Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences

Business Administration Department

Management and Organizational Behaviour

THE MODERATING EFFECT OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (POS) IN THE IMPACT OF WORKLOAD AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT A RESEARCH IN HOSPITAL NURSE STAFFING

Dorela Xhako

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2017

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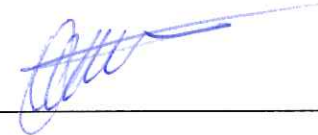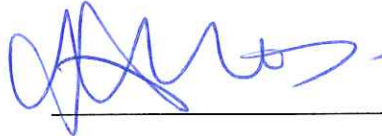
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Bu çalışmadaki bütün bilgi ve belgeleri akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, görsel, işitsel ve yazılı tüm bilgi ve sonuçları bilimsel ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, kullandığım verilerde herhangi bir tahrifat yapmadığımı, yararlandığım kaynaklara bilimsel normlara uygun olarak atıfta bulunduğumu, tezimin kaynak gösterilen durumlar dışında özgün olduğunu, Yrd.Doç.Dr. Özge TAYFUR EKMEKÇİ danışmanlığında tarafımdan üretildiğini ve Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Yönergesine göre yazıldığını beyan ederim.

DORELA XHAKO

ABSTRACT

XHAKO, Dorela. *The Moderating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support (POS) in the Impact of Workload and Work-Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment - A Research in Hospital Nurse Staffing,* Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2017.

Relationship between organizations and employees has attracted the attention of researchers, particularly in psychological and organizational behavior studies. Organizations are looking for strategies to raise employees' organizational commitment and minimize the effect of factors that adversely affect commitment. This thesis's objective is to assess the conditional indirect effect of workload on affective commitment via work-family conflict and family-work conflict mediators, and these relationships changing according to the level of perceived organizational support. Two models were developed, in order to assess relationships among study variables. Models were tested with conditional process analysis using PROCESS Macro for SPSS. Quantitative data were collected from one hundred and eighty-four nurses in public hospitals and public health care centers. Data were collected using questionnaire technique and respondents rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale. Results obtained in this study revealed that workload is positively associated with work-family conflict and inversely connected to perceived organizational support and affective commitment. Work-family conflict does not mediate workload and affective commitment relationship. However, the direct and indirect effect of workload on affective commitment changes with the level of perceived organizational support.

Key Words: Work-Family Conflict, Family-Work Conflict, Workload, Perceived Organizational Support, Affective Commitment, and Organizational Commitment.

ÖZET

XHAKO, Dorela. *İş Yükü ve İş-Aile Çatışmasının Örgütsel Bağlılık Üzerindeki Etkisi ve Algılanan Örgütsel Desteğin Düzeltici Etkisi – Hemşireler Üzerinde Bir Araştırma*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara, 2017.

Örgütler ve çalışanlar arasındaki ilişki, özellikle psikolojik ve örgütsel davranış çalışmalarında araştırmacıların ilgi odağı olmuştur. Örgütler çalışanların örgütsel bağlılığını arttırmak ve örgütsel bağlılığı kötü etkileyen faktörlerin etkisini minimize etmek için stratejiler aramaktadırlar. Bu tezin amacı, iş-aile ve aile-iş çatışması aracılarıyla koşullu dolaylı iş yükünün duygusal bağlılık üzerindeki etkisini değerlendirmektir. İş yükü, iş-aile çatışması ve duygusal bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiler algılanan örgütsel desteğin seviyesine göre değişmektedir. Bu çalışmanın değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkileri test etmek için iki model geliştirildi. Geliştirilen modeller SPSS PROCESS Macro kullanılarak koşullu süreç analizi ile test edilmiştir. Araştırmanın örneklemini Ankara'daki devlet hastanelerinde ve sağlık ocaklarında çalışan yüz seksen dört hemşire oluşturmuştur. Veriler anket tekniği kullanılarak toplanmıştır ve katılımcılardan 5'li Likert ölçeği üzerindeki maddelerin her birine cevap vermeleri istenmiştir. Araştırma sonuçları, iş yükünün, iş-aile çatışması ile olumlu bir ilişkiye sahip olduğunu ancak duygusal bağlılık ve algılanan örgütsel destek ile olumsuz bir ilişkiye sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu araştırmada ortaya çıkan bir başka sonuç ise, iş-aile çatışmasının, iş yükü ve duygusal bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmediğidir. Ancak, iş yükünün, duygusal bağlılık üzerindeki dolaylı ve dolaysız etkisi algılanan örgütsel desteğin seviyesine göre değişmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İş-Aile Çatışması, Aile-İş Çatışması, İş Yükü, Algılanan Örgütsel Destek, Duygusal Bağlılık, Örgütsel Bağlılık.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Affective Commtiment
ANOVA	Analysis Of Variance
CC	Continuance Commitment
CI	Conditional Interval
COR	Conservation of Resources Theory
CSR	Customer Service Representative
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resources Management
FWC	Family-Work Conflict
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MCAR	Missing completely at Random
NC	Normative Commitment
NFI	Normed Fit Index
OBSE	Organization-Based Self-Esteem
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OST	Organizational Support Theory
PCT	Psychological contract Theory
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
PSS	Perceived Supervisor Support
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
WFC	Work-Family Conflict
WL	Workload
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TCM   Three-Component Model

TUIK   Turkish Statistical Institute

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INTRODUCTION

The growth of world population and the augmentation of illnesses increased the demand for professionals in healthcare systems. Nursing is among the most searched health care professions both in public and private organizations. However, health care organizations face challenges in retaining nurses. Thereby, health care organizations are looking for strategies and policies to enhance employees' commitment. Organizational commitment is considered important as it affects employees' behavior. It was found that organizational commitment increases nurses'organizational effectiveness (Wasti, 2003). Accordingly, healthcare organization have tried to foster organizational commitment through continuance commitment (i.e. high salaries), resulting in adverse behaviors (Gellatly, Cowden & Cummings, 2014). In recent years, researchers of organizational behavior have focused more on strengthening affective commitment, known as the main determinant of employees' loyalty, belonging and identification with organizational goals.

Another important issue for the lack of commitment among nurses is work overload. Heavy workload takes place due to shortage in nurses, increase in overtime, increase of patient number and population aging. Work overload causes several serious consequences on employees' well-being and stimulates work-family conflicts. Nevertheless, a significant concept that positively influences affective commitment is perceived organizational support. When employees receive favorite treatment from organizations, they feel obligated to respond by exercising more effort and being more committed to organization. In other words, nurses are more emotionally and affectively committed to organization when they perceive support from administrators of hospital and experience less workload and work-family issues. The foremost purpose of this research was to evaluate to what extent affective commitment among nurses is under the influence of WFC, workload, and POS. Thereby, this study's purpose is to examine the effect that workload has on affective commitment with the help of WFC as a mediator and then investigate whether the effect of workload and WFC on affective commitment changes when nurses perceive organizational support. Research purpose is to contribute to literature research and help administrators of health center organizations make the right decisions and develop proper policies and procedures that enhance affective commitment.

The focus of this study is to inspect how workload, WFC, POS, and AC are related to each other among nurses in public hospitals and healthcare centers in Ankara. Thereby, statistical analysis and theoretical framework are used to analyze collected data based on the respondents' perception for each variable. It is important to consider the lack of information about the exact size of nurse population in Ankara and participant's lack of desire to respond that affected sampling process. In addition to that, the existence of external variables that are not investigated in this study and have an influence on work-family conflict and affective commitment should not be underestimated during the result appraisement.

This study determines the effect of WFC on affective commitment, and how this effect changes when nurses perceive support from organizations. Organizational commitment, work-family conflict, perceived organizational support and workload are constructs that are extensively studied in Turkey. However, the effect of workload on affective commitment mediated by work-family conflict and moderated by perceived organizational support is not widely investigated. The findings of this research will redound to the benefit of hospital administrators, organizations and researchers, because organizations are trying to retain qualified employees and enhance commitment. Administrators care about good service delivery by nurses, and employees' performance is closely related to commitment. Health sector's greater demand for nurses justifies the need for more effective policies and procedures to increase affective commitment, and diminish workload and conflicts between work and family lives. Thus, organizations that apply the recommendations derived from results of this study will be able to retain qualified employees, enhance affective commitment and support from organizations, and minimize the impact of workload and work-family conflict on employees. Similarly, results will inform administrators and illuminate them in decision-making process and attitudes. Since findings of this research help to enrich the literature, researchers will be able to explore more literature and help in the construction of research models.

CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

The main spheres of an individual's life are their family and work. Kanter (1977) suggests that work and family are independent constructs and do not interfere with one another (p. 17). Moreover, Kanter (1977) asserts that each construct has its own functions, space, and behavioral rules. However, recent empirical studies affirm that work and family are not separate, but instead, they intersect and influence each other. WFC or FWC are also regarded as role conflict in literature. Before defining work-family conflict, it seems necessary to provide definitions of constructs comprising it. As already mentioned individuals play two main roles during their life, family role and work role. Each role has its own responsibility and behavioral requirements. Therefore, a *role* is the pattern of behavior exhibited by an individual in a social group (Ashford & LeCroy, 2009, p.144). The pattern of behavior that individuals follow depends on how individuals feel they should behave and how group members expect them to behave. *Conflict* is a situation in which incompatible goals, attitudes, emotions or behaviors between two parties or two roles lead to disagreement (Hocker & Wilmot, 1995, p.22). Correspondingly, role conflict is a type of disagreement caused within individuals playing different roles that have incompatible demands (Thye & Lawler, 2010, p. 247).

