnover intentions.

In their proposed model, Miner-Rubino & Cortina (2007) claimed that job satisfaction predicts turnover intention, affective commitment and job burnout while job satisfaction is affected by observed hostility. The research results showed that job satisfaction significantly mediated the relationship between observed hostility and turnover intention, and affective commitment mediated the relationship between turnover intention and observed hostility indirectly through job satisfaction.

The results of the testing of the theoretical model of the impact of workplace incivility by Lim et al. (2008) prove that incivility causes employee mental health problems, turnover intention and lower job satisfaction. Lim et al. (2008) divided incivility concept into two pieces; personal experiences of incivility and workgroup incivility. Personal experiences of incivility strongly and negatively affected job satisfaction, and turnover intention directly and also through job satisfaction. On the other hand, workgroup incivility affected turnover intention only indirectly through job satisfaction. In other words, the relationship between turnover intention and workgroup incivility was fully mediated and the relationship between turnover intention and personal experiences of incivility was partially mediated by job

satisfaction. Lim et al. also indicated that the incivility coming from supervisors more significantly affected the turnover intention than the incivility came from co-workers. Test results showed that work satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction were more highly related to turnover intention than co-worker satisfaction. Although supervisor, work and job satisfaction significantly and negatively predicted turnover intention, co-worker satisfaction did not. Incivility coming from a supervisor is a more unsolvable issue for employees since employees can reciprocate, ignore, avoid or complain the co-workers but not supervisors.

In their research, Miner- Rubino & Redd (2010) indicated that there were significant relationships between incivility and work outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention and job burnout, and organizational trust significantly mediated these relationships. In the study, higher incivility predicted lower organizational trust and in turn, lower trust predicted decreased job satisfaction and increased turnover intention and burnout.

Past researchers proposed mediation links by organizational commitment and job satisfaction between turnover intention and various antisocial behaviors such as relations with co-workers, perceived discrimination, observed hostility and burnout which conceptually overlaps incivility in some aspects. In addition, there are numerous studies indicating the predicting power of incivility on organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and effects of these two variables on turnover intention.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

Hypothesis 7: Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

Hypothesis 7a: Affective commitment mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

Hypothesis 7b: Normative commitment mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

Hypothesis 7c: Continuance commitment mediates the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention.

In conclusion, a summary of the hypothesized relationships is present in Figure 2:

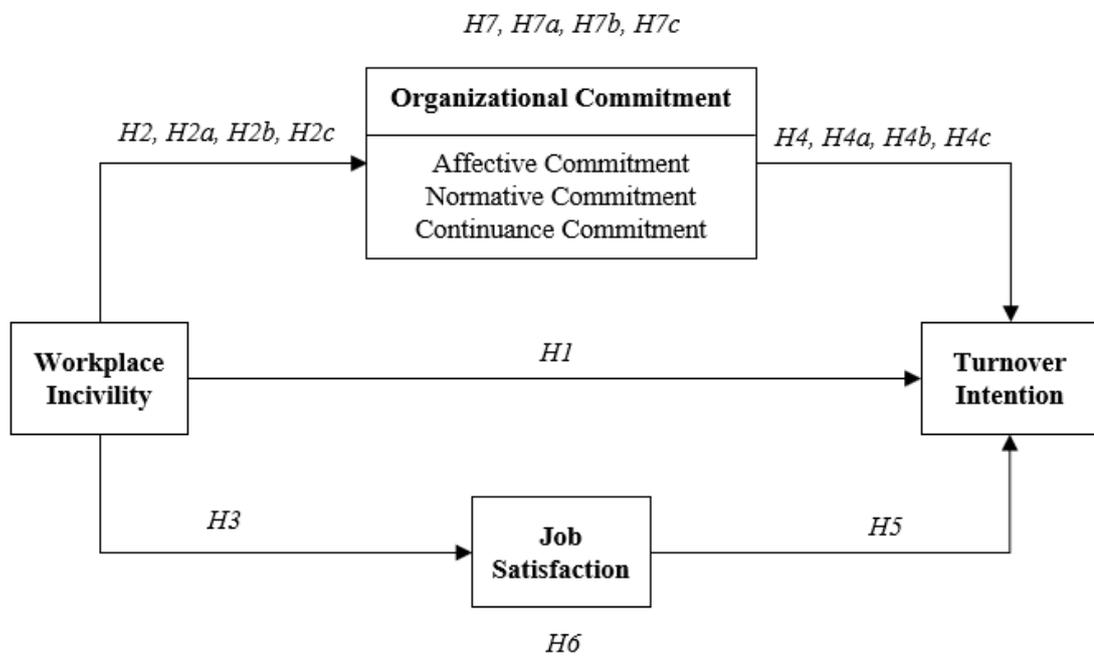


Figure 2: The Proposed Model

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Sampling and Data Collection Procedures

This study was applied to white-collar public servants who work in a specific public institution in Ankara. A total of 350 questionnaire forms were distributed to the employees and 272 of them were collected. After the evaluation of the forms, 18 of them which were not filled completely, were removed. As final, 254 of the questionnaire forms were used for the analysis. All forms were distributed face-to-face and were collected by the author himself after a week from the distribution of the forms. In order to be sure, the reflection ability of the sample for the universe, forms were distributed to the different departments of the public institute, proportional with the white-collar employee population.

Data was collected through paper - pencil questionnaire forms and personal information of the employees such as name, surname, department and income were not asked since public servants may abstain from criticizing their organization. In addition, no web-based questionnaires were used in order to reduce the number of forms which are filled sloppy. The questionnaire forms were in Turkish language.

In this study, it was attempted to analyze the relationship between turnover intention, workplace incivility, organizational commitment and job satisfaction in a specific public institute of Turkey. Therefore, the questionnaire form consists of 5 modules. First module is to analyze the demographics of the respondents. Age, tenure (years of service), gender, marital status, education level and graduated major field were asked to the respondents. According to the literature view, it was expected that these demographic variables have some relations with the variables of the model. Other

modules include the workplace incivility, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention scales, respectively.

4.2. Sample Demographics

The subject of this study were white-collar employees from a specific public institution in Ankara. Age, gender, marital status, education level, tenure (years of service) and university graduate field were collected from the respondents.

The demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1. The results indicated that 53.5% of the respondents were male, 46.5% of the respondents were female, 60.2% of the respondents were married and 39.8% of the respondents were single. For the educational level of the respondents, it can be clearly seen that %68.9 of them have a bachelor's degree, 24% of them have a master's degree, 39% of them have a high school degree and 3.1% of them have a doctoral degree.

Table 1. Percent Distribution of the respondents' Gender, Marital Status and Educational Level

	Frequency	Valid Percent %
Gender		
Female	118	46.5
Male	136	53.5
Total	254	100
Marital Status		
Married	153	60.2
Single	101	39.8
Total	254	100
Educational Level		
High School Degree	10	3.9
Bachelor's Degree	175	68.9
Master's Degree	61	24.0
Doctoral Degree	8	3.1
Total	254	100

Table 2 shows the age distribution of the respondents. As indicated, 49.2% of the respondents have age between 25 and 35, 31.9% of them are in between 36 and 45, 15% of them are in between 46 and 55 and only 3.9% of them are in between 56 and 65. When Table 2 is considered, it can be interpreted as nearly 50% of the respondents are relatively young.

Table 2. The Age Distribution of the Respondents

Age Distribution	Frequency	Valid Percent %
25-35	125	49,2
36-45	81	31,9
46-55	38	15
56-65	10	3,9
Total	254	100

Respondents were asked to state the years of services at the current public institution between 1-10 years to 41-50 years. Results in Table 3 show that 59.8% of them had 1 to 10 years of service. 22.4% of them have 11 to 21 years of service and 13% of them have 21 to 30 years of service.

Table 3. Distribution of the Respondents' Years of Service

Tenure	Frequency	Valid Percent %
1-10	152	59,8
11-21	57	22,4
21-30	33	13
31-40	10	3,9
41-50	2	0,8
Total	254	100

4.3. Measurement Tools

4.3.1. Workplace Incivility Scale

The scale of experienced workplace incivility of the employees was assessed by Cortina et al. (2001) and adapted to Turkish by Kaya (2015) which can be seen in Appendix B. This scale is a 7-item questionnaire rated on 5-point Likert type scale with ratings 1 = “never” to 5 = “most of the time”. Ratings are the frequency of occurring of the uncivil behaviors in past 5 years. This scale measures the experienced workplace incivility instigated by both supervisors and co-workers. Cronbach’s Alpha was found to be 0.86 for this scale in this study which indicates that the scale is highly reliable. A sample item for this scale is “*Have you been in a situation where any of your supervisor or co-workers addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately*”. The average of the seven items were calculated with equal weight to determine the experienced workplace incivility score.

4.3.2. Job Satisfaction Scale

Job satisfaction of the focused group was measured by using the Job Satisfaction Subscale which was assessed the variables identified by Job Characteristics Model by Hackman & Oldham (1975) and adapted to Turkish by Bilgic (1999). This 3-item scale is based on 5-point Likert type rating with 1= “never” to 5= “always”. Cronbach’s Alpha was found to be 0.89 for job satisfaction scale in this study. A sample item for job satisfaction scale is “*I am satisfied with my job*”. The score of each item are summed and the average of overall score was taken with equal weight to calculate the job satisfaction score. The Turkish adaptation of the scale can be seen in Appendix C.

4.3.3. Organizational Commitment Scale

The scale used in this study to measure the overall organizational commitment and its components was developed by Meyer & Allen (1991). The scale originally had 24

items but later the number of items decreased to 18 that each components of organizational commitment has 6 items to be measured. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was translated by Wasti (1999). This is a 5-point Likert rated questionnaire with 1= “*strongly disagree*” to 5= “*strongly agree*”, can be seen in Appendix D. The average of the eighteen items were calculated with equal weight in order to determine the organizational commitment and each component distinctly calculated with the items that covers. On the other hand, #2, #5, #6 and #10 were reverse scored items, therefore these items were reverse coded for the analysis.

This scale measures the three distinct components of overall organizational commitment, which are affective, normative and continuance commitment:

Affective commitment was measured by items #1 to #6. The Cronbach’s Alpha value of affective commitment is 0.85. A sample item for affective commitment is “*I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization*”.

Normative commitment was measured by items #7 to #12. The Cronbach’s Alpha value of normative commitment is 0.82. A sample item for normative commitment is “*I would feel guilty if I left this organization now*”.

Continuance commitment was measured by items #13 to #18. On the other hand, since the Cronbach’s alpha value of normative commitment was not high enough to indicate internal consistency reliability of the scale, items #13, #17 and #18 were removed from the scale. After the deduction, the scale have three items now which are #14, #15 and #16 and Cronbach’s Alpha value is 0.61 which indicates reability. A sample item for continuance commitment is “*One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice*”.

4.3.4. Turnover Intention Scale

The scale of turnover intention was developed by Mobley et al. (1978) and adapted to Turkish by Örucü & Özafşarlıoğlu (2013) which can be seen in Appendix E. It is a 3-item questionnaire rated on 5-point Likert scale with 1= “*strongly disagree*” to 5=

“strongly agree”. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was found to be 0.79 for this study. A sample item for job satisfaction scale is *“I often think about quitting my present job”*. The average of the three items were calculated with equal weight in order to determine the turnover intention of the respondent.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This chapter describes the results of the data screening, analyses of sample demographics, descriptive statistics, evaluation of reliability and the validity of the scales, and finally tests of the hypotheses. To examine the direct relationships between study variables, simple regression and to analyze the mediation effects of the selected variables, PROCESS module which measures the total direct and indirect effects among variables of the model were used.

5.1. Data Screening

As described in the Chapter IV, the questionnaire forms were distributed to the employees directly by the author in paper and pencil format. No online platforms used for data collection in order to reduce the quantity of deficient or sloppy forms and to provide a more confident platform to the employees who may be skeptical about the possibility of registration of the respondent's IP identity through online platform.

A total of 300 forms were distributed to the employees and 272 of them were collected. 18 forms which are deficient or clearly sloppy were detected and eliminated from the total quantity. After all, a total of 254 forms were used for the analyses.

5.2. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the several variables taken in this study are shown at Table 4. The mean age of the respondents is 37.44 and the standard deviation is 8.94; the

mean years of service of the respondents is 11.30 and the standard deviation is 9.21. For the test of the model of the study the variables were coded as WI, jsatis, affectcom, normcom, contiuancom, turnint and com total. These codes are; *WI* for “Workplace Incivility”, *jsatis* for “Job Satisfaction”, *affectcom* for “Affective Commitment”, *normcom* for “Normative commitment”, *continuancom* for “Continuance Commitment”, *turnint* for “Turnover Intention” and *comtotal* for “Overall Organizational Commitment”. The means and standard deviations of these variables can be seen in Table 4 as well.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Age, Years of Service and Variables of the Proposed Model

	Age	Tenure	WI	JS	AC	NC	CC	TI	OC
Range	38	44	3.57	4	4	4	4	4	3.61
Minimum	25	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1.17
Maximum	63	45	4.57	5	5	5	5	5	4.78
Mean	37.44	11.30	1.66	2.94	2.83	2.69	2.95	2.43	2.83
Std. Deviation	8.94	9.21	.59	1.09	.91	.87	.84	.98	.63
Variance	79.85	84.86	.35	1.19	.83	.75	.70	.96	.40
Skewness	.89	1.23	1.36	.06	-.08	.20	-.01	.60	.01
<i>Std. Error</i>	.15	.15	.15	.15	.15	.15	.15	.15	.15
Kurtosis	.06	1.03	2.58	-1.01	-.41	-.10	-.18	-.13	.53
<i>Std. Error</i>	.30	.30	.30	.30	.30	.30	.30	.30	.30

Note: *WI*: Workplace Incivility, *JS*: Job Satisfaction, *AC*: Affective Commitment, *NC*: Normative Commitment, *CC*: Continuance Commitment, *TI*: Turnover Intention, *OC*: Organizational (Overall) Commitment

The skewness and kurtosis values give detailed information about normal univariate distribution. The values of skewness and kurtosis should be between -1.96 and +1.96 (George & Mallery, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2014). In addition, for kurtosis values between -3 and +3 are also acceptable values to probe normal univariate distribution. Since all skewness and kurtosis values of the variables in Table 4 are in between -1.96 and +1.96 except workplace incivility and its kurtosis value is still below +3, it can be assumed that the data distributed normally.