Initially, WFC was considered as one dimensional because researchers used to think that only work interferes with family responsibilites. "*Studies performed in the last decades proved that work-family conflict is two-dimensional and family interferes with work responsibilites as well*" (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992, p. 68). Moreover, both dimensions have negative outcomes on work and family domains and are strongly associated with other constructs as well (Frone & Rice, 1987; Bruck, Allen & Spector, 2002; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Byron, 2005). WFC is defined by numerous researchers, while the most prominent definition in literature is offered by Granday and Cropanzano (1999). Granday and Cropanzano (1999) suggest that WFC is "*an inter-role conflict causing stress on individuals who struggle to fulfill both work and family responsibilities*" (p. 352). Similarly,

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) explained that fulfilling demands of one domain (family or work) cause difficulties to successfully accomplish the responsibilites of other roles (p.77). Nevertheless, in this study, WFC was conceptualized as a multidimensional construct as suggested by Netemeyer, Boles and Mcmurrian (1996). In doing so WFC and FWC are analyzed separately from one another. Netemeyer et al. (1996) described "*work-family conflict (WFC) as a form of inter-role conflict between work and family domain, where job's demands intrude with the accomplishment of family responsibilities "(*p. 401).

In last decades researchers have directed their focus on finding a balance among family and work responsibilities. In the following parts, the significance of WFC/FWC, their predictors, and outcomes are thoroughly discussed.

1.1.1. Importance of Work-Family Conflict

The principal reasons why the association between work, family, and individual is thoroughly investigated in literature is the continuous and intense change in social life and workforce demographics (Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000; Judge, & Colquitt, 2004). Moreover, human factor's importance has increased over time leading researchers to find solutions to issues that negatively influence employees. Family models together with labor market have changed considerably. Likewise, participation of women in labor market has significantly increased the number of families having dual-earner couples. Additionally, the number of single parents has grown proportionally. Therefore, WFC is considered as a crucial topic in literature as it is associated with many variables both in work and non-work life (Bruck, Allen & Spector, 2002).

Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1993) concluded in their study that employed parents experience more WFC, because of less time available to spend with their families (cited in Allen et al., 2000). Comparatively, traditional gender-based studies highlight that women bound more to their families and are more vulnerable to experience FWC, while men are more focused on their work and experience more WFC (Allen & Eby, 2016, p. 60). Consequences of WFC and FWC on individuals and organizations are discussed afterward. Subsequently, researchers in collaboration with managers are trying to take precautions and minimize these negative consequences developing from the clash of roles

(Judge& Colquitt, 2004). Moreover, Kanter (1977) states in his book, work and family life are important also to policy makers, governmental and nongovernmental organizations. Since these institutions are accountable for creating policies or laws that enhance the quality of life.

Several theories have been developed to explain the relationship and mechanisms existing between work and family constructs. Nevertheless, the main theories used in literature to explain the relationships and mechanisms between work and family are discussed explicitly in the following part.

1.1.2. Theories of Work-Family Conflict

Principal theories usually adduced in literature to explain work-family conflict are "role" and "conflict" theories (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Rantanen, Kinnunen & Mauno, 2011; Marshall, Marshall & Chadwick, 1991; Byron, 2005). Role theory is one of the main theories studying WFC, and its crucial concept is role conflict. Apart from role and conflict theories, there are other approaches that attempt to analyze and explain the conflict emerging between work and family life. In 1980, Stains presented and contrasted two main approaches of WFC, known as spillover and compensation approaches. Thereafter, Frone, Barnes and Farrell (1994) recommended several approaches to clarify the work-family conflict construct namely; Congruence approach, Identity or Integrative approach, Spillover approach, Compensation approach, Conservation of Resources approach and Segmentation approach. Each theory is introduced briefly and presented graphically below (see Figure 1).
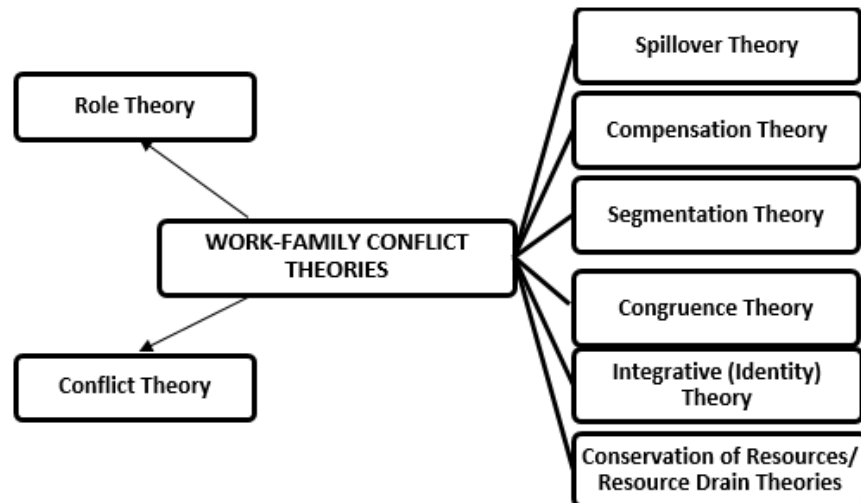
Figure 1. Theories of Work-Family Conflict. Adapted from Relationship of *Work-Family Conflict to Substance Use Among Employed Mothers; The Role of Negative Affect*, by M.R. Frone, G. M. Barnes and M.P. Farrell, 1994, Journal of Marriage and the Family, (p.1019-1020).

1.1.2.1. Role Theory

Since the beginning of 20th century, Role Theory is discussed from different views (Fischer, 2010). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) claim that role theory is the main approach used to analyze work and family relationships. Additionally, Schenewark (2008) emphasizes that relationship among work and family construct has been studied mainly found on conflict or enrichment models (p. 21). Role theory states that individuals are part of a social system composed of numerous social groups (Walker, 2013, p. 26). Individual behaves considering the expectations of group members and what is perceived to be right behavior (Walker, 2013, p. 26). However, Goode (1960) argues that playing multiple roles generates conflicts, because it is impossible to cope with all requirements of separate roles. Thus, sometimes individuals exhibit the same pattern of behavior in different social positions. Subsequently, conflicts between roles emerge since role demands of a particular social status interfere with the role demands of a different social status (Biddle, 2013). Individuals experience WFC because work and family related roles require different patterns of behavior.

1.1.2.2. Conflict Theory

Conflict theory which is another important approach to explaining work-family conflict was used extensively in sociological studies in the 1960s. Based on Marxist sociology and the work of other social theorists (e.g. Weber), conflict theory focuses on the clash of interests and competition for resources (Ryan & Ritzer, 2010; Lewis, 2013, p. 26). More specifically, Ryan and Ritzer (2010) highlight that conflict between individual and groups occur when there is a conflict of interests or when parts are competing for limited resources (p. 81). Some proponents of conflict approach propose same arguments with role theory. Accordingly, different roles have different expectations, responsibilities, and norms that are incompatible to one another, and this result in role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). When faced with such conflicts, individuals have to trade-off between the successful achievements of one role and responsibilities of the other role.

Conflict theory is used by various researchers to understand and explain conflict occurring between work and family life (Kinnuen, Geurts &Mauno, 2004). There are many other theories analyzing relationship between work construct and family construct. Rather than focusing on incompatible and conflicting roles as in role and conflict theories, these theories focus on WFC from the resources perspective. These theories argue that stress level and perception of work overload, determine the level of experienced WFC (Zedeck & Moisser, 1990; Clegg & Bailey, 2008, p.1631).

1.1.2.3. Spillover Theory

Introduced by Stains (1980) and later developed by Crouter (1984), spillover approach has become one of the most prominent theories in WFC literature. Spillover approach argues behaviors and attitudes experienced in one domain and how they influence the performance in the other domains (Stain, 1980; Hanson, Hammer & Colton, 2006, p. 250). Hanson et al. (2006) propose the spillover could cause a similarity in the performance of separate roles. For instance, if employees experience a bad day at work, then they would reflect negative attitudes toward their families. Furthermore, Haar and Bardoel (2007) specified that spillover is possible in both directions. Thus, a pressure or stress experienced in family domain spills over work domain threating job performance, and reciprocally. Hanson, Hammer and Colton (2006) indicated that spillover approach can be

both positive and negative. Positive spillover is related to the enhancement of role performance and negative spillover deteriorates role performance (p. 250). Numerous studies support spillover approach in literature (Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992; Barnett, 1996; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

1.1.2.4. Compensation Theory

Compensation theory, segmentation and spillover theory was put forward by Stains (1980). The author himself ascertained that spillover and compensation approaches are known respectively as the positive and negative approach (Stains, 1980, p.112). Positive or spillover approach emphasizes a positive relationship between work and family domain (Hanson, Hammer & Colton, 2006, p. 250). In contrast, compensation approach or negative approach emphasizes a negative relationship between work domain and family domain (Stain, 1980, p. 112). Likewise, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) explain that compensation approach underlines that individuals experiencing stress in one domain search for satisfaction achievement in the other domains (p. 180). A concrete example of compensation approach is an individual who has an unhappy marriage spends more time and effort at work. Henceforth, Lambert (1990) related this inverse relationship with satisfaction. Accordingly, people who are dissatisfied in one dimension would put more effort and be satisfied in the other dimension.

Furthermore, Zedeck and Moiser (1990) divided *"compensation approach into two groups, known as supplemental and reactive"* (p. 251). Supplemental compensation happens when an individual with unsatisfactory experience in one domain would seek a positive experience at the other domain (Zedeck & Moiser, 1990). Reactive compensation happens when an individual encounters a negative experience in one domain would elaborate a positive experience in the other domain (Zedeck & Moiser, 1990). However, numerous critiques are reported for spillover and compensation approaches. Zedeck (1992) suggest that these theories do not provide a complete picture of work and family balance. Moreover, Champoux (1978) proved that both spillover and compensation are experienced simultaneously by individuals, making it difficult to understand the reactions and decisions made by employees (Champoux, 1978).

1.1.2.5. Congruence Theory

Congruence theory is another alternative approach explaining the correlation between work and family roles. This approach considers extra factors or variables that are not directly related to either domain, but have an impact on the balance of work-family life (Schultz & Higbee, 2010). These extra variables could be behavioral characteristics, personality characteristics, socio-cultural characteristics and even genetic characteristics (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1995). For example, an individual that has a high IQ level or has obtained a higher education level is assumed to display positive work and family roles. Thereby, individual is less likely to experience WFC. Congruence approach is similar to spillover approach as both serve as linking mechanisms between work and family domain (Byron, 2005, p. 191). However, spillover theory focuses on the influence of stress or pressure in one domain on the other domain. Whereas, congruence theory focuses on a third variable having analogous effect on both domains.

1.1.2.6.   Resource Drain Theory

"Resource Drain Theory" and "Conservation of Resources Theory", were put forward to address the limitations of role theory and provide a better understanding of WFC and FWC (Halbesleben, Neveu, Westman and Paustian-Underdahl, 2014, p. 1345). Conservation of resources theory is similar to resource drain theory, as both approaches look at the interaction among work and family life from the resources depletion perspective. Both approaches try to provide a better understating of WFC and FWC These theories are grounded on scarcity theory introduced by Marks (1977) and role stress theories introduced by Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999).

Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) highlight that COR theory explains the reaction of employees against different stressors perceived at work or family environment, and the impact of these stressors on employees' well-being (p. 547). The principal idea of this theory is that conflict arises from limited resources (e.g. energy, time, money, optimism, marriage and the desire of individuals to retain and protect these resources) (Ten Brummelhuis & Baker, 2012, p. 547). Thereafter, when employees perceive the risk of

losing resources that are valuable and meaningful to them, they will experience stress leading to conflict between work and family roles. However, resource drain theory adduces that when significant amount of resources (e.g. energy and time) are spent in one domain (e.g. family) less resources are left for other domains (e.g. work), fostering a conflict between domains (Kaiser, Ringlstetter, Eikhof & Pina e Cunha, 2011, p. 83). Furthermore, individuals have to trade-off drain resources among separate roles. It is important that individuals make an optimal distribution of resources among different domains to eliminate or minimize conflicts (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

1.1.2.7. Integrative (Identity) Theory

Integrative approach which is also known as "Identity approach", and is somewhat different from approaches reviewed so far. Unlike segmentation approach, this approach suggests that work and family are closely integrated into one another (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000). Khan, Naiz, Kazmi, Khalid, Kiani and Shahzad (2014) believe that work and family life should not be considered separately as they are closely associated with each other. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) conceptualized integration or identity approach as "*work and family constructs are integrated when the role boundaries are flexible and permeable, and when role identities are similar for the two roles*" (p. 88). Accordingly, this approach asserts that roles with similar identities make work and family domain merge with each other leading to confusion, stress and role conflict (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Ashforth et al, 2000. p. 481). Nonetheless, there are authors who suggest that integration between domains would produce the desired balance in work and family life (Morris & Madsen, 2007).

1.1.2.8. Segmentation Theory

Segmentation approach is the third model suggested by Stains (1980). Stains (1980) referred to this theory as the null position (p.114). In this theory, work and family domains are considered unrelated to one another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Similarly, Rantanen et al. (2011) suggest that in *"segmentation approach work and family do not correlate neither positively nor negatively"* (p. 44). Accordingly, employees consciously segment family from their job, so as to perform each role in the best way possible. Thus, individuals do not permit one role's issues and pressure to influence their behavior and attitudes

against other roles (Lamber, 1990). Additionally, Crane and Hill (2009) recommend that based on segmentation approach work and family are separated mentally, physically and timely from each other (p. 146). Edward and Rothbard (2000) also concluded that work-family relationships run differently relative to the family structure and work type. However, most of the theories advocate a linkage between family role and work role.

1.1.3. Work-Family Conflict's Dimensions

WFC concept in the early studies was thought as unidirectional and one-dimensional. However, recent studies focused not only on the conflict evolving from work responsibilities intersecting with family responsibilities (WFC), but also on the conflict that comes forward from family requirements intersecting with work requirements (FWC) (Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000). "*This reciprocal relationship makes work-family conflict a two-dimensional construct*" (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p.403). Parents that work beyond their formal schedule are unable to fulfill parent responsibilities could experience WFC, a situation in which work interferes with family responsibilities. On the other hand, a parent making absence at work because has to look after the sick child, experience FWC, a situation in which family interferes with work.

Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997) suggest that it is crucial to consider both dimensions. Although having common antecedent and consequences, FWC and WFC are known to have different antecedents and consequences (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering & Semmer, 2011). This constitutes the main reason for considering both dimensions of work-family conflict. In addition, analyzing both dimensions enables researchers to create a complete picture of how work and family conflict with one another. However, Frone et al (1997) assert that dimensions influence each other through role overload and emotional distress. Therefore, researchers and managers are struggling to create an optimal balance between family and work domain aiming to decrease conflicts at minimum levels.

1.1.4. Types of Work-Family Conflict

WFC is categorized as "*time-based conflict, behavior-based conflict and strain-based conflict*" (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1985, p.78). This classification of work-family conflict is still used in recent studies. However, recent studies point out six types as each category is

considered separately for WFC and FWC (Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000). The three basic types of WFC and FWC are presented in Figure 2 and described below in detail.
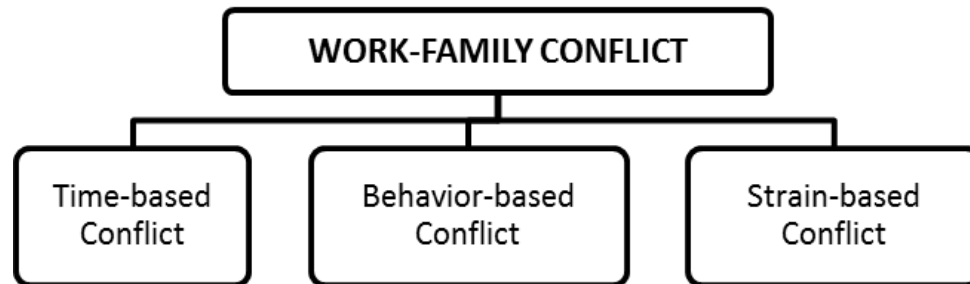
Figure 2. Types of Work-Family Conflict. Adapted from *"Sources of conflict between work and family roles",* by J.H.Greenhaus and N. J. Beutell, 1985. *Academy of Management Review, 10 (1), (p.78).*

1.1.4.1. Time-Based Work-Family Conflict

This type of conflict rests on the fact that time is a finite resource. Therefore, it has to be managed or distributed properly between different roles (Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Beutell, Granrose and Rabinowitz, 1989). The time needed to accomplish demands of one role influences performance of other roles. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) assessed time element from two points of view. Firstly, an individual is constrained to spend more time in one domain than another to accomplish role responsibilities. Secondly, the time spent at one domain limits or disallows individuals to meet the requirements of the other roles, such situation results in conflict between family and work life. For instance, a parent working with long hours would struggle to accomplish the parent role at home (e.g. helping the child to do homework). Moreover, "scarcity hypothesis" is another approach that suggests time to be a source of inter-role conflicts. This hypothesis implies that additional responsibilities for a limited time would create conflicts between demands of different roles (Barnett & Marshall, 1993).

In line with time-based WFC, studies suggest that married people have more responsibilities than single ones (Friede, 2008, p. 20). Thus, married couples face more WFC because of their limited time and more responsibilities than single people. Concurrently, working parents, single parents, and women experience more WFC than

non-working parents, couples living together and men (Powell, 2010, p. 187). Women undertake more responsibility and dedicate more time to their children and households issues than men.

1.1.4.2. Behavior-Based Work-Family Conflict

Behavior based WFC/FWC is the second type of conflict occurring between work and family. Individuals are members of different social groups and each social group has its own accepted behavior patterns that are learned through examples, instructions, rewards and sometimes even punishments. Being members of different social groups and organizations individuals have to play different roles. Eventually playing multiple roles leads to confusion and interference of roles into one another (Burke & Major, 2013, p. 125).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) claimed that inter-role conflict is developed as a result of inconsistencies between expected behavior patterns in a specific role and exhibited behaviors by individuals. Sometimes, individuals are unable to adjust the right behavior with the right role, causing confusion between roles and behavior (Bruck, Allen & Spector, 2002, p. 337). For instance, military parents lack the alternation of behavior between job role and parent role. Studies have demonstrated that military parents are less likely to use emotions in decision making, thereby exhibiting more authorial behaviors (Riggs & Riggs, 2011, p. 683).

1.1.4.3. Strain-Based Work-Family Conflict

The last category of WFC detailed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) is known as "strain-based WFC/FWC". Strain is a "*negative outcome on the individuals' well-being, caused by the interaction of individuals with their own environment*" (Craighead & Nemeroff, 2004, p. 636). During this interaction, individual perceive their incompetence for meeting role demands (French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982). Stress is considered one of the main sources of role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Afterward, strain perceived in one role negatively influences the fulfillment of another role's responsibilities. Generally, ambiguity, lack of support from managers, uncomfortable psychological and physical environment at work enhances WFC (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 81). On the other

hand, lack of family support and strain experienced inside family influence FWC (Shehan, 2016, p.1701).

After all, Bruck et al. (2002) observed that development and design of policies to reduce WFC problem focused firstly on time-based (flexible working hours) and strain-based WFC (childcare facilities). However, in recent years the field of organizational behavior has studied extensively behavior-based work-family conflict. Additionally, behavior-based WFC importance has increased with the growing of human factor role. Subsequently, determinant and outcomes of work and family conflicts are investigated. Antecedents and consequences are important in order to have a clear idea about the significance of the construct and its relationship with other constructs.

1.1.5. Antecedents of Work and Family Conflict

Antecedents of WFC and FWC have been extensively investigated in literature. In this voluminous number of researches, the antecedents of WFC and FWC were addressed under different categories. For example, Frone et al. (1992) categorized antecedents of WFC under job-related (job stressors and job involvement) and family related factors categories (family stressors and family involvement). Judge and Colquitt (2004), on the other hand, classified antecedents under three headings; responsibilities and expectations (work demand), psychological demands, organizational policies and activities (p. 397). A variety of categorizations is present in literature partly because of the data and sample differences in research. In this study, categorization of antecedents is adapted from Byron (2005). Byron (2005) classified antecedents in line with the categorization suggested by previous authors (i.e. Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Brinley, and Bordeaux). Accordingly, the three main categories proposed for work-family antecedents are specifically; "*work-domain antecedents, non-work domain antecedents and demographic/individual antecedents*" (Byron, 2005, p. 171).