5.3. The Reliability and Validity of the Scales

For the next step, the reliability and validity of the scales were measured. There are several criteria the reliability and validity of a scale. Firstly, Cronbach's Alpha level is used for measuring reliability. Theoretically, this level is in between zero and one. Several authors indicated various levels for reliability but in general, 0.60 reliability level can be evaluated as acceptable, 0.70 reliability level can be evaluated as adequate and 0.80 and higher level of reliability can be evaluated as a good scale (Garson, 2013).

Table 5. Internal Consistency Reliability of the Scales Used

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Workplace Incivility	0.862	7
Job Satisfaction	0.892	3
Affective Commitment	0.856	6
Normative Commitment	0.824	6
Continuance Commitment (#14, #15, #16)	0.614	3
Turnover Intention	0.791	3

As seen in Table 5, the reliability level of Workplace Incivility, Job Satisfaction, Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment variables can be evaluated as “good scale” since their level of reliabilities are greater than 0.80 and the reliability levels of Turnover Intention can be accepted as “adequate” since their Cronbach's Alpha values are between 0.7 and 0.8.

On the other hand, the initial Cronbach's Alpha value of continuance commitment was 0.465 which can be seen in Table 6. As presented in Appendix F, firstly the item #13 of the organizational commitment scale, which is the first item of continuance commitment component part, was removed. Yet, the new Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.507 was not acceptable. Therefore, item #17 was removed and reliability value rised to 0.558. As final, item #18 were also deleted to reach the acceptable value of 0.614.

Table 6. Reliability Statistics of Continuance Commitment Component Scale

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.465	6
0.507	5
0.558	4

Therefore, as final, 3 items were excluded from continuance commitment to raise the level of reliability. When 3 items were excluded from this scale the level of reliability of the scale was raised to 0.614 and considered to be “*acceptable*”. Further analyses are made with continuance commitment variable consisting three items.

Table 7. Indices of Models for Testing Validity

Measure	Model1	Model2	Model3	Generally Accepted Threshold
Chi-Square/df (cmin/df)	1.78	1.76	1.71	< 3.0
CFI	.93	.93	.94	> .90
GFI	.87	.87	.89	> .95
AGFI	.83	.84	.85	> .80
RMR	.08	.08	.08	< .09
RMSEA	.06	.06	.05	< .10
PCLOSE	.11	.15	.28	> .05

For validity of the scales, several models were tested, and confirmatory factor analyses were made. To consider the validity of the scales several measures were taken into consideration as several authors proposed fit indexes for scales to be valid (Schumaker & Lomax, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). These indices are listed in Table 7.

5.4. Determination of Control Variables

In order to identify the potential control variables and their effects of the mediator the dependent variables of this study; age, gender, marital status, tenure and education level were considered as independent variables, and job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment with its all components were considered as dependent variables in the multiple regression equations. The objective of testing the control variables is to indicate whether some of them have significant relationships with the mediator and the dependent variables of this study.

Table 8. Standardized Coefficients of the Control Variables

Beta Coefficients	TI	OC	AC	NC	CC	JS
Age	-.016	.137	.023	.151	.128	-.036
Tenure	-.079	.091	.219	.095	-.129	.236
Gender	.041	-.110	-.045	-.095	-.101	-.010
Marital Status	.000	.083	.085	.076	.016	-.078
Education Level	.163	-.133	-.219	-.131	.072	-.186

Note: Control variables are independent and predicts the dependent variables of the hypotheses

Table 9. Level of Significance of the Control Variables

p-value	TI	OC	AC	NC	CC	JS
Age	.906	.297	.858	.248	.347	.782
Tenure	.547	.479	.086	.461	.335	.065
Gender	.511	.075	.456	.123	.111	.865
Marital Status	.996	.211	.190	.249	.813	.231
Education Level	.010	.032	.000	.034	.258	.003

Table 8 shows that the signs of the coefficients partially overlap the results of correlation analysis and the organizational behavior literature. On the other hand, as presented in Table 9, when turnover intention, overall organizational commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment and job satisfaction were taken as

dependent variables, education level was the only significant control variable ($p=0.10$, 0.032 , 0.000 , 0.034 , $0.003 < 0.05$) for all the mediator and dependent variables of this study, except continuance commitment ($p=0.258 > 0.01$). None of the demographic variables were a significant predictor of continuance commitment.

Table 10. ANOVA of the Regression Model of Control Variables for Turnover Intention

Model	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	10.470	5	2.094	2.225	.052
Residual	233.403	248	.941		
Total	243.873	253			

Note: Control variables are independent and turnover intention is the dependent variable

However, education level is not a significant predictor of overall organizational commitment and normative commitment, where the significant level was taken as 99%. In addition, most importantly, as it can be seen in Table 10, the regression model is not significant ($p=0.052 > 0.05$). Since demographic variables are independent and turnover intention, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are dependent variables. Therefore, in this study, no use of the demographic variables as a control variable is needed.

5.5. Hypothesis Testing

The purpose of this study was to reveal the mediation effects of overall organizational commitment, affective, normative and continuance commitment and job satisfaction on the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Therefore, several models were built to test the hypotheses of the study. In order to present a clear look, R^2 (coefficient of determination) values and the significance of the coefficients were stated in separated tables.

5.5.1. Regression Tests

Hypothesis 1 proposed that workplace incivility is positively related to turnover intention. Simple regression analysis was applied to test this hypothesis. Turnover intention was taken as a dependent and workplace incivility as an independent variable, the regression model is:

$$“(Turnover\ Intention) = 1.919 + 0.308 (Workplace\ Incivility)”$$

Table 11 shows that the model is significant ($F=8.864$, $p<0.01$) and R^2 is 0.034 which means 3.4% of variance in turnover intention can be explained by the variance in workplace incivility. The coefficient of workplace incivility is significant ($\beta=0.308$; $p<0,01$) and indicates a positive effect on turnover intention. Thus, according to the results enough evidence is found to support Hypothesis 1.

Table 11. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 1

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.184	.034	.030	.96688		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	8.287	1	8.287	8.864	.003
Residual	235.586	252	.935		
Total	243.873	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		p
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	
Constant	1.919	.182	.05	10.519	.000
WI	.308	.103	.184	2.977	.003
Predictor: Workplace Incivility (WI), Dependent: Turnover Intention (TI)					

The effect of workforce incivility to organizational commitment variable is tested with regression analysis in Table 12. The results show the model is significant ($F=7.431$, $p<0.01$) and R^2 value of the model is 0.029 which means approximately 3% of variance in organizational commitment can be explained by the effect of workplace incivility. The coefficient of workplace incivility is negative which indicates a negative association with organizational commitment. The regression model is:

$$“(Organizational\ Commitment) = 3.128 - 0.182 (Workplace\ Incivility)”$$

The Workplace incivility has a negative effect on organizational commitment. This means that one unit increase in Workplace Incivility will have a -0.182 times effect on organizational commitment. So, Hypothesis 2 “*Workplace incivility is negatively related to organizational commitment*” is supported.

Table 12. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 2

Model Summary					
	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate	
	.169	.029	.025	.62446	

ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	2.898	1	2.898	7.431	.007
Residual	98.268	252	.390		
Total	101.165	253			

Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	3.128	.118		26.545	.000
WI	-.182	.067	-.169	-2.726	.007

Predictor: Workplace Incivility (WI), Dependent: Organizational Commitment (OC)

The following table is to measure the effect of workplace incivility on affective commitment. This hypothesis is a sub-hypothesis of Hypothesis 2. According to the Table 13, the model is highly significant ($F=12.509$, $p<0.001$) and it has a R^2 level of 0.047 which means nearly 5% of variance in affective commitment can be explained by the variance in workplace incivility. From the coefficients table, regression model is:

$$“(Affective\ Commitment) = 3.393 - 0.337 (Workplace\ incivility)”$$

As seen on regression model, workplace incivility has a negative effect ($\beta = -0.337$; $p < 0.01$) on affective commitment. Therefore, it is concluded that Hypothesis 2a “Workplace incivility is negatively related to affective commitment” is also supported.

Table 13. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 2a

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.217	.047	.044	.89073		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	9.924	1	9.924	12.509	.000
Residual	199.937	252	.793		
Total	209.861	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	3.393	.168		20.187	.000
WI	-.337	.095	-.217	-3.537	.000

Predictor: Workplace Incivility (WI), Dependent: Affective Commitment (AC)

Table 14 shows the results of regression analysis between workplace incivility and normative commitment. The model significant ($F=8.985$, $p<0.01$) with $0.034 R^2$ level that approximately 3% of variance in normative commitment can be explained by the variance in workplace incivility. The coefficient of workplace incivility is negative which indicates a negative association with affective commitment. The regression model of the relation is given as:

$$“(Normative Commitment) = 3.148 - 0.274 (Workplace Incivility)”$$

The regression analysis indicates that workplace incivility has a negative and significant effect ($\beta = -0.274$, $p<0.01$) on normative commitment. Thus, Hypothesis 2b “Workplace is negatively related to normative commitment” is supported.

Table 14. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 2b

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.186	.034	.031	.85463		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	6.563	1	6.563	8.985	.003
Residual	184.057	252	.730		
Total	190.620	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	3.148	.161		19.516	.000
WI	-.274	.091	-.186	-2.998	.003
Predictor: Workplace Incivility (WI), Dependent: Normative Commitment (NC)					

To test Hypothesis 2c, another regression model was built with workplace incivility and continuance commitment. According to Table 15, when workplace incivility is taken as an independent and continuance workplace incivility is taken as a dependent variable, the model is insignificant ($F=0.520$; $p>0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2c is not supported. The workplace incivility doesn't have a significant effect ($\beta =0.065$; $p>0.05$) on continuance commitment.

According to the results of the sub hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, main hypothesis 2 is partially supported. Although the hypothesis 2a and 2b are supported, 2c is not supported, it can be concluded that the effect of workplace incivility on organizational commitment is partially supported.

Table 15. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 2c

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.045	.002	-.002	.83948		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	.366	1	.366	.520	.472
Residual	177.591	252	.705		
Total	177.957	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	2.844	.158		17.950	.000
WI	.065	.090	.045	.721	.472

Predictor: Workplace Incivility (WI), Dependent: Continuance Commitment (CC)

The effect of workplace incivility on job satisfaction is tested in Table 16 with regression analysis. The results showed that the significant regression model ($F=9.394$, $p<0.01$) with 0.036 of R^2 value which means 3.6% of variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the variance in workplace incivility. The regression model is as follows;

$$(\text{Job Satisfaction}) = 3.525 - 0.352 (\text{Workplace Incivility})$$

From the Table 16, the coefficient of workplace is significant ($\beta = -0.532$, $p<0.01$) and have a negative effect on job satisfaction. One unit increase in the workplace incivility decreases job satisfaction by -0.352. Thus, it's concluded that Hypothesis 3 “workplace incivility is negatively related to job satisfaction” is supported.

Table 16. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 3

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.190	.036	.032	1.07322		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	10.820	1	10.820	9.394	.002
Residual	290.254	252	1.152		
Total	301.074	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	3.525	.203		17.405	.000
WI	-.352	.115	-.190	-3.065	.002
Predictor: Workplace Incivility (WI), Dependent: Job Satisfaction (JS)					

Another regression model was built to test Hypothesis 4. It was expected that organizational commitment is negatively related to turnover intention. This is a highly significant model ($F=159.148$, $p<0,01$) with $0.387 R^2$ level, which means 39% of variance in turnover intention can be explained by the variance in overall organizational commitment, is shown below proves the claim is correct. The regression model is:

$$“(Turnover\ intention) = 5.161 - 0.966 (Organizational\ Commitment)”$$

As seen from Table 17, the coefficient of Organizational Commitment is significant ($\beta = - 0.966$, $p<0.01$) and has a negative effect on turnover intention. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Table 17. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 4

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.622	.387	.385	.77016		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	94.399	1	94.399	159.148	.000
Residual	149.474	252	.593		
Total	243.873	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	5.161	.222		23.282	.000
OC	-.966	.077	-.622	-12.615	.000
Predictor: Organizational Commitment (OC), Dependent: Turnover Intention (TI)					

In Table 18, the effect of affective commitment on turnover intention was investigated. The model is highly significant ($F=140.565$, $p<0.01$) with a 0.358 level of R^2 . Thus, nearly 36% of variance in turnover intention can be explained by the effect of affective commitment. The coefficient of affective commitment is negative which indicates a negative association with turnover intention. The regression model of the relation is given as:

$$“(Turnover\ intention) = 4.259 - 0.645 (Affective\ commitment)”$$

Again, it can be clearly seen that the coefficient of affective commitment is significant ($\beta = -0.645$, $p<0.01$) and has a negative effect on turnover intention. Thus, the hypothesis about the effect of affective commitment to turnover intention is supported.