The reasons for selecting Byron's classification are threefold. Firstly, Byron (2005)'s model incorporates the majority of classifications and has a more understandable format. Secondly, Byron's model (2005) seems to be more up-to-date than other author's categorizations. Lastly, Byron's model (2005) takes into account both dimensions (WFC

and FWC), because of their unique and mutual predictors. This study's main interest is the consequences of work-family conflict rather than its antecedents. Despite this, antecedents are briefly reviewed to give a complete picture of WFC and FWC. Main antecedents and their groups are presented in Figure 3.
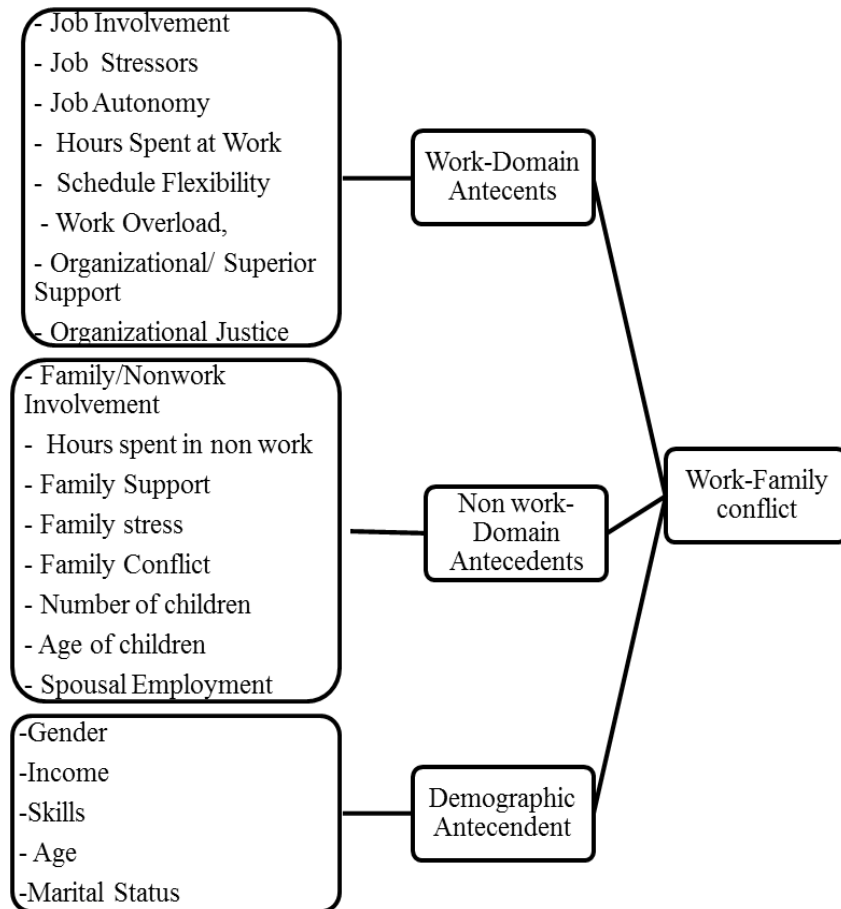
Figure 3. Antecedents of Work-Family Conflict. Adapted from "*A meta-analytic review of work–family conflict and its antecedents"*, By K. Byron, 2005. Journal of Vocational Behavior, (p. 169-198).

1.1.5.1. Work-Domain Antecedents

Work-domain antecedents foster WFC and FWC emerging from work domain. Some of the main antecedents discussed in this part are job involvement, job stressors, job autonomy, hours spent at work, schedule flexibility, work overload, organizational/ superior support

and organizational justice (Byron, 2005). Work-related factors are considered the main cause of WFC (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992, p.72).

Job involvement was defined by Firstly, Frone and Rice (1987) *"as the perception of employees about their profession and work"* (p.46). Several studies suggest that job involvement and WFC are positively related to each other (Higgins et al., 1992; Frone & Rice, 1992). Thereby, "*individuals who are highly involved with their job show a higher devotion and spend more time at work rather than with family*" (Frone et al, 1992). This results in conflict between roles because of restricted time left to fulfill family obligations. Like job involvement, high levels of job stress negatively influences family life (Byron, 2005). However, the effects of stress and other factors seem to be moderated by experienced autonomy. Byron (2005) categorized autonomy as a distinct predictor of WFC. Job autonomy is defined as the perception of authority that individual has to independently determine his or her working schedule and procedures (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Ahuja et al, 2007). Thus, autonomy provides employees the opportunity to balance work and family demands. To put it differently, individuals are able to manage their time, decrease their stress level and fulfill all responsibilities.

Eventually, time and energy are the two key scarce resources related to WFC and comprehensively mentioned in WFC theories (Gutek et al., 1991; Byron, 2005; Higgins et al., 1992; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Individuals due to limited resources are obligated to spend more time or energy in one role than the other role. Indeed, a flexible working schedule is one of the solutions provided extensively in literature for balancing work and family responsibilities. Additionally, employees who perceive support by organizations (managers) show a lower level of WFC (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Byron, 2005). Furthermore, researchers (Milliken, Martins & Morgan, 1998) found out that WFC differs from one organization to another. The main reason for this difference is proposed to be linked with the extent to which organizations are willing to support their employees. Thereupon, organizational culture and manager-employee communication are decisive factors of how employees perceive stress and workload (Kossek, Colquitt & Noe, 2001; Grandey, 2001). Furthermore, Grandey (2001) underlines that implementation of fair family-friendly policies by organizations will diminish WFC. Indeed, it is important to emphasize that policies should be perceived as fair by all employees. Otherwise,

consequences will not be positive. Correspondingly, organizational justice is negatively associated with WFC, that is decreasing the level of WFC (Tepper, 2000; Grandey, 2001; Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

Another important antecedent of WFC and FWC is work overload. However, since workload is important variables in this study their relationship is discussed thoroughly later in this chapter.

1.1.5.2. Non-Work Domain Antecedents

Non-work domain antecedents could be regarded as the family related predictors of WFC as well. Contrary to work-domain antecedents that are assumed to be linked more with WFC, these antecedents are expected to be more strongly associated with FWC (Frone, 2003, p.152). The most compelling antecedents related to non-work are family involvement, hours spent with family, family support, family stress, family disputes, children's characteristics and spousal employment (Frone et al., 1992; Byron, 2005).

Family involvement and work-family conflict are assumed to be strongly associated with each other. Obviously, the family role is psychologically important to people (Adams et al., 1996). There are cases when family involves in the fulfillment of work responsibilities making employees exhibit low performance (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Moreover, according to COR, time is a crucial element in the determination of FWC. Likewise, individuals who spend more time with family cannot cope with all work demands. In such case, family role demands interferes with work role demands. Therefore, it is important for individuals to have their families' support (Burke, 1998; Aryee et al., 1999). In recent years there is an increase in number of dual-employed couples that means more conflict between job and spouse (Greenhause & Beutell, 1985). Aryee et al. (1999) argued that family stress in dual-earner couples is inevitable. Family stress in dual-earner couples is influenced by number of children as well. It is observed that family stress increases as number of children per family increases and as the age of children gets younger. Consequently, this kind of work-family conflict is known differently as job-parent conflict (Greenhause & Beutell, 1985). Moreover, cultural norms play an important role in the clash of roles (Pleck, 1987; Aryee et al., 1999). Byron (2005) determined that WFC and FWC

are directly related to family stress. Similarly, Frone et al. (1992) established that this relationship is stronger among blue collars.

1.1.5.3. Demographic or Individual Antecedents

Work and family predictors of WFC are extensively analyzed in numerous studies. However, in recent studies demographic and personality factors are given special attention as well. (Byron, 2005). The reason for this increased attention is the effect of demographics and personality on the management of stress and scare resources (Burke, 1988; Kossek& Ozeki, 1998; Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004, p. 110). Work-family conflict changes according to one's gender, numbers of the children, his/her personality, age, family type (e.g. single parent, dual-earner couples, the size of family) and marital status.

The role of gender has been given special attention due to different roles and responsibilities assigned to men and women in the society. However, the studies provided mixed results. Byron (2005) found no difference in terms of experienced WFC between genders. Conversely, many studies have concluded that the level of conflict faced by women is higher than that faced by me, even if they work under equal circumstances (Carlson et al, 2000; McDonald & Jeanes, 2012). While this might be true, there are studies that suggest men perceive more WFC than women (Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996, p. 278). As a result, the conflict difference perceived by genders might be related to the different roles that they undertake in the social system. Moreover, allocating resources properly among roles balances work and family life. Otherwise, role conflict would be inevitable because of the clash of interests among roles. Another demographic variable negatively associated with WFC is age. It is observed that as age advances, people become more conscious to separate work from family role (Grandey & Corpanzano, 1999, p. 353). Thus, WFC and FWC are less commonly encountered in older people.

1.1.6. Work and Family Conflict's Consequences

WFC's outcomes have been categorized into three main groups; "*work-related, family related and stress related consequences*" (Allen, Bruck, Sutton & Herst, 2000, p. 279). The

reason for considering stress-related outcomes as a distinct category is partly because of a strong association of WFC with stress. Similarly, cohort studies have also divided WFC in three groups.
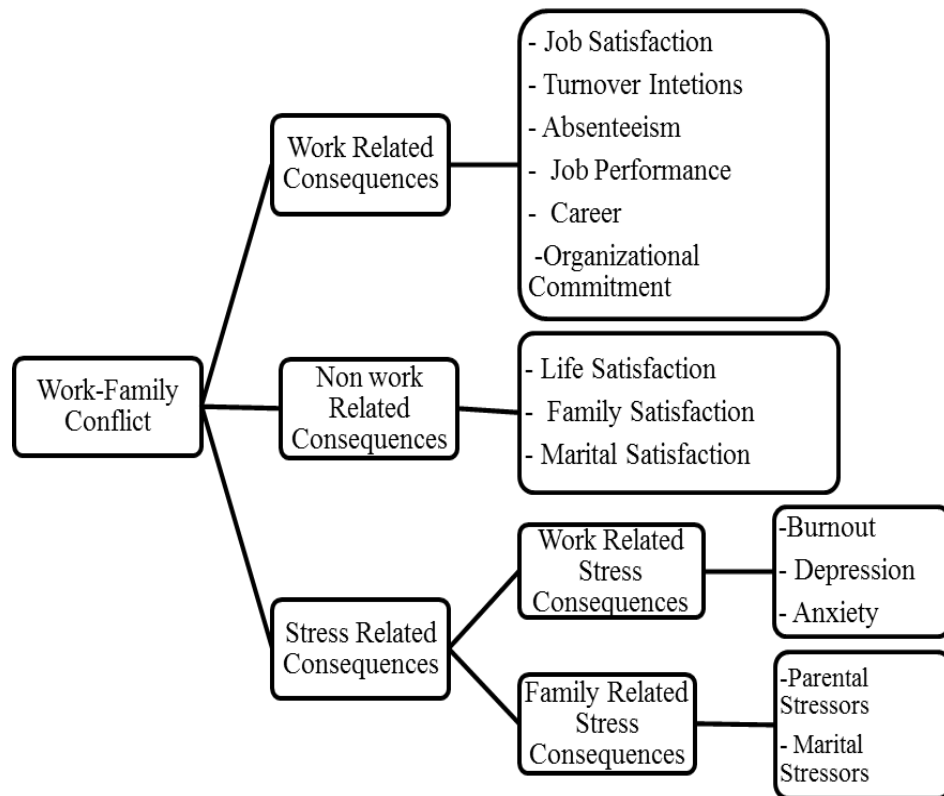
Figure 4. Consequences of Work-Family Conflict. Adapted from "*Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: a review and agenda for future research",* By T.D. Allen, C.S. Bruck, M.Sutton and, D.E. Herst, 2000. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 278-308.

Generally, the first two categories are the same as the ones provided by Allen et al (2000) while the last category is different from stress-related. Bellavia and Frone (2005) named stress-related consequences as domain-unspecific consequences (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). It is already stated that WFC and FWC are linked with common outcomes and with mutually exclusive outcomes. Nonetheless, some outcomes overlap with each other. The main consequences reviewed in this study are presented in Figure 4.

1.1.6.1. Work-Related Consequences

Work-related consequences are simply the outcomes affecting individuals' working life. Specifically, these consequences are related to the effects of WFC on work environment and employees' well-being. Moreover, work-related consequences have exceptional interest for organizational psychologists, organizations and managers, who struggle to eliminate or reduce negative outcomes on work performance (Allen et al., 2000, p. 279). In this section, spillover effect of family on work outcomes is reviewed thoroughly. Each consequence of WFC that impacts work environment is described in detail below.

1.1.6.1.1. Job Satisfaction

Numerous studies suggest an inverse relationship of job satisfaction level at work and WFC (Rice, Frone & McFarlin, 1992; Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). To put it differently, an increase in WFC causes a decrease in job satisfaction. Thus far, the negative association of WFC and job satisfaction is affirmed among different professions (e.g. police officers, executives, health personnel, nurses, engineers, accountants, teachers, business owners, and real estate sales personnel). However it is noteworthy to mention that same studies reported no relationship at all between WFC and job satisfaction (i.e. O'Driscoll et al., 1992; Lyness &Thompson, 1997; Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999).

According to some studies role conflict differs between genders. Similarly, Staines, Pottick and Fudge (1986) suggest that husbands of working wives demonstrate lower job satisfaction level than husbands of housewives. Moreover, Stain et al. (1986) assume that the main contributor for such conclusions is WFC. Other studies instead, propose that WFC and job satisfaction relationship is more significant for women (Wiersema & Van den Berg, 1991; Greenglass, Antony & Burke, 1988). Thereby, Coverman (1989) concluded that role conflict decreases job satisfaction for both genders, which in turn influences and increases stress.

1.1.6.1.2. Turnover Intentions

Intention to quit, also known as turnover intention is another work related variable that has attracted researchers' attention. Tett and Meyer (1993) suggest that *"turnover intention is a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave organization"* (p. 262). Turnover intentions have severe consequences on organizations. For this reason organizations are searching to design better policies and strategies to increase commitment thereby reduce leaving intentions. Intention to quit is assumed to be mediated by stress generated from WFC. This makes employees willing to find alternative employment opportunities in order to balance their work-family life (Kelloway, Gottlieb & Barham, 1999; Scholarios & Marks, 2004). Parent employees together with spouse ones are more disposed to leave jobs in order to accomplish family responsibilities. Additionally, turnover intention has been found to be significantly correlated to both dimensions (WFC and FWC) (Netemeyer et al., 1996; Haar, Roche, & Taylor, 2012).

Another important research was performed by Greenhaus et al. (1977), evaluating the impact of conflict coming from work and family incompatible responsabilites on the employees decision to continoue with the same profession. Results suggest that considerable conflict among work and family would provoke intentions to leave among accountants. However, this was valid for accountants that did not value success in profession and not for those who gave importance to promotion. The same results were achieved also by other researchers taking in consideration different samples (Boyar et al., 2003: Khan et al., 2014). Under these circumstances, an increase in WFC seems to result in a greater intention to leave organization. Consequently, organizations are advised to devise policies and strategies that ensure work-life balance (Yasbek, 2004).

1.1.6.1.3. Absenteeism

Absenteeism and turnover intentions are thought to have common antecedents. Even, Modway et al. (1982) conceptualized absenteeism as a substitute behavior of turnover. Accordingly, absenteeism reflects a spontaneous and easy behavior, but turnover reflects a decision well thought and evaluated over a longer period of time. Both of them have

costly consequences on both organization and individual (Porter & Steers, 1973). Level of absenteeism and WFC are negatively related (Goff, Mount & Jamison, 1990; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). Therefore, as WFC increases, level of absenteeism raises as well.

Frone et al. (1992) suggest a direct link between WFC and voluntary turnover and a direct link between FWC and absenteeism. Correspondingly, studies propose that when work demands conflict with family responsibilities, employees are presumed to find alternative employment opportunities and leave the organization (Anderson et al, 2002). However, individuals show a higher level of absenteeism as work requriements (Anderson et al., 2002). However, there are authors that did not find any significant association among WFC and absenteeism (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Diminishing work and family conflicts and decrease absenteeism, researchers suggest flexible working hours (Dalton & Mesch, 1990).

1.1.6.1.4. Job Performance

Organizations are continuously searching for high performance at work. Therefore, organizations are seeking for efficient employees (Judge& Colquitt, 2004). According to several studies, job performance is negatively associated WFC/FWC (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Job performance is affected directly and negatively by FWC (Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997, p. 147). In other words, when family demands interfere with work responsibilities, performance at work showed by employees is diminished. Furthermore, high job performance is achieved by employees who sacrifice their family well-being and focus more on their work (Greenhaus, Bedeian & Mossholder, 1987). However, Frone and his colleagues (1997) advocate that level of sacrifice changes according to level of WFC (Frone et al., 1997). Likewise, Goff, Mount and Jamison (1990) highlight that as amount of WFC conflict increases for employed parents, subsequently absenteeism is increased causing a decrease in job performance (p. 806).

1.1.6.1.5. Career

Career related consequences are classified in two groups; career satisfaction and career success. Anderson et al. (2002) stress a significant correlation between career consequences and WFC. Moreover, individuals are more disposable to give up career

achievements and find alternative employment opportunities when they perceive WFC (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Collins, 2001). Thus, researchers have established a negative relationship among WFC and career satisfaction. In the early stages of career development, WFC is assumed to be tougher for women than men. Nevertheless, recent studies assume that WFC is tougher in the middle of career when the importance of family is consolidated (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Analogously, career satisfaction was realized to be more negatively affected by WFC as the age of the employee increases and if the individual is a woman (Martins, Eddleston & Veiga, 2002). Career success is another outcome which is influenced by work-family conflict. Successful career needs considerable time, and individuals have to trade the time spent with their family with the time spent at work to achieve success. As we already now, time is a finite resource that creates conflicts between roles when it is not distributed proportionally (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Lastly, work-family conflict impacts both negatively career satisfaction and career success.

Organizational commitment is another important consequence of work-family conflict. However, organizational commitment is a crucial variables of this study. Therefore, WFC-organizational commitment relationship is reviewed thoroughly and explicitly later in this chapter.

1.1.6.2. Non-Work Related Consequences (Family Related)

Non-work related consequences are outcomes that impact employees' life and family satisfactions. Indeed, Bedeian et al. (1988) outline that life satisfaction measures the quality of life in general, including also other satisfaction's concepts (e.g. marital satisfaction, family satisfaction, leisure satisfaction, parental satisfaction and job satisfaction) (Frone et al., 1992). However, family satisfaction measures the stability of individual's family life and marital satisfaction measures quality of an individual's marital life (Sharaievska, 2012). Therefore in this study, family related consequences are introduced in three main groups; life satisfaction, marital satisfaction and family satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000, p. 280). The relationship of these three non-work related variables with WFC and FWC is explained below.

1.1.6.2.1. Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is defined by Frisch as "*an individual's subject evaluation of the degree to which his or her most important life needs, goals and wishes have been fulfilled*" (Frisch, Cornell, Villanueva & Retzlaff, 1992, p. 93). Life satisfaction has an inverse relationship with WFC and FWC (Adams, King & King, 1996; Frisch et al., 1992). Aryee (1992) ascertained that life satisfaction is related to different types of work-family conflict. Several authors have affirmed that WFC and life satisfaction are significantely and negatively related (Parasuraman et al, 1989; Higgins, Irving & Duxbury, 1992; Rice et al, 1992). However, FWC and life satisfaction association were found to be less solid. Moreover, (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) underline that relationship among WFC and life satisfaction is more evident in women than men. Nevertheless, there are also studies that did not assist any significant relationship between WFC and life satisfaction (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984).