Table 18. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 4a

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.598	.358	.356	.78818		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	87.323	1	87.323	140.565	.000
Residual	156.550	252	.621		
Total	243.873	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	4.259	.162		26.313	.000
AC	-.645	.054	-.598	-11.856	.000
Predictor: Affective Commitment (AC), Dependent: Turnover Intention (TI)					

The following table, Table 19 shows the regression results for the effect of normative commitment to turnover intention. The regression model is highly significant ($F=94.687$, $p<0.01$) with R^2 level of 0.273 which indicates that 27% of variance in turnover intention can be explained by the effect of normative commitment. The model is shown below as:

$$(\text{Turnover intention}) = 4.023 - 0.591 (\text{Normative Commitment})$$

From the regression analysis, the coefficient of normative commitment is significant ($\beta = 4.023$, $p < 0.01$) and has a negative effect on turnover intention. It can be interpreted that, as normative commitment increases, it will have a negative effect on turnover intention. Thus, it is concluded that Hypothesis 4c “Normative commitment is negatively related to turnover intention” is supported.

Table 19. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 4b

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.523	.273	.270	.83871		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	66.607	1	66.607	94.687	.000
Residual	177.266	252	.703		
Total	243.873	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		p
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
Constant	4.023	.172		23.420	.000
NC	-.591	.061	-.523	-9.731	.000
Predictor: Normative Commitment (AC), Dependent: Turnover Intention (TI)					

Table 20 shows the regression analysis for the effect of continuance commitment on turnover intention. As seen from the table, the model is significant ($F=12.403$, $p<0.01$) and the coefficient for independent variable, continuance commitment, is also significant ($\beta = -0.254$, $p<0,01$). R^2 level for the model is 0.047 which means 4,7% of variance in turnover intention can be explained by the variance in continuance commitment. The coefficient of normative commitment is negative which indicates a negative relationship with turnover intention. The regression model of the relation is:

$$(\text{Turnover Intention}) = 3.180 - 0.254 (\text{Continuance Commitment})$$

Since, the results of the regression analysis shows that continuance commitment has a negative effect on turnover intention Hypothesis 4c is supported. Finally, it can be concluded that the main hypothesis 4 is fully supported.

Table 20. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 4c

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.217	.047	.043	.96039		

ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	11.440	1	11.440	12.403	.001
Residual	232.433	252	.922		
Total	243.873	253			

Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std . Error	Beta		
Constant	3.180	.221		14.398	.000
CC	-.254	.071	-.217	-3.522	.001

Predictor: Continuance Commitment (CC), Dependent: Turnover Intention (TI)

In Table 21, the final regression model is shown. The results revealed that the model built for Hypothesis 5 is significant ($F=57.402$, $p<0.01$) and the R^2 value is 0.186 which means 18% of variance in turnover intention can be explained by the effect of job satisfaction. The regression model is shown below as:

$$“(Turnover\ intention) = 3.571 - 0.388 (Job\ Satisfaction)”$$

The coefficient for the job satisfaction is significant ($\beta = - 0.388$, $p<0.01$) and has a negative effect on turnover intention. Thus, hypothesis 5 is supported.

To sum, for the simple regression models, only Hypothesis 2c which claims an association between workplace incivility and continuance commitment is rejected. In addition, because of the Hypothesis 2c, Hypothesis 2 which claims an association between incivility and overall organizational commitment is partially supported.

Table 21. Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 5

Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate		
.431	.186	.182	.88781		
ANOVA					
	SS	df	MS	F	p
Regression	45.244	1	45.244	57.402	.000
Residual	198.628	252	.788		
Total	243.873	253			
Coefficients					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	3.571	.160		22.266	.000
JS	-.388	.051	-.431	-7.576	.000
Predictor: Job Satisfaction (JS), Dependent: Turnover Intention (TI)					

Note that, also a correlation analysis has been made among the variables of the proposed model and the results overlapped with the regression analysis. Workplace incivility variable was negatively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -0.190$; $p < 0.01$), affective commitment ($r = -0.217$; $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($r = -0.186$; $p < 0.01$); positively and significantly correlated with turnover intention ($r = 0.184$; $p < 0.01$). Job satisfaction was positively and significantly correlated with affective ($r = 0.605$; $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($r = 0.489$; $p < 0.01$); and negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention ($r = -0.431$; $p < 0.01$). In addition, affective commitment and normative commitment were negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention and continuance commitment was only component that negatively associated with turnover intention ($r = -0.217$; $p < 0.01$).

5.5.2. Mediation Tests

After finalizing the analyses of the relationship between dual variable models, the mediation effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction were examined. Following tables show the mediation effects of the selected variables. Hypotheses 6, 7, 7a, 7b and 7c are tested independently and the results are shown in separate tables.

PROCESS module of SPSS have been used in order to see the mediation effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In order to interpret an indirect effect between two variables, the zero value must not exist between bootstrap lower level of confidence interval (BootLLCI) and bootstrap upper limit of confidence interval (BootULCI).

Table 22 shows the results for the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention. The first model is the association between workplace incivility and job satisfaction. In the second model, workplace incivility and job satisfaction are the two independent variables of the model and turnover intention is the dependent variable. Lastly, the third model indicates the association between workplace incivility and turnover intention. To find a significant

effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention through job satisfaction, the paths of WI – TI and WI – JS should be significant and when both workplace incivility and job satisfaction are taken as independent variables for the relationship between turnover intention as the dependent variable, the significant effect of workplace incivility should disappear.

As seen in Table 22, an indirect effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention was significant where confidence interval doesn't include zero (effect= 0.1301, BootLLCI=0.0290 and BootUCLI=0.2386). This value indicates a mediation effect in this model.

Note that, total effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention (0.3081) is the sum of the direct effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention (0.1780) and the indirect effect through job satisfaction (0.1301). Direct effect of incivility on turnover intention was insignificant ($\beta = 0.1780$, $p > 0.05$), but the effect of workplace incivility on job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.3520$, $p < 0.01$) and the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention was significant ($\beta = -0.3695$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore from the results, there is a full mediation effect of job satisfaction on the effect of workplace incivility to turnover intention. Thus, it's possible to say that Hypothesis 6 "*job satisfaction mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention*" is supported.

The next table, Table 23 indicates the total, direct, and indirect effects among organizational commitment, workplace incivility and turnover intention. The analyses showed that the indirect effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention, where organizational commitment is not included in the model, was significant ($\beta = 0.1721$, BootLLCI = 0.0337 and BootUCLI = 0.3095). And the effect of workplace incivility on organizational commitment ($\beta = -0.1822$, $p < 0.01$) and organizational commitment on turnover intention is found also to be significant ($\beta = -0.9446$, $p < 0.01$). However, since the direct effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention in the three-variable model, where we included organizational commitment this time, is insignificant ($\beta = 0.1360$, $p > 0.05$), organizational commitment has a full mediation effect on the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention. As a result, Hypothesis

7; “Organizational commitment mediates the relation between workplace and turnover intention” is supported.

Table 22. Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 6

MODEL 1						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1896	.0359	1.1518	9.39	1	252	.0024
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.5251	.2025	17.40	.0000	3.1262	3.9240
WI	.184	.034	.030	.0024	-.5782	-.1258
<i>WI: independent, JS: dependent</i>						
MODEL 2 (Direct Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4432	.1965	.7807	30.68	2	251	.0000
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2219	.2474	13.02	.0000	2.7345	3.7092
WI	.1780	.0963	1.84	.0657	-.0117	.3677
JS	-.3695	.0519	-7.12	.0000	-.4716	-.2673
<i>WI, JS: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
MODEL 3 (Total Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1843	.0340	.9349	.8.86	1	252	.0032
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.9194	.1825	10.51	.0000	1.5601	2.2788
WI	.3081	.1035	2.97	.0032	.1043	.5119
<i>WI: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
<i>JS: Mediator</i>			Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Indirect			.1301	.0531	.0290	.2392
Partially Stand. Indirect			.1325	.0529	.0303	.2392
Completely Stand. Indirect			.0778	.0313	.0176	.1427

Table 23. Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 7

MODEL 1						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1692	.0286	.3900	7.43	1	252	.0069
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.1282	.1178	26.54	.0000	2.8961	3.3603
WI	-.1822	.0668	-2.72	.0069	-.3138	-.0506
<i>WI: independent, OC: dependent</i>						
MODEL 2 (Direct Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.6273	.3935	.5893	81.42	2	251	.0000
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.8743	.2823	17.26	.0000	4.3184	5.4302
WI	.1360	.0834	1.6314	.1041	-.0282	.3001
OC	-.9446	.0774	-12.19	.0000	-1.0971	-.7921
<i>WI, OC: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
MODEL 3 (Total Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1843	.0340	.9349	8.86	1	252	.0032
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.9194	.1825	10.51	.0000	1.5601	2.2788
WI	.3081	.1035	2.97	.0032	.1043	.5119
<i>WI: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
OC: Mediator						
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI		
Indirect	.1721	.0714	.0337	.3095		
Partially Stand. Indirect	.1753	.0708	.0340	.3102		
Completely Stand. Indirect	.1030	.0435	.0187	.1900		

Table 24 shows the results of the analysis of Hypothesis 7a. As mentioned, previously, the third model is the association between workplace incivility and turnover intention without any other independent variable in the regression. Therefore, since results of this regression model is the same for every hypotheses, this part is not given at every

tables. The results of the equation where workplace incivility is independent, turnover intention is dependent and affective commitment is mediator variables, indicate that the indirect effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention through affective commitment is significant ($\beta = 0.2130$, BootLLCI=0.0880 and BootUCLI=0.3328). In addition, the effect of workplace incivility on affective commitment ($\beta = -0.3371$, $p < 0.01$) and affective commitment on turnover intention is found to be significant ($\beta = -0.6317$, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, workplace incivility had no significant effect on turnover intention when affective commitment was also included into the model ($\beta = -0.0951$, $p > 0.01$). This yields to a full mediation effect of affective commitment on the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Thus, Hypothesis 7a “*Affective commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention*” is supported.

Table 25 shows the results of the analyses of Hypothesis 7b where, workplace incivility is independent, turnover intention is dependent and normative commitment is mediator variable, the results show that affective commitment has a partial mediation effect. Since the indirect effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention through normative commitment is significant ($\beta = 0.1569$, BootLLCI=0.0560 and BootUCLI=0.2627) we can conclude that there is a mediation in the model. In addition, while the effect of workplace incivility on normative commitment ($\beta = -0.2742$, $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment on turnover intention is found to be significant ($\beta = -0.5721$, $p < 0.01$), the effect of workplace incivility on turnover intention is insignificant when we normative commitment is included into the model ($\beta = 0.1512$, $p > 0.01$). This indicates a full mediation effect of normative commitment on the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Thus, Hypothesis 7b “*Normative commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention*” is supported.

It can be seen from the coefficients and significance levels that the path between workplace incivility and turnover intention through affective commitment is stronger than the path between workplace incivility and turnover intention through normative commitment. The results of the regression analyses shown in Table 13 and Table 14 have also indicated that the association between workplace incivility and affective

commitment had a higher R^2 value and coefficient than the association between workplace incivility and normative commitment. Both commitment components are related to emotions, thus a significant and negative associations with workplace incivility is appropriate to the concept. In addition, since affective commitment is more involved to emotions, naturally it had the stronger relation.

Table 24. Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 7a

MODEL 1						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2175	.0473	.7934	12.50	1	252	.0005
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.3934	.1681	20.18	.0000	3.0623	3.7244
WI	-.3371	.0953	-3.53	.0005	-.5249	-.1494
<i>WI: independent, AC: dependent</i>						
MODEL 2 (Direct Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.6010	.3612	.6207	70.94	2	251	.0000
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.0631	.2405	16.89	.0000	3.5894	4.5368
WI	.0951	.0864	1.10	.2720	-.0750	.2652
AC	-.6317	.0557	-11.33	.0000	-.7415	-.5220
<i>WI, AC: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
MODEL 3 (Total Effect of WI on TI)						
<i>(given in previous tables)</i>						
<i>AC: Mediator</i>			Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Indirect			.2130	.0632	.0880	.3328
Partially Stand. Indirect			.2169	.0629	.0911	.3357
Completely Stand. Indirect			.1274	.0388	.0504	.2024

The last table, Table 26 shows the total, direct and indirect effects among continuance commitment, workplace incivility and turnover intention. As previously shown at

Table 15, there was no significant relationship between workplace incivility and continuance commitment, thus Hypothesis 2c was rejected. This insignificance was also demonstrated with mediation analysis. The workplace incivility did not have any significant effect on continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.0648$, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, continuance commitment can't have any mediation effect on the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Thus, Hypothesis 7c “*Continuance commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention*” is rejected without needing any beyond examination.