1.1.6.2.2. Family Satisfaction

Family satisfaction is a more detailed categorization of life satisfaction. In this study, family satisfaction is analyzed separately from life satisfaction. Diverse studies have examined family satisfaction as antecedent of WFC/FWC, but here family satisfaction is investigated as a consequence of WFC (Hajar, Rumaya & Yaacob, 2011; Ford, Heinenm & Langkamer, 2007). Brough et al. (2005) agree that when work and family interfere into each other, family satisfaction is negatively influenced. Ford et al. (2007) divided family satisfaction into four categories namely; marital satisfaction, parental satisfaction, home/non-work satisfaction and global family satisfaction. Spillover theory argues that job and family satisfaction are positively related because dissatisfaction in one domain impacts the other domain's satisfaction (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1994). For instance, a parent who is dissatisfied with work will not be in the mood to get satisfaction in the family environment. Thus, WFC and FWC influence each other indirectly as well. The significant impact of WFC on family satisfaction is supported by many authors (Rice et al., 1992; Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Frone et al., 1997; and Brough, O'Driscoll & Kalliath, 2005).

Bedeian et al. (1988) propose a significant negative impact of WFC on marital satisfaction. Likewise, studies show that married employees who experience WFC are not satisfied with their marriage. Moreover, marital satisfaction is indirectly influenced by WFC and it is directly influenced by parental demands (Bedeian et al., 1988). Perrone and Worthington (2001) performed a study on dual-career couples by measuring positive and negative effects on marital quality. From the study it was concluded that WFC are principal factors causing decearse in quality of marriage. Consequently, poor marriage quality reduces marital satisfaction. Furthermore, conflicts emerging from job demands and impacting spouse and parent role negatively influence marital satisfaction (Poelmans, 2005, p. 15). Poelmans (2005) underlines that job-spouse conflict is induced by work stressor. Nevertheless, job-parent conflict is induced by the number or age of children and flexible working hours. Finally, spouse support plays a crucial role in the decrease of WFC and augmentation of marital satisfaction (Kim & Ling, 2001). It is important that individuals perceive spouse support to cope with roles' responsibilities. The negative influence that WFC has on marital satisfaction is supported by many other studies and researchers (Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; Aryee, 1992; Perrone & Worthington, 2001; Ford et al., 2007). There exists also researches whose results did not match WFC and marital satisfaction (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Some other studies have also considered leisure satisfaction as a distinct outcome of WFC, but in this study core goal is the influence on family life. Moreover, life satisfaction encompasses leisure satisfaction as well. Therefore, it was not reviewed as a separate construct.

1.1.6.3. Stress-Related Consequences

The third classification of WFC outcomes is stress-related consequences. Stress related consequences are further divided into family related stress consequences and work related stress consequences. Role conflict between family and work makes individuals experience stress, and the source of stress might be either family or work (Stoeva, Chiu & Greenhaus, 2002). Stoeva et al. (2002) acknowledged that stress is correlated to both dimensions WFC and FWC. A summary of stress-related outcomes that is suggested in literature are provided below.

1.1.6.3.1. Work-Related Stress Consequences

Work and stress are two constructs that are mentioned extensively in this review. This denotes how important and significant their relationship is in literature. Additionally, work stress consequences have become a serious problem for both organizations (e.g. employee's performance at work) and individuals (e.g. health issues) (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005). Meanwhile, governmental and nongovernmental organizations are developing policies and strategies to reduce job stresses. Correspondingly, researches about stress have advanced and extended among different occupations (teachers, nurses, polices, social workers, bankers and call centers). Grandey and Corpanzano (1997) determined that inter-role conflicts produce stress, because of lack of ability to manage both work and family role. For instance, family demands interfering with fulfillment of work demands enhances work stress (e.g. depression, anxiety and burnout). The level of stress that an individual undergoes at work depends on profession or job, personality, managerial support, work stressors (e.g. organizational environment and culture) and WFC (Johnson et al., 2005). Studies directed on work related stressors lists WFC as one of the main stressors (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Allen et al., 2000).

Burnout is one of the stress types mostly encountered in literature. In a study performed by Burke and Greenglass (2007) on female nurses, it was suggested that burnout was significantly explained by the increase in work-family concerns and issues. Different authors have agreed on the positive association between WFC and burnout as well (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Lingard & Francis, 2006; Rupert et al., 2009). Other studies, on the other hand, suggest that work environment and manager/family support moderate WFC-burnout relationship, such that high levels of WFC coupled with less support resulted in high levels of burnout.

1.1.6.3.2. Family-Related Stress Consequences

Frone and his colleagues (1992) advocate that "*work and family stressors are significantly and positively associated with one another*" (p. 65). Beutell and Greenhaus (1985) proclaimed that parents and married individuals experience more conflict and consequently more family stress than individuals who are unmarried and not parents.

Comparatively, women experience more family stress as they assume more household's responsibilities than men do. Greenhaus at al. (1983) found WFC to be highly correlated with conflicts within families. Moreover, this study revealed that spouses who are supportive to one another experience less WFC. Otherwise the increase of WFC without mutual support by spouses creates stress in family (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1985). Numerous researchers found a positive association of WFC with stress in family role (Williams & Alligers, 1994; Grandey & Corpanzano, 1997; Greenhaus &Beutell, 1985; Allen et al., 2000).

1.2. WORKLOAD

Labor market is very dynamic and challenging, particularly with the advancement in technology and the growth of multi-task jobs. Today's jobs are requiring specific efforts or capacities, and varying levels of efforts. Thereby, definition of workload has constantly developed and changed in the last fifty years. Despite the increased attention, there is not any commonly accepted definition of workload construct. One of the earliest definitions in literature is provided by Johannsen (1979) that is based on the arguments of Jahns (1973). Accordingly, Jahns (1973) suggests the division of workload in three components namely; input load, operator effort and performance (Johannsen, 1979, p. 4). Input load concerns the external factors affecting workload (e.g. environmental factors, machine designs, instructions and task duration during process of production). Operator effort is related to internal factors of employees (e.g. skills, motivation, experiences, personality) and performance is the output produced from the combination of input load and employee effort (e.g. adequacy and consistency, time to respond). Thereafter, Johannsen (1979) based on Jahns (1973) categorization of workload provided a concise definition; *"Workload is the umbrella that encompasses input load and operator effort"* (p. 5).

Other definitions of workload are based on employees' effort and performance rather than based on tasks (Hart & Staveland, 1988). Likewise, workload was defined as "*the cost induced by employees to attain the demanded performance"* (Hart & Staveland, 1988, p. 140). Similarly, there are authors who have defined workload as the failure to achieve required performance (Iverson & Maguire, 2000, p. 7). Numerous definitions of workload embrace time construct (Yano & Rachamadugu, 1991). Likewise, workload is defined as

an emotional situation of employees emerging from exceeds or insufficient work demands and time needed to accomplish those demands (Gryna, 2004; Schulz, Kirschbaum, Pruesner, & Hellhammer, 1998, p. 91).

In the earlier studies workload was categorized as quantitative and qualitative workload. Spector and Jex (1998) conceptualized qualitative workload as "*work difficulty*" and quantitative workload as "*amount of work to be done*" (p. 360). Most of the empirical studies gave more attention to quantitative workload because of its negative impacts on individuals and organizations (Britt & Jex, 2014, p. 225). Apart from qualitative and quantitative workload, some researchers categorized workload under two categories; physical and mental workload (DiDomenico & Nussbaum, 2008; Myrtek, Deutschmann-Janicke, Strohmaier, Zimmermann, Lawerenz, Brügner & Müller, 1994). Physical workload concerns the physical activity demanded to accomplish an assigned task. Similarly, Sluiter (2006) described physical workload as a task demanding simultaneously musculoskeletal, nervous and cardio-respiratory systems (cited in Basahel, Young & Ajovalasit, 2010, p. 215). Given the fact that physical work has been substituted by machines and robots, increasing the number of studies started to focus on mental workload. Mental workload is considered a multidimensional construct consisting of time pressure, mental effort and psychological stress (Meshkati & Hancock, 2011, p.185). Thus, Rouse, Edwards, and Hammer (1993) presume workload is not just task specific, but also individual specific (p. 1663). In other words, mental workload depends on the individuals' workload perception and on their interaction with task requirements. Correspondingly, two individuals working in the same organization and having the same task demands may experience different levels of workload. This makes workload a construct that is difficult to be measured objectively (Kember & Leung, 1998). Moreover, perceived role overload is considered one of the main role stressors of role theory (Weiner & Craighead, 2010, p. 1124). Henceforth, this study is concerned with perceived workload because results are based on subjective evaluation of participants.

Houdmont, Leka, and Sinclair (2012) explicitly explained perceived workload. They argue that perceived workload is the comparison of work amount or work difficulty with subjective personal standards (p. 224). Comparatively, a great number of studies argue that work overload is an excess in demands imposed on the individual during their employee's role

(Houdmont et al, 2012; Korabik, Lero &Whitehead, 2011, p. 130). Likewise, Fields (2002) describes perceived workload as a feeling of having excessive work to do, without appropriate means and tools to fulfill the assignments (p. 124). Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) explain role overload as the perception of employees having little time and abilities compared to job responsibilities (p. 152). Perceived work overload is also described as a consequence of employees' doing a job beyond their skills and abilities (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993, p. 628). Additionally, role overload is associated in literature significantly with job-related strains (Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001, p. 39). Similarly, Kember (2004) depicts work overload like a feeling of perceived stress or pressure (cited in Gijbels, Donche, Richardson & Vermunt, 2013, p. 253). Nevertheless, in this study perceived workload is evaluated relative to the scale proposed by Peterson et al. (1995), whose findings of role overload are cited in various studies of role theory. Therefore, Peterson and his colleagues (1995) explained that "*an individual's lack of the personal resources needed to fulfill commitments, obligations or requirements*" (p. 431). However, the definition suggested by Peterson et al (1995) does not emphasize the subjective evaluation of work overload. Correspondingly, during this research work overload is analyzed as employee's professional perception of being unable to fulfill commitments and obligations due to lack of personal resources.

Work overload is analyzed in a more detailed way in the following sections. Each part emphasizes workload's importance, predictors and consequences. Thereafter, the relationships of work overload with other crucial concepts in this study are reviewed.

1.2.1. Importance of Workload

Workload and work strain concepts have been pronounced together and used interchangeably. Similarly, Johannsen (1979) treated stress and peak workload as synonyms. Likewise, workload has been the subject of many studies regarded as one of the main sources of stress. Workload has two dimensions known in literature as work overload and work underload. Schulz et al. (1998) described work overload as "*an excess in task demands which require higher efforts*" (p. 95). Whereas, work underload occurs when employees are willingly and able to exercise more effort than it is required by work demands (Schulz et al., 1998, p. 96). Researchers have attempted to determine task requirements to avoid work overload and underload. Although, the consequences of

overload are considered more severe and threating than those of underload (Rogelberg, 2006, p. 685). Accordingly, an optimal situation for both individuals and organizations would be when employees do not perceive high levels of workload. Houdmont, Kerr, and Randall (2012) suggest that employees who perceive less workload in their job are more motivated (p. 10). The main reason is that personal standards are compatible with work requirements and conditions. In contrast, employees perceiving a high level of workload are not motivated because their personal expectations do not meet the work demands and conditions (Houdmont et al., 2012, p. 11). However, underload is also regarded as a crucial issue because of negative impact it has on individuals (e.g. lack of enthusiasm, stress etc.) (Rubio, Diaz, Martin & Puente, 2004, p. 67). However, this study focuses on perception of work overload.

Work overload is a topic whose importance has increased over time. The significance of workload depends on the organization and type of job. It is argued that perceived workload is high, especially in organizations where communication is particularly important (e.g. health care, call center) (Gryna, 2004, p.8). Additionally, work overload is a type of pressure that individuals experience in the workplace, and is related to many negative outcomes for organizations and individuals as well (Taylor, Repetti & Seeman, 1997). Moreover, workload accelerates with intense and long hours of work, combined with many work demands and issues (Burke, Murphy, Rogers, Lumelsky, Scholtz, 2004). Although, a more explicit knowledge about importance of perceived work overload is provided by antecedents and consequences in the following sections. Gryna (2004) highlights that work overload can develop for any organization's member, from top managers to manufacturing workers (p. 6). However, he ascertains that upper and middle-level managers can relieve the workload by sharing their responsibilities downward. Moreover, work overload is an issue experienced more by employees who are highly educated, self-motivated and attracted to highly demanding job positions (Gryna, 2004, p. 6).

Subsequently, the relationship between work overload and the main concepts suggested in literature are presented, in order to understand better how perception of work overload develops.

1.2.2. Antecedents of Workload

Managers and employers continue to assign tasks to employees beyond their capacities, despite of being aware of the adverse consequences of work overload on their well-being and performance. Gryna (2004) points out that work overload is mostly caused by ineffective work process designs (p. 7).
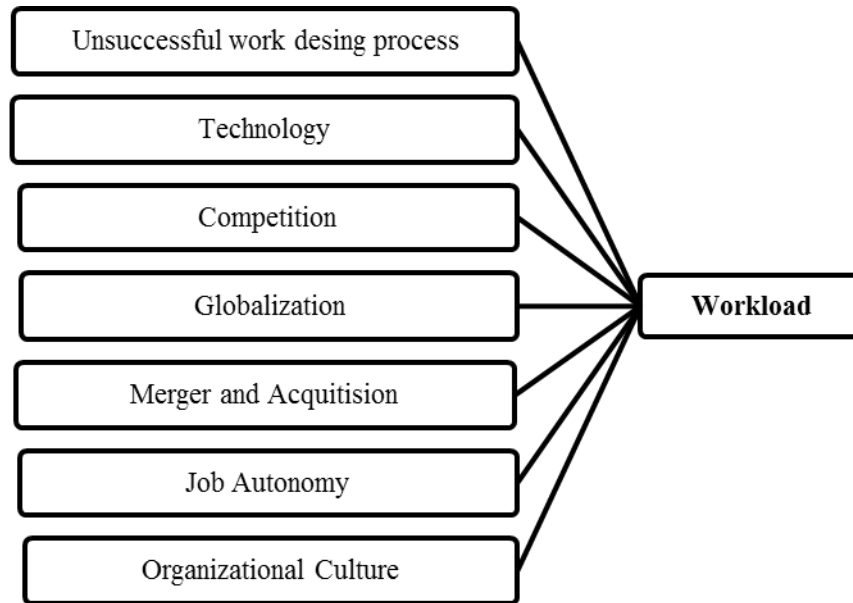
Figure 5. Antecedents of Workload. Adapted from "*Work overload: Redesigning Jobs to Minimize Stress and Burnout",* (p. 6), by F.M. Gryna, 2014, United States of America: Quality Press.

Gryna (2004) further states that work overload mainly results from the competition between companies, globalization, customer expectations regarding faster service and technology, merger and acquisition (p, 6-7). Gryna (2004) suggest that downsizing causes reduction in job thereby increase in the workload of those remaining in organization. Intention of this research is to evaluate the consequences of workload, mainly the effect of workload on WFC; therefore antecedent of workload are not reviewed in detail. However, prominent antecedents of workload are mentioned in order to provide more complete picture of workload concept. Competition and globalization are cited as the main causes of work overload, particularly in the developing countries where unemployment rate is high (Rahim, 2013, p.115). Lack of alternative employment opportunities makes employees bear the stress of work overload and organizations take advantage from similar situations.

Accordingly, fewer employees mean less expenses for organizations. Thus, the cost of losing an employee is much smaller than the profit organizations gain from overload (Byrnes, 2014, p. 214). This problem is seen both in public and private sector. In private sector, it is observed more in the call center industry where communication is fast and intensive. Apart from call center staff, sales personnel, teachers, and nurses are observed to experience excessive work overload (Mulki, Lassk & Jaramillo, 2008; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). The development of technology increases customers' expectations for faster and better service delivery. However, satisfying customers' expectations means working with long hours, which inevitably means more workload and more stress for employees (Gryna, 2004, p. 7). In addition merger and acquisition are another frequently cited factors generating work overload (Gryna, 2004, p. 7). Mergers, acquisition or downsizing are strategic decisions aiming to decrease the costs of an organization in order to survive or to be a leader in the market (Lei & Hitt, 1995). Labor costs are one of the largest expenses for any organization and cutting these expenses means firing some individuals and increasing the workload of the remaining employees.

Autonomy is another determinant of workload in literature. Fried and Ferris (1987) defined autonomy as "*the extent of freedom that employees have on deciding how to do their job"* (Shirom, Nirel & Vinokur, 2006, p. 329). Ahuja, McKnight, Chudoba, George & Kacmar (2007) stated that lack of autonomy has a negative impact on perceived work overload (p. 5). Moreover, Ahuja et al. (2007) argue that flexibility variable allows employees to adjust and balances work responsabilities with family responsabilities (p. 6). Moreover, autonomy is considered a factor which helps individuals to manage their stress, by using abilities and resources in more flexible way. Relationships at work and organizational culture are also considered powerful incentives of perceived workload (Korabik, Lero & Whitehead, 2011, p.137). Thereafter, job designs is another determinant of work overload (Dey, Samanta & Saha, 2006, p. 93). Job design is important to address problems about delegation and interpersonal relationships within organizations. Work to family conflict is studied in literature as both a consequence and an antecedent of workload. However, WFC and workload relationship is explicitly reviewed in following. These are briefly the main antecedent in literature that have an impact on workload. The following part reviews the consequences of workload.

1.2.3. Workload Consequences

Work overload is an issue that has engaged organizations to design training programs and plans to avoid its outcomes negative effects. Consequences of workload are harmful for both individuals and organizations (Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, Mcknight & George 2007, p. 8).
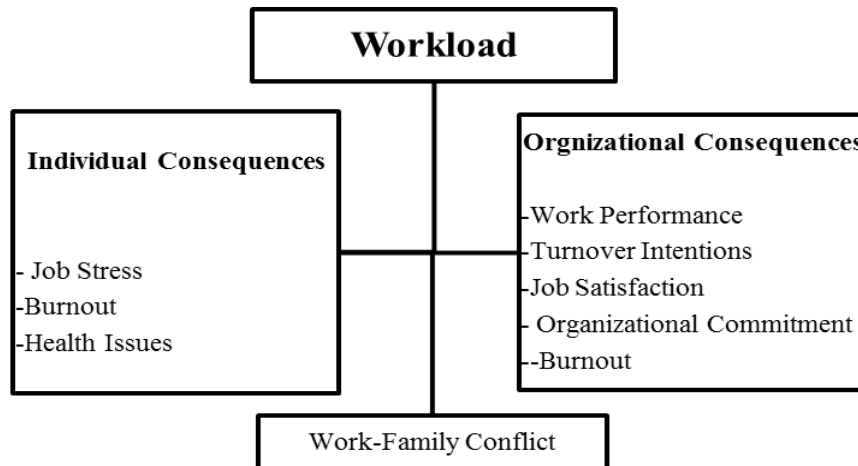
Figure 6. Consequences of Workload. Adapted from *Gender and Dysfunctional Workplace,* (p. 165), by S. Fox, T.R. Lituchy, 2012, Massachusetts, USA: Edward Elgar Publishing.

In literature, workload outcomes are generally classified under two headings, individual consequences and organizational consequences. However, at this point, it should be acknowledged that both individual and organizational consequences mutually affect each other.