Table 25. Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 7b

MODEL 1						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1855	.344	.7304	8.98	1	252	.0030
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.1476	.1613	19.51	.0000	2.8299	3.4652
WI	-.2742	.0915	-2.99	.0030	-.4543	-.0940
<i>WI: independent, NC: dependent</i>						
MODEL 2 (Direct Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5301	.2810	.6986	49.05	2	251	.0000
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.7202	.2500	14.88	.0000	3.2279	4.2125
WI	.1512	.0910	1.66	.0979	-.0281	.3305
NC	-.5721	.0616	-9.28	.0000	-.6935	-.4508
<i>WI, NC: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
MODEL 3 (Total Effect of WI on TI)						
<i>(given in previous tables)</i>						
<i>NC: Mediator</i>			Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Indirect			.1569	.0526	.0560	.2627
Partially Stand. Indirect			.1598	.0524	.0579	.2640
Completely Stand. Indirect			.0939	.0310	.0332	.1555

Table 26. Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 7c

MODEL 1						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0454	.0021	.7047	.5196	1	252	.4717
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.8437	.1584	17.95	.0000	2.5317	3.1557
WI	.0648	.0898	.7208	.4717	-.1122	.2417
<i>WI: independent, CC: dependent</i>						
MODEL 2 (Direct Effect of WI on TI)						
R	R Square	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2910	.0847	.8893	11.61	2	251	.0000
Coefficients						
	B	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.6698	.2686	9.93	.0000	2.1407	3.1989
WI	.3252	.1010	3.21	.0015	.1262	.5241
CC	-.2639	.0708	-3.72	.0002	-.4032	-.1245
<i>WI, CC: independent, TI: dependent</i>						
MODEL 3 (Total Effect of WI on TI)						
<i>(given in previous tables)</i>						
<i>CC: Mediator</i>			Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Indirect			-.0171	.0330	-.0929	.0419
Partially Stand. Indirect			-.0174	.0335	-.0949	.0412
Completely Stand. Indirect			-.0102	.0194	-.0540	.0253

The findings suggested that the outcomes of experienced workplace incivility could be transferred to the turnover intentions through job satisfaction and organizational commitment. On the other hand, since the hypotheses H2c, and therefore H7c are not supported, it can be concluded that Hypothesis 7 is partially supported. This means, organizational commitment mediated the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention, with its two components, affective and normative commitment. Continuance commitment did not play a role for the mediation, since it did not have a significant association with workplace incivility.

To sum up, the conclusion of the hypotheses is shown in Table 27:

Table 27. Conclusion of the Hypotheses of the Study

	Hypothesis	Conclusion
H1	Workplace incivility is positively related to turnover intention	Supported
H2	Workplace incivility is negatively related to organizational commitment	Partially Supported
H2a	Workplace incivility is negatively related to affective commitment	Supported
H2b	Workplace incivility is negatively related to normative commitment	Supported
H2c	Workplace incivility is negatively related to continuance commitment	Not Supported
H3	Workplace incivility is negatively related to job satisfaction	Supported
H4	Organizational commitment is negatively related to turnover intention	Fully Supported
H4a	Affective commitment is negatively related to turnover intention	Supported
H4b	Normative commitment is negatively related to turnover intention	Supported
H4c	Continuance commitment is negatively related to turnover intention	Supported
H5	Job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention	Supported
H6	Job satisfaction mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention	Supported
H7	Organizational commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention	Partially Supported
H7a	Affective commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention	Supported
H7b	Normative commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention	Supported
H7c	Continuance commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention	Not Supported

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the possible mediating effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Moreover, the study also aimed to examine the predicting power of workplace incivility, job satisfaction and organizational commitment with its all three forms on turnover intention. This chapter will show the overlapping and opposing aspects of findings of the study. After the analyze of the results, limitations of this study, implications for managers and recommendations for future researches will be mentioned.

6.1. Evaluation of The Model and The Variables

The results showed that all regression models except from the relationship between workplace incivility and continuance commitment were significant. In addition, the coefficient of workplace incivility in the regression model for predicting turnover intention was positive, and the coefficients of other independent variables in all other regression models. On the other hand, the coefficient of workplace incivility in the model for predicting continuance commitment was also positive, however, since the model was not significant, that situation did not have an indication. In short, all results from the regression analysis of the hypothesized model was consistent with the existing organizational psychology literature. In this study, workplace incivility was significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and significantly and positively related to turnover intention; and job satisfaction and

organizational commitment with its all components significantly and negatively predicted turnover intention.

As mentioned previously, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are the strongest predictors of turnover intention. The results of the regression analyses in this study overlapped with those indications. The R^2 value of the regression between turnover intention and job satisfaction was 0.186 which indicated that 18.6% of the variance in turnover intention could be explained by job satisfaction. This means, job satisfaction is an important determinant for the employee's decision to stay or leave the organization for the focus group of this study.

Various researches proposed that organizational commitment predicts turnover intention better than job satisfaction (Jenkins, 1993) or organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Williams & Hazer, 1986; Johnston et al., 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The R^2 of the regression model for the association analysis between overall organizational commitment and turnover intention was 0.387 which indicated that 38.7% variance in turnover intention could be explained by organizational commitment. The results of this study were parallel to these proposed relations that both the coefficient and R^2 values of the model of the relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction was lower than the relationship between turnover and overall organizational commitment, affective and normative commitment components. Therefore, results indicated that organizational commitment is a stronger predictor than job satisfaction for turnover intention in this study. In addition, while job satisfaction is related to the job-related perception and organizational commitment is related to the organizational structure perception, for the focused group of this study, it may be natural to see that organizational structure is more important for employees, therefore has a stronger effect on turnover intention than job satisfaction. Since the focused employees of this study works in a public institution and the job content is generally less stressful and complicated than the technical jobs at private sector, the main emphasis for the employees may be the organizational structure such as the procedures, rewards, justice climate, the elite image etc.

The organizational behavior literature indicated that the strongest component of organizational commitment for predicting turnover intention or other withdrawal behaviors are affective commitment; followed by normative and continuance commitment, respectively (Somers, 1995; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2002). The results of this study also appropriate to these findings since the R^2 values of affective, normative and continuance commitments of the regression model predicting turnover intention were 0.358, 0.273 and 0.047, respectively. 35.8% of the variance in turnover intention would be explained by affective commitment in this study and followed by normative commitment with 27.3%. This shows that emotional attachment, loyalty and the sense of obligation are significant determinants for the turnover process of the employees in the focused institution. On the other hand, only 4.7% of the variance in turnover intention can be explained by continuance commitment. While some researchers claimed that continuance commitment has no effect on turnover intention (Somers, 1995), others proposed that continuance commitment is the strongest organizational commitment component for predicting not the intention, but the actual turnover (Jaros et al., 1993). Since continuance commitment is a calculative behavior, it may dramatically affect the decision of actual turnover. This means, when continuance commitment is very low, an employee may quit the job swiftly without the process of evaluation of the turnover decision. Therefore, the significant but weaker effect of continuance commitment on turnover intention in that study overlaps with the existing literature. Furthermore, this result is consistent for the structure of the institution as well. The high-level institutions like the focused public institution in this study have various corporate opportunities and better working conditions than private sector in Turkey. For example, there are lodging building, medical and retirement supports, generally no overtime or weekend working, easier and longer vacation days. In the institution, there is not a huge gap between the payment and other benefits possessed between the white-collar employees with various career position. In addition, public servants have less worry about getting fired or the progression in their career since it is regulated by specific rules and does not depend on personal decision of the people in higher position. Therefore, it is natural to expect that the cost – benefit evaluation of a white-collar employee in the focused institution may have less importance than the emotional attachment or loyalty.

Since all components of organizational commitment were significantly and negatively related to turnover intention, the hypothesis that “organizational commitment is negatively related to turnover intention” was fully accepted. This result revealed that in this study organizational commitment was a strong predictor of turnover intention which is parallel to the existing organizational psychology literature.

Note that a positive and significant correlation occurred between affective and normative commitment in this study. This was an anticipated result since both commitment components have similar antecedents. Meyer et al. (2002) indicates that although it is not always valid in all circumstances, affective and normative commitment are positively correlated. Meyer et al. also mentions that continuance commitment is generally negatively related to affective commitment. Thus, results of this study supported Meyer et al.’s claims since affective and continuance commitment had negative correlation in this study, yet not significant. Furthermore, a positive and significant correlation between normative and continuance commitment was found which is a salient result for the literature.

The results of this study revealed significant and negative associations between workplace incivility and overall organizational commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment, and significant and positive associations between workplace incivility and turnover intention. The R^2 value for the regression model of the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention was 0.0034, which indicated that 3.4% variance in turnover intention could be explained by workplace incivility. The R^2 values for overall, affective, normative and continuance commitment, and job satisfaction were 0.029, 0.047, 0.034, 0.002 and 0.036, respectively. It can be seen that the associations between workplace incivility - turnover intention, workplace incivility - organizational commitment, and workplace incivility - job satisfaction were weaker the associations between turnover intention - job satisfaction and turnover intention - organizational commitment. As mentioned previously, organizational commitment and turnover intention are one of the most significant and direct predictors of turnover intention, therefore it is natural to see strong links between them. On the other hand, workplace incivility is a very specific case, be included in deviant behaviors, and in a more general term, CWBs.

There are numerous determinants that affecting job satisfaction such as job content, leadership, routinization, integration, distributive justice, work overload, environment etc. (Curry et al., 1986; Glisson & Durick, 1988) and job satisfaction have subgroups such as work, pay, promotion, supervision and co-worker satisfaction (Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Pool, 1997). Workplace incivility can be associated with the co-worker and supervision (Pearson et al., 2000; Cortina et al., 2001) subgroups since they are related to interpersonal relations. The all CWBs which involve interpersonal relations such as deviant behaviors, workplace aggression, violence, mobbing, bullying (Pearson et al., 2005), sexual harassment, racism, discrimination, sabotage, incivility may affect these subgroups. Since in this study, only one specific negative interpersonal behavior was investigated, it is natural to see lower R^2 and beta coefficients for the associations involving workplace incivility than associations between turnover intention - organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Higher levels of R^2 may be detected with different studies investigating more than one deviant behavior or focusing overall CWB concept in broad terms. In addition, employees of the institution may be dissatisfied about their job and the organization with numerous other issues such as the justice climate, role conflict, low payment, less rewards, better alternatives, job content etc. which are not related to interpersonal mistreatment. This may be another reason why the explanation power of workplace incivility on organizational commitment, job satisfaction or turnover intention was less than 5%.

Since the government institution of the study has a highly formal climate, incivility may be the predominant deviant behavior. Firstly, because there are strict punishment regulations for the CWBs such as workplace aggression or violence but the intention to harm of workplace incivility is ambiguous, it is more likely to experience uncivil acts in a regulated formal climate. An instigator employee can easily deny the bad intention by declaring the targeted party as being too sensitive or try to find excuses by claiming that the uncivil act happened because of carelessness (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Furthermore, employees with the sense of retaliation may also perform uncivil acts instead of aggression, violence or harassment, which are too obvious for observer parties or management, and are easily detected and penalized, in order to

reciprocate safely. Secondly, a highly formal environment may prevent sincerer relationships between white-collar employees, which also have higher formal working conditions than blue-collar workers. Therefore, as the co-workers do not recognize the psychological character structure of others very well, it may be easy to offend someone, or the formal and distant environment may lead to various misunderstandings at interpersonal relations and higher perception of experienced incivility.

The beta coefficient and R^2 value of the regression model between workplace incivility and job satisfaction was higher than the relation between workplace incivility and overall organizational commitment, normative and continuance commitment. Various interpersonal relations related to co-workers or supervision initially affect job satisfaction, mostly the subgroups of co-worker or supervisor satisfaction (Williams & Hazer, 1986; Johnston et al., 1990), which lead to organizational commitment through emotional factors. As mentioned before, workplace incivility can affect job satisfaction through numerous determinants related to satisfaction for interpersonal relations. In addition, it is easier to develop emotions for job rather than the whole organization since the content of the job, the co-workers, the supervisor and the job environment directly affect the employee in every work day. On the other hand, organization is a much larger and hard to get attached notion. Sommer et al. (1996) indicated that interpersonal relations get weaker because of the harder integration, the process of identification, involvement and low levels of contribution to the organizational decisions in large organizations like the public institution which is focused on in this study. On the other hand, smaller organizations are more sensitive to the needs and problems of their employees (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, the stronger association between workplace incivility and job satisfaction than overall, normative and continuance commitment can be justified. On the other hand, affective commitment is directly related to the emotional attachment and experienced incivility creates stress and negative emotions. Therefore, naturally affective organization and workplace incivility built the strongest link.

As mentioned before, 3.4% variance in turnover intention was explained by workplace incivility. Since workplace incivility is a specific behavior and there are various

determinants effect turnover intention, including the broad term of CWB as well, the R^2 value of 0.034 is a significant and also satisfactory score. This means that not being a target of uncivil acts frequently can be associated with the emotional attachment and loyalty of the employee towards the organization and pleasure gained from the job done which leads to lower turnover intentions.

Since affective commitment based on emotional attachment and normative commitment based on the sense of obligation and loyalty, it is natural that they were both significantly and negatively affected by workplace incivility in this study. This means, experienced incivility was negatively associated with the affective and normative commitment of the white-collar employees in the institution focused on this research. Note that, the association between workplace incivility and affective commitment was higher than the association between workplace incivility and normative commitment as anticipated since affective commitment has a stronger link through emotional determinants.

Continuance commitment is not affected by work experiences as much as affective or normative commitment are (Meyer et al., 2002). The insignificant relationship between workplace incivility and continuance commitment in this study was not a shocking result. Unlike affective or normative commitment, continuance commitment is not based on emotions or sense of loyalty, but the calculative thoughts about the benefits and costs of the current organization. Apparent benefits of an organization or job such as payment, career opportunities, workload and social facilities may be the main factors that related to continuance commitment. Therefore, the hypothesis that “workplace incivility is negatively related to organizational commitment” was partially supported since the proposal was correct for affective and normative commitment, but continuance commitment was related to workplace incivility positively and not significantly.

The simple regression model of the study indicated that workplace incivility was positively related to turnover intention. However, the aim of the study was to investigate the possible mediating effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in this relationship. Therefore, mediation tests were applied to the model.

First of all, since continuance commitment had no significant relationship with workplace incivility, it was impossible to have a mediator effect between incivility and turnover intention. Therefore, the hypothesis that “*continuance commitment mediates the relationship workplace incivility and turnover intention*” was rejected immediately.

This study revealed that overall organizational commitment, affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction were significantly related to both workplace incivility and turnover intention. From the mediation tests, it was proven that workplace incivility lost its significant association with turnover intention when one of those four variables were added in the regression model. The relationship between variables can be considered as paths. Regression analysis indicated that there was a significant path between workplace incivility and turnover intention. On the other hand, for example, when job satisfaction is also attached to the model, the path between workplace incivility and turnover intention was disappeared which points out that all the variance in workplace incivility was carried to turnover intention through the path of job satisfaction. This was also valid for overall, affective and normative commitment. In short, since all the paths between workplace incivility and turnover intention become insignificant when job satisfaction, overall, affective or normative commitment are contributed to the model, it can be concluded that all these four variables fully mediate the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. On the other hand, as mentioned before there was no significant association between workplace incivility and continuance commitment which prevented a mediation role of continuance commitment between workplace incivility and turnover intention. Because the mediator role of continuance commitment was insignificant, hypothesis 7 which proposes that “*organizational commitment mediates the relation between workplace incivility and turnover intention*” was partially supported.

By comparing the beta coefficients of the equations, it can be claimed that affective commitment transmitted the highest influence from workplace incivility to turnover intention, followed by overall organizational commitment, normative commitment and job satisfaction, respectively. These results are coherent with the organizational psychology literature. The relationship between workplace incivility and turnover

intention mostly depends on emotions. Thus, affective commitment becomes the strongest mediator variables between this relationship, followed by normative commitment which is also based on emotions and sense of obligation. This reveals that emotions are indeed effective determinants which links workplace incivility to turnover intention through organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Therefore, affective commitment transfers the largest effect from workplace incivility to turnover intention, followed by job satisfaction and normative commitment respectively.

In conclusion, the results of this study proved that experienced incivility is negatively associated with the job satisfaction, affective commitment and normative commitment of an employee which lead to turnover intention.

6.2. Limitations of the Present Study

This study had some limitations about the characteristics of the sample, the data collection procedure and scales which were used. The first limitation of the study was the low variety of the sample. The data was collected from a single public institution which makes this study limited to a specific public institution in Ankara. All respondents of the questionnaire were white-collar employees; therefore, the predominant majority of the sample were educated employees. Although the female – male ratio was close to each other, the married employees made up the majority. More than half of the employees had less than 10 years of service. There were only a small number of employees that had more than 30 years of service. In addition, the majority of the employees were young, half of the employees were aged between 25 to 35 years and more than 80% of the employees were below the age of 45. A larger sample which includes more than one public institutions with higher variety of employees may reveal different results. Furthermore, since formality is less in blue-collar departments in the institution, focusing on blue-collar employees may be resulted as different levels of workplace incivility and higher levels of potential other deviant behaviors with higher density.

Secondly, data was collected at a single period of time, therefore the concept of causality relations was ignored. Organizational psychology literature has some indications that the affective relationship between counterproductive work behaviors which includes workplace incivility, the concepts of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention are not bidirectional. As mentioned in previous chapters, an uncivil act may lead to lower organizational commitment and because of the stress level resulted by low organizational commitment the employee may perceive innocent acts as malicious deviant behaviors. Therefore, a longitudinal study based on two-way causation models can give a better chance of examination of the multi-directional affective relations between the variables. In addition, in this study, the effects of the variables on other variables are examined by one directional relationships. On the other hand, there are bidirectional relationships between variables of the model of this study. For example, although turnover intention may be resulted by lower organizational commitment and job satisfaction, turnover intention of an employee may also cause fall in organizational commitment and job satisfaction of the same employee or other employees. As another example, low organizational commitment may cause an employee to behave uncivil behaviors towards other employees, low job satisfaction may increase an employee's perception of uncivil acts. In this study, the aim was to find out the effect workplace incivility on turnover intention through organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Therefore, naturally, other directional relationships are disregarded.

As mentioned previously, incivility can be categorized into three groups according to source such as co-worker, supervisor and customer (Sliter et al., 2012), and by the perceiver such as experienced, witnessed and instigated incivility (Porath & Pearson, 2013). Being an observer of an uncivil act may have negative effects on commitment, satisfaction and productivity (Pearson et al., 2001). On the other hand, since most studied in literature were focused on the experienced incivility, and experienced incivility has the worst negative effects, in this study the effects of only the experienced incivility to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention were examined. In addition, the scale which was used to analyze the experienced incivility had no sub-items to be able to distinctly measure each forms of

incivility. Therefore, the incivility scale focused on the uncivil acts coming from both co-workers and supervisors without distinguishing their influences.

Since the study based on a government institution, some employees were suspicious about the questionnaire form. Although the questionnaire forms did not have a question about asking identifying information and it was mentioned on the forms that the purpose of the study is fully academic and no personal analysis will be done, some employees rejected to fill the forms. In fact, employees from some specific departments in the institution were more skeptical about the confidentiality of the questionnaire. In order to reflect the population of the institution as much as possible in the sample, the aim was to collect a specific amount of data from each department proportional to their population within the whole organization. This goal was partially achieved because of the suspicion among some departments which are closer to the management.

As mentioned previously, control variables except education level had no significant effects on any of the variables of the model when they were added to the regression models. In addition, education level was also not used as a control variable since the model, which control variables are added into it, was not significant also.

Lastly, the organizational commitment scale had some problems about reliability. The well-known organizational commitment scale constructed by Meyer & Allen (1991) and translated to Turkish by Wasti (1999) was used for the study. On the other hand, because the continuance commitment scale was not reliable enough, three items were removed from the questionnaire. Two of these three items were actually distracting and hard to understand. Therefore, in future researches, these items should be simplified to enable most of the participants easily comprehend the content of the question.

6.3. Implications for Managers

The implications of this study is important for both public and private sectors in Turkey since it has proved that interpersonal relations affect turnover. In this study it is shown

that even the workplace climate of the public institution of the research is formal and purified from the production-based pressure which is unlike in private sector, workplace incivility is still an important factor which is negatively associated with the commitment of white-collar employees to the organization and job satisfaction.

In this study, for the focused institution, it was revealed that the negative effects of workplace incivility could be transferred to turnover process through organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In addition, since workplace incivility is ambiguous, it may be hard to detect the instigators. Therefore, organizational should focus on the negative effects of workplace incivility to reduce the likelihood of turnovers.

Since turnover has detrimental effects on organizational climate, productivity, competitiveness and effectiveness, managers should concentrate about the solutions to diminish the incivility at workplace. Various researches indicate that workplace incivility is as harmful as other deviant behaviors such as violence, aggression, sabotage, mobbing or bullying. Besides, a single uncivil act may cause much more intense deviant behaviors due to incivility spirals. An uncivil act may create another uncivil act as a reaction. Decreased organizational commitment and job satisfaction because of workplace incivility may lead to counterproductive behaviors. As mentioned previously, employees who are less committed to their organization and satisfied with their job are more likely to commit counterproductive acts such as absenteeism, leaving early, sloppy work, low quality work, sabotage or even voluntary turnover. While some employees with lower commitment and satisfaction quits, some of them continues to work. These employees mostly have high continuance commitment but low affective and normative commitment. Since the only reason of staying at the organization for these employees is calculative and financial, they will not devote themselves to the work as other employees with high sense of citizenship.

Furthermore, turnover may also cause other employees to re-evaluate the organization and the job and consider about alternative jobs. These employees with high turnover intentions may have counterproductive behaviors which includes incivility as well. In short, incivility may trigger various destructive flows in the organization like a vicious circle.

Due to the ambiguous characteristics of workplace incivility, it is hard to detect the uncivil behavior and punish the instigator. Therefore, management should train employees about the identification and the ways of prevention of workplace incivility. Additionally, management should penalize, even eliminate the instigator employees who repeat the uncivil acts continuously.

6.4. Recommendations for Future Researches

This study focused on the mediation effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention for the white-collar public servant employees of a specific public institution. Although the variables of the model were analyzed in numerous researches, this study is one of the first in three ways such as focusing on a public institute, using the theories constructed for North America in Turkey for Turkish employees and investigating the mediation effects of all components of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention at the same model.

This study can claim associations only for the public institution handled. Other government institutions in Ankara or in other cities may be added in future studies to generalize the findings of this study for public sector. Moreover, private sector may also be included to the future researches to compare the associations among experienced incivility, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention between public and private organizations. Most of the studies in the organizational behavior research is focused on the international samples; future researches which use Turkish samples may enrich the findings for Turkish case.

As mentioned earlier, the sample of this study is far from generalization concerning high level of educated and relatively young employees. For this reason, a large-scale study including every layer of the employee population may provide more generalized results. It would be better to use a more representative sample in terms of age, education and tenure in the future studies. In addition, to examine the causal nature of

the relationships among the variables included in this study, longitudinal methods and multi-directional models should be used.

Since some items of the Turkish translation of continuance commitment scale were problematic to some participants, an adaptation can be constructed to simplify those items. In this study a weak and non-significant correlation between continuance commitment and workplace incivility, thus no mediation effect was anticipated, however for the future studies which focuses mostly on continuance commitment, a higher reliability score is needed.

In future studies, a more comprehensive analysis that includes other interpersonal conflicts such as workplace aggression, violence, bullying and mobbing is recommended. Thus, workplace incivility and other deviant behaviors can be compared in terms of the effects to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention. As mentioned in literature, workplace incivility may lead to other counterproductive behaviors and interpersonal mistreatments as well.

In this study, the possible mediating or moderating power of organizational justice in the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention was another considered mediator or moderator variable among organizational commitment and job satisfaction, yet since the study was going to be too extensive, organizational justice was removed from the study content. Nevertheless, it is recommended to investigate the possible effects of organizational justice in future studies. It is possible that workplace incivility may affect perception of organizational justice negatively which leads to higher turnover intention. Organizational justice may also moderate the relationship between workplace incivility and other variables of this study. A targeted employee may not reduce its commitment or satisfaction, if there is a high justice climate and the instigators penalized effectively to satisfy the targeted employees.

Although there is a strict command hierarchy, most of the white-collar employees are specialists or assistant specialists, which have similar positional power in the organization and the other minority of employees consist of heads of departments and directors. Each department has five to ten employees with one head of department and

each general directorate includes five to ten departments and a president. As it can be seen that, employees contact with a small number of other employees with higher position, while they mostly work with people from similar power in the organization. This means that the experienced incivility resulted from positional differences will be lower than public sector. In addition, since this public institution is not profit-oriented, there will be profit pressure from the bosses in higher positions. Therefore, a stronger association between workplace incivility - job satisfaction and workplace incivility - organizational commitment may be detected in studied focusing on public sector.

In organizational psychology literature, various researchers proposed approaches such as “there is a significant correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction” or “job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organizational commitment”. Since an employee is closer to the job instead of organizational structure, it may be expected that workplace incivility initially effects job satisfaction, then organizational commitment. In addition, various researchers claimed that organizational commitment is the strongest predictor of turnover intention. Therefore, in future studies, a quadruple model should be tested in order to investigate the chain relationship among the variables of this study. The proposed structure of the model is that workplace incivility may affect job satisfaction, and job satisfaction affects organizational commitment which leads to turnover intention, and then turnover eventually.

To conclude, this study contributed theoretically and empirically to the organizational psychology literatures on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, workplace incivility and turnover intention by demonstrating the relationships between these variables and the mediating effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intention. It is hoped that study will encourage researchers to make further studies for the possible outcomes of workplace incivility, other interpersonal mistreatment behaviors and the other possible mediation links between interpersonal conflicts and withdrawal behaviors.

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APPENDICES

A. THE ANTECEDENTS OF WORKPLACE INCIVILITY

The antecedents of workplace incivility include personality, gender, stress, status, workplace climate, leadership, workload and technology. Although there is not a widely accepted opinion about personality profile, some personality characteristics are related to incivility. Employees with high narcissism (Dion, 2006), neuroticism and negative affectivity (Baron & Neuman, 1998) are more likely to instigate uncivil acts. Employees who think they do not deserve their current position, salary or rewards tend to perform uncivil acts since narcissism creates envy in their mind. In addition, instigators generally try to justify their uncivil acts as they see themselves as victims (Baron & Neuman, 1998) because of previously experienced incivility, unfair treatment or dissatisfaction.

Another important personality of instigator is the hot temperament. Employees who are impulsive and reactive, are more likely to use uncivil actions than employees with higher self-regulation. Likewise, these high tempered employees are more sensitive to insults and rude behaviors and can be easily offended and get angry. These employees have higher feeling of unfair climate, negative emotions and likelihood to react as retaliation (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

If the victim's point of view is discussed, the main personal traits that cause an employee to perceive higher incivility are agreeableness, extraversion, emotional stability, conscientiousness, openness and affectivity. Firstly, employees who are agreeable are more courteous, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, gracious and tolerant and who are not are skeptical and disputant. Therefore, employees who are not agreeable are more likely to misinterpret the innocent acts or some minor deviant acts with very low intense as incivility and get easily offended. These kinds of

employees also spread the skepticism to the other employees to suspect about behaviors whether it is an uncivil act. Secondly, extraversion is a trait related with socialness, assertiveness and talkativeness. Employees who are not extraverted, are more likely to be quiet, withdrawn and reserved. Since introverted employees are not as socially experienced as extraverted people, they tend to be offended by minor uncivil behaviors more. Thirdly, employees with low emotional stability, which is called neuroticism, tend to interpret minor uncivil acts as threat and gets stressful with negative emotions. Fourthly, conscientiousness positively related to the perceived incivility since conscientious employees wishes high standards for interpersonal relationships, thus they can interpret simple acts as incivility. Fifthly, openness is a trait related to open-mindedness and imagination. These employees do not instantaneously assume the causes of negative behaviors having also negative intentions. Lastly, negative affectivity is the aptness to negative emotions such as anger and insult. Since the negative affectivity is related to pessimism, an employee with high negative affectivity is prone to evaluate a behavior as incivility (Sliter et al., 2014).

The possibility of playing a part of an instigator or target in the act of incivility differs by gender. Researches show that instigators are more likely to be male (Pearson et al., 2000) and targets are more likely to be female (Cortina et al., 2001). Cortina et al. (2011) found out that women experience incivility more than men and black women experience even more than white women. Although age, marital status and race can affect the personality, stress and status of the employee, there is not enough study implying a direct and significant effect of these variables. In addition,

Researches show that men are more likely to instigate incivility on employees with lower status than employees with higher status. If a male employee is exposed to an uncivil behavior, he will react aggressively by behaving similarly or passively by delaying works or hiding information. On the other hand, women do not pay attention to the status of the employee to act uncivilly. If a female employee is exposed to an uncivil behavior, she will try to avoid the instigator and share about the workplace incivility experience to her friends or family members. In addition, both genders are more likely to instigate the same gender (Pearson et al., 2000).

Stress has the role of being both an antecedent and outcome of workplace incivility. Stress causes an uncivil act by one employee which will cause stress at the targeted employee and this may trigger even more uncivil acts by other employees (Dion, 2006; Bartlett et al., 2008; Lim et al., 2008). Incivility creates psychological distress which will lead to job dissatisfaction and withdrawal behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001; Miner et al., 2012). Workload, family conflict, deviant behaviors of other employees, management pressure, injustice, fundamental changes in workplace climate and economic issues may incur stress. As it can be seen from the Incivility Spiral, uncivil behavior evolves through stressful replies of the employees.

The organizational status is another important factor of performing uncivil acts. Researches show that people who are at a more powerful position in the organization tend to engage uncivil acts. (Lim & Lee, 2011). Lim & Lee also mentioned that employees who are more likely to experience incivility from their supervisors or employee who have a higher position and less likely to experience incivility from their subordinates. A study analyzing court personnel showed that judges who are at a more powerful position engage uncivil acts more than the other court personnel (Cortina et al., 2001).

An instigator may act uncivilly with the intention to exert dominance, establish superiority over others or justify himself in a specific matter or without intention because of ignorance or carelessness. Instigators generally have higher career positions in workplace than the targeted employees. When an instigator acts an uncivil behavior to an employee which has a lower position, observer employees may perceive the uncivil behavior as a part of management and leadership. In situations like this where the instigator having more power than the target, the uncivil behavior may be covered up and this will lead to the sense of unjust in employee which will create job dissatisfaction, turnover and withdrawal behavior. On the other hand, since the targeted employee is not as powerful as the instigator, he may act uncivilly not against the instigator, but another employee who is in a lower position (Pearson et al., 2000, Pearson et al., 2001; Lim et al., 2008).

Status is an important antecedent since employees are more vulnerable to incivility coming from supervisors. At their research, Cortina & Magley (2009) indicated that perception of incivility is significantly related to instigators power which means targeted employees tend to perceive incivility higher if the instigator is more powerful.

Organizational climate is the characteristics related to organizational environment (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007) which directly effects the behaviors of the employees in it. For example, informal climate may cause incivility in workplace. The degree of informality in an organization can be defined by the dresses, dialogues, models of decor and emotional expression. For example, an organization can be defined as formal when employees wear formal business clothes, address superiors by their title, speak with regulated patterns and does not include emotions in their dialogues and works, the organization can be defined as informal when employees wear shorts and T-shirts, address each other by names or nicknames, include emotions and personal lives in their dialogues. Although informal organizations enable employees to join the decision-making process, increase creativity and interpersonal communication, can also create an open climate that enables employees to behave disrespectfully and rudely to others in an excuse of sincerity (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Autocratic work environment is another negative climate that cause incivility (Bartlett et al., 2008). In autocratic climate, if the supervisor is not a fair and knowledgeable leader about management, he may not prevent incivility among subordinates, even he can perform incivility since no one can blame him directly.

Since an employee analyzes the behaviors of their supervisors and managers to find out what is acceptable and what is not for the norms and culture of the organization, leaders are responsible for the climate of the organization (Cortina, 2008). Managers are the architects of norms and cultures of an organization. They can create, correct and erase norms by implementing written or nonwritten rules, rewarding approved behaviors and punishing the undesired ones. In addition, an irresponsible leader may spread incivility though the organization by performing uncivil acts itself or creating dissatisfaction and distrust to the organization by making unfair decisions.

Downsizing, productivity pressure, frequent employee turnover and too much performance centered organizations create stress and aggression among employees. Pressure and working hard causes decrease in organizational commitment and rise of uncivil behaviors (Pearson et al., 2000). For example, in his study, Dion (2006) indicated that nurses who are faced with seriously sick patients and death cases, engage incivility more than other nurses who have easier jobs (Dion, 2006).

Due to the usage of digital technologies such as email, teleconference and social media, engaging incivility is easier and more usual in modern days. Technology decreases the face-to-face interaction in work life and since it is easier to be rude to somebody who is not looked at the face, it increases the frequency, variety and intensity of uncivil acts (Pearson et al., 2000). Perception of incivility is significantly related to the variety and frequency of the acts experienced (Cortina & Magley, 2009).

In their study on cyber incivility, Lim & Teo (2009) proved that cyber incivility is not different than traditional incivility. The research results showed that email at work may become an important source of incivility. The uncivil acts experienced through email are listed as *“saying hurtful through emails, using emails to say negative things which could not be said face-to-face, not replying emails, not acknowledging the receipt of the emails, using emails for discussions that need face-to-face dialogue and time sensitive messages such as cancelling or scheduling meetings on short notice”* (Lim & Teo, 2009).

B. WORKPLACE INCIVILITY SCALE

Aşağıdaki ifadeler iş ortamında birlikte çalışmakta olduğunuz iş arkadaşlarınız ile olan iletişiminize yöneliktir. Lütfen her bir ifadeye yer alan davranışlara ne sıklıkla maruz kaldığınızı belirleyip daire içine alınız (1'den 5'e doğru maruz kalma sıklığı artmaktadır).

<i>Birlikte çalışmakta olduğunuz iş arkadaşlarınız veya üstlerinizin;</i>	Asla	Çok Seyrek	Bazen	Sık Sık	Çoğu Zaman
1. Sorumlu olduğunuz bir konu hakkındaki yargılarınızdan şüphe duydu mu?	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşyerindeki uyum ve iş birliğinden sizi dışladı veya sizi göz ardı etti mi?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sizin hakkınızda alçaltıcı veya onur kırıcı ifadelerde bulundu mu?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sizi kişisel sorunların tartışılmasına yönlendirmek için istenmeyen girişimlerde bulundu mu?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Herkesin içinde veya bireysel olarak size meslek ahlakına uygun olmayan atıflarda bulundu mu?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sizi küçümsedi veya eleştirdi mi?	1	2	3	4	5
7. İfadelerinize az önem verdi ya da fikirlerinize az ilgi gösterdi mi?	1	2	3	4	5

C. JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

Aşağıdaki ifadeler kurumunuzda sorumlu olduğunuz iş ile ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerinizi analiz etmektedir. Lütfen her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı düşünerek, her soru için katılım derecenizi daire içine alınız (1'den 5'e doğru katılım derecesi artmaktadır).

	Hiçbir Zaman	Ara Sıra	Sık Sık	Çoğunlukla	Her Zaman
1. İşim beni tatmin ediyor	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimde yaptığım çalışmalar beni tatmin ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşimi seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

D. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Aşağıdaki ifadeler çalıştığınız kurum hakkındaki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi analiz etmeye yöneliktir. Lütfen her bir ifadeye çalıştığınız kurum açısından ne derece katıldığınızı belirleyip katılım derecenizi daire içine alınız (1'den 5'e doğru katılım derecesi artmaktadır).	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu kuruma kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Kendimi kurumumda ailenin bir parçası gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kurumuma çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Mevcut kurumumda kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kurumumdan şimdi ayrılısam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Bu kurum benim sadakatimi hak ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Şu anda kurumumda kalmam mecburiyetten.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İstesem de şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bu kurumdan ayrılmanın az sayıdaki olumsuz sonuçlarından biri alternatif kıtlığı olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Bu kurumu bırakmayı düşünemeyeceğim kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Eğer bu kuruma kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5

E. TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE

Aşağıdaki işinizle ilgili olan ifadelerden lütfen size en uygun olanını daire içine alınız (1'den 5'e doğru katılım derecesi artmaktadır).

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Çoğu kez mevcut işimi bırakmayı düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Aktif bir şekilde başka kurum ve şirketlerde iş arıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşimden muhtemelen yakın bir zamanda ayrılacağım.	1	2	3	4	5

**F. RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT
SCALE**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B3S13	14,73	10,189	,091	,507
B3S14	14,89	8,728	,378	,333
B3S15	15,28	8,635	,421	,310
B3S16	14,78	9,337	,305	,379
B3S17	14,77	11,023	,072	,497
B3S18	15,22	10,170	,167	,454

Reliability Statistics for 6-item scale

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B3S14	11,69	6,364	,435	,339
B3S15	12,07	6,291	,483	,309
B3S16	11,57	7,724	,206	,496
B3S17	11,57	8,570	,089	,558
B3S18	12,02	7,676	,206	,496

Reliability Statistics for 5-item scale (item #13 removed)

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
B3S14	8,53	4,867	,474	,369
B3S15	8,91	4,886	,504	,346
B3S16	8,41	6,038	,245	,563
B3S18	8,85	6,330	,179	,614

Reliability Statistics for 4-item scale (item #17 removed)

G. ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

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12 Haziran 2019

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın F.Pınar ACAR

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Canberk GÜZEL'in "Örgütsel Bağlılık ve İş Tatmininin; İş Yeri Kabalığı ve İşten Ayrılma Niyeti İlişkisindeki Aracı Rolü " başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 273-ODTÜ-2019 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ

Başkan

Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN

Üye

Doç.Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT

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Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDÜZ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL

Üye

H. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Tüm işletme ve kurumların temel amacı kuruluş ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda etkili operasyonlar gerçekleştirmektir. Bu nedenle şirket veya kurumun yapısı fark etmeden verimlilik, üretkenlik ve düşük maliyetli işlem yapabilme becerisi, örgütün devamlılığı için önemli faktörlerdir. Üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları, iş tanımı dışında yer alan, üretkenlik ve verimliliği düşürerek istemli bir şekilde örgüte zarar vermeyi hedefleyen, örgütte yer alan çalışanlar tarafından gerçekleştirilen açık veya örtük davranışlardır (Martinko ve ark., 2002; Sackett, 2002). Diğer yandan örgüte zarar veren bir davranışın arkasında zarar verme niyeti yok ve davranış kazara oluştu ise, bu davranış üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışı olarak değerlendirilmemektedir (Spector ve Fox, 2005). Üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları bu özelliği ile bilinçsiz hareketler ve işyeri kazalarından ayrılmaktadır. Kötüye kullanma, hırsızlık, sabotaj, taciz, mobbing, zorbalık, şiddet, fiziksel mallara zarar vermek, geri çekilme ve kasıtlı performans düşüklüğü gibi pek çok kategoriyi kapsayan üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları, örgütteki adaletsizlik algısı (Kelloway ve ark., 2010), sinir, kızgınlık, hayal kırıklığı (Martinko ve ark., 2002) ve intikam arzusu (Bies ve ark., 1997) gibi nedenlerle ortaya çıkabilmektedir.

Üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarının Holliger ve Clark (1982) tarafından mülkiyeti saptırma ve üretimi saptırma olarak tek boyutlu ve iki kategorili olarak sınıflandırılmış olup, Robinson ve Bennett (1995) tarafından bu sınıflandırmaya politik saptırma ve bireysel saldırı olarak bir boyut daha eklenmiştir. Bu boyutlar üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarını, yatay olarak kişilerarası veya örgütsel, dikey olarak ise davranışın şiddetine göre sınıflandırmaktadır. Ayrıca ek olarak Gruys ve Sackett (2003) 11 boyutlu ve Spector ve ark. (2006) 5 boyutlu farklı yaklaşımlar da geliştirmişlerdir. Spector ve ark.'na göre üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarının boyutları başkalarına zarar verme, üretimi saptırma, kundaklama, çalma ve geri çekilmedir.

İşyeri nezaketsizliği örgüt kurallarına karşı gerçekleştirilen ve zarar verme niyeti belirsiz olan düşük şiddetli davranışlardır (Andersson ve Pearson, 1999). İşyeri nezaketsizliğinin hedefinde sadece yazılı kuramsal kurallar değil, örgüt kültürü ve gelenekleri de yer almaktadır. İşyeri nezaketsizliği kişilerarası örtük olumsuz davranışlar ile örgütsel çevreye zarar vermektedir.

İşyeri nezaketsizliğini diğer kişilerarası verimlilik karşıtı davranışlardan ayıran en büyük özellik düşük şiddette ve zarar verme niyetinin belirsiz olmasıdır. İlk olarak, işyeri nezaketsizliği, işyeri saldırganlığı, zorbalık veya taciz gibi fiziksel etkileşim içermemekte, tamamen sözlü ve düşük şiddetli davranışlar ile gerçekleşmektedir. İkinci olarak, nezaketsiz davranışa maruz kalan hedeflenmiş çalışan ve nezaketsiz davranışa şahit olan diğer gözlemci çalışanlar, bu davranışın kasti yapıp yapılmadığı hakkında kesin bir yargıya varamamaktadırlar. Nitekim nezaketsiz davranışı gerçekleştiren kişi, kötü bir niyetinin olmadığı ve davranışı bilerek gerçekleştirmediğini veya karşı tarafın fazla hassas olduğu için normal bir davranışı nezaketsiz olarak algıladığını iddia edebilir. Bu nedenle nezaketsiz davranışların, belirsiz yapıları nedeniyle tespit edilebilmeleri oldukça güçtür. Bir çalışanı sözlü veya yazılı rahatsız etmek, suçlayıcı bir tonla konuşmak, profesyonel olmayan bir şekilde çağırmak (Cortina ve Magley, 2009), ciddiye almamak, ayrımcılık yapmak (Lim ve ark., 2008), hatasını diğer çalışanların yanında iğneleyici bir tonla ifşa etmek (Pearson ve ark., 2000) ve bir çalışanın psikolojik durumu veya mal varlığı hakkında dalga geçmek, nezaketsiz davranışlar arasında yer almaktadır.

İşyeri nezaketsizliği, düşük şiddetli bir kişilerarası çatışma davranışı olmasına rağmen, işyeri saldırganlığı, taciz ve şiddet gibi çok daha ağır ve fiziksel çatışma davranışlarını tetikleyebilmektedir. Andersson ve Pearson'un (1999), işyeri nezaketsizliği spiralleri adını verdiği modeline göre nezaketsiz davranışa maruz kalmış bir kişi hesaplaşma isteğine kapılarak benzer davranışı tekrarlayabilir. Bu karşılıklı davranışlar giderek daha şiddetli hale gelerek fiziksel etkileşimlere kadar ilerleyebilir. Bu nedenle işyeri nezaketsizliği hem üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarının en hafif formu (Spector ve Fox, 2005), hem de çok daha şiddetli davranışların başlatıcısı (Lim ve ark., 2008) konumundadır.

İşyeri nezaketsizliğine etki eden faktörler bireysel ve örgütsel olarak iki farklı kategoride gruplandırılabilir. Bireysel faktörler kişilik (Baron ve Neuman, 1998) cinsiyet (Cortina ve ark., 2001) , stres (Miner ve ark., 2012), statü (Lim ve ark., 2008), örgütsel faktörler ise iş ortamı ve şartları (Bartlett ve ark, 2008), iş yükü (Dion, 2006), liderlik (Cortina, 2008) ve teknolojidir (Cortina ve Magley, 2009). Benzer şekilde işyeri nezaketsizliğinin sonuçları da bireysel ve örgütsel olarak iki farklı kategoriye ayrılabilir. İşyeri nezaketsizliği bireysel boyutta, nezaketsiz davranışa maruz kalan kişide depresyon (Penney ve Spector, 2005), stres (Miner ve ark., 2012), dışlanmışlık hissi (Caza ve Cortina, 2007), rol karmaşası (Leiter ve Maslach, 1988), dikkat dağınıklığı (Cortina ve Magley, 2009), fiziksel ve psikolojik sağlık sorunları (Miner-Rubino ve Cortina, 2007), duygusal yorgunluk hissi (Laschinger ve ark., 2014) ve tükenmişlik hissine (Miner-Rubino ve Reed, 2010) neden olabilmekte, ve ayrıca iş tatmini (Penney ve Spector, 2005) ve örgütsel bağlılığı (Frone, 2000) azaltmaktadır. Nezaketsiz davranışlar örgütsel boyutta ise geri çekilme davranışları (Cortina ve ark., 2001), işten ayrılma niyeti ve işten ayrılma (Frone, 2000) ve çalışanlar arası karşılık verme hissini (Bunk ve Magley, 2013) arttırmakta olup, algılanan örgütsel adaleti (Griffin, 2010), liderlere olan güveni (Pearson ve ark., 2001), örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışını (Taylor et al., 2012), çalışanlar arası harmoni ve entegrasyonu, iş performansını (Porath ve Pearson, 2013), üretkenliği (Lim ve ark., 2008) ve yaratıcılığı (Cortina ve Mayley, 2009) azaltmaktadır.

İşyeri nezaketsizliği, davranışın kaynağına göre iş arkadaşı, amir ve müşteri (Sliter ve ark., 2012) veya nezaketsizliğe maruz kalan çalışanlara göre, maruz kalan kişi, gerçekleştiren kişi veya tanık olan üçüncü taraf kişiler olmak üzere (Porath ve Pearson, 2013) üç farklı gruba ayrılabilir. Bu çalışmada, nezaketsizliğin kaynağı olarak iş arkadaşları ve amirler belirlenmiş olup, gerçekleştirilen analizler maruz kalınan nezaketsiz davranışları ölçmektedir.

Örgütsel bağlılık, bir çalışanı bünyesinde yer aldığı örgüte duygusal yönden bağlayan ve çalışanın, örgütün çıkarlarını kendi bireysel çıkarları ile bütünleştirmesini sağlayan, psikolojik bir süreç ve tutumdur (Kanter, 1968; Sheldon, 1971, Meyer ve Herscovitch, 2001). Örgütsel bağlılık kavramına ait yaklaşımlar, davranışsal ve tutumsal olmak üzere iki grup altında toplanmıştır (Mowday ve ark., 1982). Davranışsal bağlılık

üzerine olan yaklaşımlar, kazanç ve zarar analizi gibi belli durumlarda gerçekleşen sistematik davranış tekrarları üzerine kurulu iken, tutumsal bağlılık yaklaşımları bireyin kendini örgütün değerleri ve amaçları ile betimlemesini esas almaktadır. Davranışsal bağlılık üzerine en ünlü yaklaşım Becker'ın (1960) yan bahisler tasarımıdır. Bu yaklaşıma göre bir çalışanın örgütüne olan bağlılığı, çalışanın o örgütle ilişkili olarak gerçekleştirdiği yatırımlar, örgütten ayrılmanın getireceği zarar ve başka örgüt alternatifleri ile ilişkilidir. Tutumsal bağlılığın ilk yaklaşımlarından birisi ise Etzioni'nin (1961) ahlaki, hesapçı ve yabancılaştırıcı bağlılık olarak kavramlaştırdığı üç boyutlu örgütsel bağlılık yaklaşımıdır. Bir diğer üç boyutlu örgütsel bağlılık yaklaşımı ise Kanter'in (1968) devamlılık, kenetlenme ve kontrol olarak üç bileşene ayırdığı yaklaşımdır. Tutumsal bağlılıkta diğer önemli yaklaşımlar ise Buchanan (1974), Penley ve Gould (1988) ve O'Reilly ve Chatman (1986) tarafından kavramlaştırılmıştır.

Bu araştırmada, davranışsal ve tutumsal bağlılık yaklaşımlarından geliştirilerek kavramlaştırılan Allen ve Meyer'in (1990) üç boyutlu örgütsel bağlılık yaklaşımı kullanılmıştır. Bu yaklaşım, duygusal, devamlılık ve normatif olmak üzere üç bileşenden oluşmaktadır. Duygusal bağlılık, bir çalışanın bulunduğu örgüte karşı geliştirdiği duygusal bağlanma, özdeşleşme ve ilgisi ile ilişkilidir. Kanter'in (1968) kenetlenme ve Etzioni'nin (1961) ahlaki bağlılıklarına benzeyen bu bağlılık türünde çalışan, örgütünün bir üyesi olarak devam etmeye yönelik güçlü hisler beslemektedir. Bu tür çalışanlar, örgütlerinin değer, hedef ve normlarını, kendileriyle özdeşleştirerek kabul etmektedir. Normatif bağlılık ise, çalışanın örgütüne karşı duyduğu mecburiyet ve minnet borcu ile ilişkilidir. Kanter'in (1968) kontrol bağlılığına benzeyen normatif bağlılıkta, çalışanlar örgüt kendilerine pek çok yatırım yaptığı ve fayda sağladığı için, örgütlerinin bir üyesi olarak devam etmeyi bir tür yükümlülük olarak görmektedirler. Son olarak, devamlılık bağlılığı, bir çalışanın örgütünden ayrılmasının getireceği maliyet ve zararlar hakkındaki bilinciyle alakalıdır. Kanter'in (1968) aynı isimli devamlılık bağlılığı, Etzioni'nin (1961) hesapçı bağlılığı ve Becker'ın (1960) yan bahisler yaklaşımı ile benzer olan bu bağlılık bileşeni, örgütte devam etmenin getirdiği maaş, kurumsal fırsatlar ve kariyer gibi olumlu noktalar, örgütten ayrılmanın getireceği zararlar ve alternatif çalışma fırsatları ile doğrudan ilişkilidir.

Örgütsel bağlılığa etki eden faktörler çalışanın karakteristik yapısı, işin karakteristik yapısı, örgütün karakteristik yapısı, rol durumları ve grup ve lider ilişkileri olarak beş kategoriye ayrılabilir (Mathieu ve Zajac, 1990). Yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim seviyesi, medeni durum, çalışma süresi gibi demografik özellikler, liderlik, rol çatışması, rol belirsizliği, ağırlanan örgütsel adalet, yatırımlar, alternatifler (Mowday ve ark., 1982), örgüt büyüklüğü, örgütün imajı ve yaşı, çalışma gruplarının büyüklüğü (Glisson ve Durick, 1988; Sommer ve ark., 1996) ve kişiler arasındaki ilişkidir. Ayrıca örgütsel bağlılık, işten ayrılma niyetinin doğrudan tahmincisi konumunda (Angel ve Perry, 1981; Mowday ve ark., 1982) olup aralarında anlamlı, güçlü ve negatif bir ilişki vardır. Ek olarak, düşük seviyede örgütsel bağlılık devamsızlık, işe geç kalma ve kasıtlı düşük performans gibi geri çekilme davranışlarının (Mathieu ve Zajac, 1990), stres, iş – aile arası çatışma (Meyer ve ark., 2002) ve düşük örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının (Taylor ve ark., 2012) etkeni konumundadır.

İş tatmini, bir çalışanın çalışmakta olduğu işe karşı duyduğu, işin kendisi ve iş çevresi ile alakalı deneyimlerden dolayı ortaya çıkan olumlu ve memnun edici duygusal durumunu ifade etmektedir (Locke, 1976). Bu duygusal tutum, çalışanın, iş karakteristiklerine karşı sahip olduğu psikolojik tepkilerden oluşmaktadır (Henne ve Locke, 1985; Williams ve Hazer, 1986). İş tatmini, doğrudan kişinin karakteri, ruhsal sağlığı ve psikolojik durumu, kültürü ve değerleri, işin yapısı, ücret, promosyonlar, poliçeler, iş arkadaşları ve yöneticiler ile ilgilidir (Locke, 1976).

İş tatmini, işin kendisi, ücret, promosyon, yönetim ve iş arkadaşları tatmini olarak beş alt gruba ayrılabilir (Cotton ve Tuttle, 1986; Pool, 1997). Her bir alt grup, çalışanın işin o özelliği ile ilgili olan karakteristik yapıya verdiği tepkilerle bağlantılıdır. Bu çalışmada iş tatmini, alt gruplara ayrılmadan, bütün olarak ele alınmış olmasına rağmen, işyeri nezaketsizliği ile arasındaki bağlantı bütün oranda yönetim ve iş arkadaşları üzerinden gerçekleşmektedir. İş tatminine etki eden pek çok faktör olmakla beraber, işyeri nezaketsizliği ile arasındaki bağlantının oluşmasını sağlayan belirleyici faktörler çalışanlar arasındaki ilişki (Price, 2001), entegrasyon, liderlik (Mobley ve ark., 1979; Pool, 1997), iş ortamı, işyeri şartları, çalışan kişiliği (Curry ve ark., 1986), iş arkadaşlarının sosyal desteği (Bowling ve Hammond, 2008) ve örgütsel adalet algısıdır (Price, 2001). Diğer yandan düşük iş tatmininin sonuçları ise geç kalma (Blau,

1994), devamsızlık (Rusbult ve ark., 1988), negatif duygusal durum (Lee ve ark., 2012), alternatif iş araması (Price, 2001), zayıf örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı (Bowling ve Hammond, 2008), düşük performans ve diğer geri çekilme davranışları (Henne ve Locke, 1985) ve en önemlisi işten ayrılma niyetidir (Cotton ve Tuttle, 1986; Mobley ve ark., 1979; Price, 2001; Lambert ve ark., 2001).

Daha önce geri çekilme davranışının üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarının bir türü olduğundan (Spector ve ark., 2006) bahsedilmişti. Geri çekilme davranışları işe geç kalma, işten erken çıkma, uzun ve sık molalar verme, devamsızlık ve işten ayrılma niyetini kapsamakta olup (Blau, 1994), işten ayrılma, geri çekilmenin en kesin ve sert halidir. Ayrıca bahsedilen fiziksel geri çekilme davranışlarının yanında, kasıtlı olarak iş performansını azaltma, zihinsel tembellek ve pasif riayet (Pinder, 2008) de bulunmaktadır. Stresli veya tatminsiz bir iş ortamı ortaya çıktığında çalışanın önünde iki tercih olacaktır. Çalışan diyalog veya yasal yollar ile çözüm arayabilir veya basitçe geri çekilme davranışları gösterip kendi kabuğuna çekilerek, boş vermişlik hissine kapılarak iş ve örgütü daha az önemsemeye başlayabilir (Mobley ve ark., 1979). Bu geri çekilme davranışı, tatminsizlik ve stresin devam etmesi durumunda işten ayrılma niyetine evrilecektir. Mevcut duruma göre daha iyi olan alternatiflerin olması ve işten ayrılmanın olumsuz sonuçlarının da kabul edilebilir seviyede olması durumunda ise işten ayrılma niyeti, işten ayrılma ile sonuçlanacaktır. Tam tersi ihtimalde ise, işten ayrılmayan ancak tatminsiz, örgüte bağlılığı zayıf, performansı ve verimliliği düşük bir çalışan ortaya çıkacaktır.

İşten ayrılma, bir çalışanın işinden bilinçli bir arzu ile ayrılması anlamına gelmektedir (Tett ve Meyer, 1993). İşten ayrılma, gönüllü veya gönülsüz olmak üzere iki şekilde olabilmektedir (Lambert et al., 2006). Gönüllü işten ayrılma, çalışanın çok daha iyi olanaklara sahip bir alternatif iş bulması, zorunlu olmayan emekliliğinin yaklaşması, kariyer imkânlarının yetersizliği nedeniyle işi bırakmak istemesi veya stres ve tatminsizlik nedeniyle ortaya çıkabilirken, gönülsüz işten ayrılma bir çalışanın düşük performans, emirlere itaat etmemesi veya yasal nedenler sonucunda ilişkisinin kesilmesidir. Ayrıca, ölüm, sağlık problemler ve hamilelik gibi gerekçelerle de işten ayrılma ortaya çıkabilmektedir. Gönülsüz işten ayrılmanın ya işten atma gibi

yönetimin kontrolünde olan ya da ölüm gibi önlenemeyecek durumlardan ortaya çıkması nedeniyle, örgütler gönüllü işten ayrılma üzerine yoğunlaşmaktadır.

İşten ayrılma niyeti, bir çalışanın işten ayrılıp ayrılmama fikrini zihinsel olarak değerlendirme sürecidir. İşten ayrılma niyeti, işten ayrılmanın en önemli sürecidir. Bu süreçte çalışan alternatif iş arayışına girecek ve alternatiflerin, mevcut işinden iyi olduğu ve ayrıca mevcut işinden ayrılmanın maliyetinin kabul edilebilir düzeyde olduğu durumda, işten ayrılmayı gerçekleştirecektir (Price, 1977; Tett ve Meyer, 1993). İşten ayrılma niyetinin, işten ayrılmayı ancak örgütte devam etmeyi isteme, örgütten ayrılmayı isteme ancak aynı sektörde devam etmeyi isteme veya işten ve sektörden tamamen ayrılmayı isteme gibi farklı türleri var olup (Nauta ve ark., 2009), bu çalışmada örgütten ayrılmayı isteme üzerinde durulmuştur.

İşten ayrılmanın hem örgüt hem de çalışana çeşitli olumlu ve olumsuz yanları bulunmaktadır. İşten ayrılma, her ne kadar tatmin düzeyi düşük olan çalışana yeni ve daha iyi bir alternatif iş bularak çalışabilme imkânı sağlasa da bireyin işten ayrıldıktan sonra yeni veya daha iyi bir alternatif bulamama veya dışarıdan ilgi çekici görünen bir iş ve örgütün çalışmaya başladıktan sonra önceki iş ve örgüte göre daha kötü olabilme ihtimali olmaktadır (Rusbult ve ark., 1988). İşten ayrılmanın örgüte zararları ise, üzerine eğitim ve işe alma süreci gibi yatırımlar yapılan çalışanın işten ayrılması ve bu nedenle yeni alınacak işçiler için aynı maliyetlerin tekrar yapılmasının gerekmesi, işten ayrılan çalışanın rakip bir şirkete giderek örgüte ait bilgileri paylaşması, işe yeni alınan çalışanın eski çalışana göre belli bir süreç boyunca işleri daha üretken ve verimli bir şekilde yapamaması nedeniyle üretimde olan aksamadır (Koys, 2001; Shaw ve ark., 2005). Diğer yandan tatminsiz çalışanın işten ayrılması, şirket ve kurumlara daha enerjik ve istekli yeni elemanlar alınmasını da kolaylaştırabilir (Maertz ve Campion, 1998).

İşten ayrılma niyetine etki eden faktörler ise başta örgütsel bağlılık (Steers ve Mowday, 1981; Allen ve Meyer, 1996; Loi, 2006) ve iş tatmini (Mobley ve ark., 1979; Jenkins, 1993; Shaw, 1999) olmak üzere, iş alternatifleri, stres, duygusal yorgunluk, algılanan örgütsel adalet (Cole ve ark., 2010), yaş, çalışma süresi, eğitim seviyesi, kişisel faktörler, sendika, işsizlik oranı, promosyonlar, kurumsal olanaklar (Cotton ve

Tuttle, 1986), ücret, çalışanlar arası iletişim (Porter ve Steers, 1973; Liu ve ark., 2010) ve çalışanın iş veya örgüte yaptığı yatırımdır (Rusbult ve ark., 1988).

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı iş tatmini ve tüm bileşenleriyle örgütsel bağlılığın işyeri nezaketsizliği ile işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki aracılık rolünü bulmaktır. Örgütsel davranış literatüründe iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılığın işten ayrılma niyetinin anlamlı ve en güçlü etkenleri olduğuna dair pek çok araştırma yer almaktadır (Porter ve Steers, 1973; Cotton ve Tuttle, 1986; Meyer ve Allen, 1991; Griffeth ve ark., 2000). Ayrıca yine pek çok araştırmacı tarafından işyeri nezaketsizliğinin işten ayrılma niyetine pozitif (Robinson ve Kelly, 1998; Penney ve Spector, 2005; Bartlett ve ark., 2008), örgütsel bağlılık (Caza ve Cortina, 2007; Laschinger ve ark., 2009; Cortina et al., 2011) ve iş tatminine (Keashly ve ark., 1994; Robinson ve Kelly, 1998; Bunk ve Magley, 2013) negatif yönde etkisi olduğu belirtilmiştir. Ek olarak, literatürde geçen bulgular dışında, işyeri nezaketsizliği, örgütsel bağlılık, iş tatmini ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasında stres ve duygusal yorgunluk üzerinden de kavramsal bağlantılar kurulmuştur. Örneğin, işyeri nezaketsizliğinin yarattığı negatif duygular, stres, depresyon, psikolojik problemler, tükenmişlik hissi, duygusal yorgunluk, geri çekilme davranışları ve algılanan örgütsel adaletsizlik, doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak örgütsel bağlılık, iş tatmini ve işten ayrılma niyetini de etkileyen faktörlerdendir. Ayrıca, işyeri nezaketsizliğine yakın kavramlar olan mobbing, saldırganlık, şiddet ve taciz gibi kişilerarası problemlerin de iş tatmini, örgütsel bağlılık ve işten ayrılma niyetine etkisi bulunmaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu tür üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarının başlatıcısı ve düşük şiddetli ve belirsiz özel bir durumu olan işyeri nezaketsizliği ile bu çalışmanın konusu olan diğer değişkenler arasında kavramsal bağ kurulmasının altyapısı ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Bu çalışma kapsamında Ankara'da bulunan bir devlet kurumunda çalışmakta olan 350 adet beyaz yakalı devlet memuruna anket formları dağıtılmış ve bu formlardan tam ve eksik olarak doldurulan 254 adedi ile istatistiksel analizler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Tüm formlar, kurumdaki tüm departmanlara çalışan sayılarıyla doğru orantılı olarak, yüz yüze dağıtılmış ve bilgilerin kalemle girilmesi istenmiştir. Türkçe olarak hazırlanan bu formlarda, isim, soy isim, departman ismi veya gelir gibi kişisel bilgiler yer almamıştır. Anket formu, demografik bilgiler, işyeri nezaketsizliği, iş tatmini, örgütsel bağlılık ve

işten ayrılma niyeti ölçekleri olmak üzere beş modülden oluşmuştur. Formların demografik kısmında yaş, çalışma süresi, eğitim seviyesi, cinsiyet, medeni durum ve lisans mezuniyet bölümü sorulmuştur. Ankette kullanılan tüm ölçekler beşli Likert stiline göre hazırlanmıştır. İşyeri nezaketsizliği ölçeği (Cortina ve ark., 2001; Kaya, 2015) asla ile pek çok zaman aralığındaki cevaplar olmak üzere 7 sorudan, iş tatmini ölçeği (Hackham ve Oldham, 1975; Bilgiç, 1999) asla ve her zaman aralığındaki cevaplar olmak üzere 3 sorudan, işten ayrılma niyeti ölçeği (Mobley ve ark., 1978; Örücü ve Özafşarlıoğlu, 2013) kesinlikle katılmıyorum ile kesinlikle katılıyorum aralığındaki cevaplar olmak üzere 3 sorudan, örgütsel bağlılık ölçeği ise (Meyer ve Allen, 1991; Wasti, 1999) kesinlikle katılmıyorum ile kesinlikle katılıyorum aralığındaki cevaplar olmak üzere 18 sorudan oluşmaktadır. İlk 6 soru duygusal bağlılığı, ikinci 6 soru normatif bağlılığı, son 6 soru ise devamlılık bağlılığını ölçmekte olup ankette ikinci, beşinci, altıncı ve onuncu sorular ters kodlanmıştır.

Araştırma sonuçları, işyeri nezaketsizliği ile iş tatmini arasında anlamlı ve negatif, işten ayrılma niyeti ile arasında anlamlı ve pozitif, örgütsel bağlılık ile arasında ise anlamlı ve negatif ilişkilerin bulunduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır (R^2 %3 ile %5 arasında bulunmuştur). Diğer yandan işten ayrılma niyeti, örgütsel bağlılığın sadece duygusal ve normatif bağlılık bileşenleri ile anlamlı ilişkiler kurmuş olup, devamlılık bağlılığı ile arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Araştırma sonuçları, literatürle paralel olarak iş tatmini ve tüm bileşenleriyle örgütsel bağlılığın güçlü, anlamlı ve negatif bir şekilde işte ayrılma niyetine etki ettiğini göstermiştir (R^2 %27 ile %47 arasında bulunmuştur). Devamında gerçekleştirilen aracı değişken analizleri sonucunda ise örgütsel bağlılığın alt bileşenleri duygusal ve normatif bağlılıklar ile iş tatminin, işyeri nezaketsizliği ile işten ayrılma niyeti arasında tam aracı değişken olarak yer aldıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. R^2 ve regresyon katsayılarına göre işten ayrılma niyeti ile en güçlü bağları sırasıyla genel örgütsel bağlılık, duygusal bağlılık, normatif bağlılık, iş tatmini ve devamlılık bağlılığı kurmuştur. Bu durum literatürde çeşitli araştırmacılar tarafından iddia edilen, örgütsel bağlılığın, iş tatminine göre işten ayrılma niyetini tahmin etmede daha güçlü bir değişken olduğu görüşüne, bu çalışmanın örnekleme kapsamında destek sağlamaktadır. Ayrıca yine bu çalışma konusu olan seçilmiş kurumun beyaz yakalı çalışanlarının işten ayrılma niyetinin, duygusal ve normatif

bağlılık gibi duygusal bağlanma, sadakat ve yükümlülük hislerinin, kar/zarar analizi gibi hesapçı düşüncelere göre daha fazla etkilendiği olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bu çalışmada işyeri nezaketsizliği, güçlülük sırasına göre duygusal bağlılık, iş tatmini, normatif bağlılık ve genel örgütsel bağlılık ile anlamlı ilişkiler kurmuştur. Duygusal ve normatif bağlılık, stres, duygusal yorgunluk ve tükenmişlik hissi gibi konular üzerinden; işyeri nezaketsizliği ile öncekilere ek olarak ayrıca yönetim ve iş arkadaşları tatmini alt grupları üzerinden işyeri nezaketsizliği ile bağ kurmuştur. Diğer yandan, devamlılık bağlılığı, duygulardan bağımsız olarak çalışanın örgüte gerçekleştirdiği yatırımlar, alternatif örgüt ve iş olanakları, örgütten ayrılmanın olası zararları gibi faktörler ile ilişki olduğu için, işyeri nezaketsizliği ile arasında anlamlı bir ilişki ortaya çıkmamıştır.

Araştırmada görüleceği üzere işyeri nezaketsizliğinin örgütsel bağlılık, iş tatmini ve işten ayrılma niyeti ile kurduğu ilişkiler; işten ayrılma niyetinin örgütsel bağlılık ve iş tatmini ile kurduğu ilişkilere göre, beklenen bir şekilde çok daha zayıftır. İlk olarak örgütsel bağlılık ve iş tatmini, işten ayrılma niyetinin doğrudan tahmin edicileri olarak, aralarında güçlü bir bağ bulunmaktadır. Diğer yandan işyeri nezaketsizliği, üretkenlik karşısı iş davranışlarının özel bir kolu olarak, çok daha küçük seviyede varyasyonu açıklayabilmektedir. İşyeri nezaketsizliğinin, mobing, taciz, şiddet ve saldırganlık gibi diğer kişilerarası çatışmalar yer almaması rağmen, bağımlı değişkenlerde %3'ü geçkin bir oranda açıklayıcılığa sahip olduğu görülmektedir.

Aracı değişken analizleri, işyeri nezaketsizliği ile işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki anlamlı ilişkinin, regresyon denklemine iş tatmini, duygusal bağlılık veya normatif bağlılık eklendiğinde, anlamlılığını yitirdiğini oraya koymaktadır. Bu durum, bu çalışmaya konu olan örneklem için, işyeri nezaketsizliğinin işten ayrılma niyetine etkisinin, iş tatmini, duygusal bağlılık ve normatif bağlılık üzerinden taşındığını göstermektedir. Bu çalışmanın, iş tatmini, işten ayrılma niyeti ve tüm birleşenleriyle örgütsel bağlılık kavramlarını, Türkiye örneğinde içeren az sayıda araştırma olması nedeniyle, söz konusu değişkenleri ele alan gelecek araştırmalara ışık tutması beklenmektedir.

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