1.2.3.1. Consequences of Workload on Individuals

According to Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998), individuals play two important roles in organization, the job-holder role and organizational-member role (cited in Bolino and Turnley, 2005, p. 741). Role overload has various negative results on individuals, like a sense of burden and strain. Some of the main consequences of work overload are discussed in this part. Firstly, work overload in literature is significantly related to role strain. DeFrank and Ivancevich (1998) defined stress as "*a response to a situation or action that places high demands on individuals, and different individuals might respond differently to the same situation or event*" (p. 56). Thus, two individuals working under the same circumstances and having the same tasks demands would experience different

stress level because of different perception of workload (Ross & Altmaier, 1994). Additionally, job stress develops as a response to mismatch between work requirements and employee's ability or resources available to fulfill with those demands (Blaug et al., 2007; DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998, p. 56). Moreover, job stress is described as psychological pressure that individuals feel at the workplace during accomplishment of task demands (Coon & Mitterer, 2006, p. 501). Additionally, types of job stress are different relative to the profession and organization where individual works. Work overload is listed as an essential determinant of job stress in several studies (Jamal, 1984; Singh, Goolsby & Rhodas, 1994; Ross & Altmaier, 1994; Galambos, Sears, Almeida & Kolaric, 1995; Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Moreover, work overload influences other aspects of individual's life indirectly (e.g. marriage and social relationships). Therefore, work overload is assumed to negatively affect marital relationships, since job stress influences negatively the interaction between spouses (Noller & Feeney, 2013, p. 33). In addition, work overload and stress are assumed to negatively affect individuals' health as well.Furthermore, work overload is assumed to affect both mental and physical health (Repetti, 1993, p. 370). Therefore, work overload indirectly causes cardiovascular problems and sometimes for women birth problems (Taylor, Repetti & Seeman, 1997, p. 414). In a study performed on working women, conclusions revealed that helping others decreased the negative outcome of work overload on health issues (e.g. fatigue, headache, back pain and stomach ache) (Nezu, Nezu & Geller, 2003, p. 521). Gryna (2004) argues that work overload causes employees to make more errors and get injured from those errors (p. 8). Finally, work overload causes serious health and behavioral issues to employees, leading to negative cognitive and physical outcomes.

Burnout is another consequence of work overload. It is an emotional reaction of an individual who has been under long term of stress. Employees experiencing burnout reflect the situation by being physically and mentally exhausted (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001, p. 406). Thus, these individuals do not want to get involved and participate at work (Gryna, 2004; Nirel, Goldwag, Feigenberg, Abadi & Halpern, 2008, p. 538). Ahuja et al. (2007) observed in their study on IT employees that work overload directly influences

burnout (p. 6). Researchers propose several potential solutions to diminish work overload and stress issues work (Frone et al, 1997; Ross & Altmaier, 1994).

1.2.3.2. Consequences of Workload on Organizations

Work overload has negative impacts not just on employees, but on organizations as well. Likewise, organizations are aware of employees behavior influence on organizational outcomes. Therefore, organizations should take cautions to control overload issue in order to have a competitive advantage in the market by satisfying their employees and keeping them within organization. According to some researchers (i.e. Gryna, 2004; Brown and Benson, 2005), work overload has a direct negative impact on the employees' performance. Houdmont, Leka and Sinclair (2012) claim that impact of work overload on job performance has yielded equivocal results, with some studies suggesting a positive association of work overload and job performance and others suggesting negative relationships (p.137). Supporters of positive relationship argue that accomplished quantity of work increases as the amount of assigned work increases. In contrast, supporters of negative relationship claim that employees are human beings. Therefore, employees have a non-work life, and work overload depletes them physically and mentally leading to a decrease in performance (Beehr, Jex, Stacy & Murray, 2000, p. 392).

Job satisfaction is another outcome of work overload. Employees would continue to work for the same organization as long as they are satisfied with their work. Gryna (2004) identified several factors affecting job satisfaction, among them was workload as well (p. 90). Numerous studies suggest that that increase in workload raises job satisfaction (Burchell, Ladipo & Wilkinson, 2005, p. 97). Nevertheless, voluminous researches support that workload and job satisfaction are interconnected in an inverse way (Iverson & Magurie, 2000; Buchanan & Bryman, 2009). Burchell, Ladipo & Wilkinson (2005) stated that *"negative influence of work overload on job satisfaction is due to deterioration of well-being and health"* (p.165*). Moreover, Moorhead and Griffin (1989) underline that job demands (work overload) together with job stress cause a decrease in job satisfaction. Burnout is one of the mostly discussed types of job stress. Previously, burnout was reviewed as an individual consequence of work overload. However, burnout is an organizational consequence of work overload as well. Some other consequences of work

overload discussed here are organizational commitment, intention to leave and satisfaction (Gryna, 2004, p. 8).

Ultimately, employees' turnover intention is another high cost that organizations are searching to diminish. Studies suggest an important connection between work overload and turnover intentions of employees (Ahuja et al, 2007; Moore, 2000, p. 144). "*The inverse relationship between perceived work overload and turnover intentions, is explained by the positive influence that work overload has on work exhaustion*" (Moore, 2000, p. 144). Consequently, work overload indirectly impacts negatively turnover intentions. Moreover, turnover intentions and organizational commitment are opposite concepts. Similarly, employees who are willing to leave organization are not committed. However, OC and WL relationship is explicitly reviewed in following parts as these two variables are essential for this research.

1.2.4. Workload and Work-Family Conflict

WL and WFC are two determinant constructs comprising this study. Therefore, their relationship is fundamental in determining hypothesis and constructions of research model. The study of the relationship between WFC/FWC and work overload has increased with the growth in number of dual-working couples, divorced parents and entrance of women in the labor market (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998, p. 140). Bolino and Turnley (2005) proclaimed in their research that individual play multiple roles in society. Moreover, they suggest that playing multiple role increases stress level, and then influencing negatively both family and work domain. Additionally, stress and burnout are principal outcomes of work overload. It is crucial to emphasize that work overload is considered both antecedent and outcome of WFC.

FWC is determined as a source of WL, causing an increase in responsibilities and more workload. Likewise, spillover theory suggests that FWC negatively impacts the accomplishment of job assignments and perceived work overload (Zedec & Moiser, 1990, p. 243). Thus, when family interferes with work, employees struggle more to finish their duties on time. Despite that, employees have to exercise even more effort than normal and this increases perception of work overload. In contrast, work overload is a predictor of

WFC (Frone et al., 1997; Ahuja et al., 2007). Indeed, literature highlights a positive association between work overload and interference of WFC (Burke & Greenglass, 2001, p. 584). Thus, employees working through an overload schedule and effort are faced with work-family conflict. The reason for that is, work life interfering with family life forbidding individuals to accomplish family responsibilities. However, another source of work overload that influences negatively WFC is bringing unfinished work at home (Frone et al., 1997; Byron, 2005, p. 172). Individuals give up the time needed to spend with family in order to finish work assignments. Belsky (1984) found out that working parents who experience work stress and bring work home do not have good relationships with their children (Galambos, Sears, Almeida & Kolaric, 1995, p. 204). The results of numerous researches performed in recent years suggest that perceived work overload negatively affects work and family life (Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh & Houtman, 2003; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, Clark & Baltes, 2011). To summarize, work overload is a crucial determinant of work-family conflicts (Ilies, Schwind, Wanger, DeRue & Johnson 2007, p. 1369).

1.3. PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT (POS)

POS concept has been extensively studied over the past three decades. Nevertheless, POS has a long history that dates back to 1960s. It has been thoroughly investigated recently because of its close association with organizational commitment. Acknowledging the impact of employee commitment on various organizational outcomes, organizations are continuously trying to strengthen employees' commitment by showing support and demonstrating concern about employees' well-being. (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). While doing so, they are trying to effectively interact with their employees and understand their needs in order to enhance productivity and motivation. Like organizations, employees also give importance to support. As pointed by many researchers (Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1997, Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001, p.42), employees want to be valued and respected by their organizations. This desire emanates from need for affiliation and makes social support concept very important for employees. However, it is noteworthy to acknowledge that employees' perception of respect and value differs from one another and so do their needs (Lauby, 2005, p.16). While some employees need an increase in payment or promotion, others instead require organizational support and

information access (Lauby, 2005, p.18). Therefore managers need to know employees' needs in order to support them and make the right decisions in the best of their subordinates. Thereby, perceived organizational support is an important concept as it affects employee-organization relationship (Anderson, Ones, Sinangil and Viswesvaran, 2001, p.148).

According to Kumar (2008), POS is largely shaped by organizational culture and work environment (p.8). In addition to work environment, managers also affect employees' perceptions about the organizational support. Levinson (1964) claims that employees perceive decisions and actions of their leaders as organizational decisions (Eisenberger, Hungtington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986, p. 500). Accordingly, employees are more emotionally connected to their organizations when they perceive that organizations or managers value them and cares about their well-being (Eisenberg et al., 1986; Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). Following this corollary, the perceived organizational support will be conceptualized using the below definition;

> "*Perceived organizational support encompasses global beliefs developed by employees concerning the extent to which organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being"* (Eisenberger, Vandenberghe, Rhoades & Sucharski, 2002, p. 565).

Organizations and employees profit from showing favorable behavior and attitude to each other (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 698). Therefore, employee-organization relationship depends on the reciprocity norm. According to Gouldner (1960) reciprocity norm forces individuals to behave well in exchange of favorable treatment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 876). In other words, reciprocity norm suggests that employees who attain advantageous and supportive treatment by organizations are expected to reply with positive attitudes and behaviors. Rousseau (1990) went further in his research and observed that employees perceive reciprocal relationships with their organizations beyond formal responsibilities (p. 391). This situation was described by Rousseau (1990) as psychological contract. Specifically, employees believe that organizations consider their well-being during decision making process. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch (1997) highlight that psychological contract is expected to have positive impacts on organizations as employees would demonstrate better performance in response to POS

(p. 814). Numerous theories are put forward to explain POS concept and its impact on individuals and organizations. In this part, some of the main theories are briefly reviewed. Then, antecedents and consequences of POS are examined. Lastly, the relationship of POS with work overload and WFC is reviewed.

1.3.1. Theories of Perceived Organizational Support

The main theories that provide a rational explanation of POS are social exchange theory and organizational support theory (OST). These theories are widely used in various management and sociological researches to explain the relationship between employees and organizations. Nevertheless, social exchange theory is not a single theory rather than a theory encircling various concepts (Mitchell & Cropanzano, 2005, p. 875). All these theories analyze social life as consecutive process involving at least two parties (Mitchell, Cropanzano & Quisenberry, 2012, p.101). Two main contemporary theories of social exchange theory are organizational support theory and psychological contract theory (Filipove, 2007, p.56). Organizational support theory is the most well-known social exchange theory from which perceived organizational support concept derives.

1.3.1.1. Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory was put forward from Blau (1964) explains how interpersonal relationships between individual and organizations are set up and how they are strengthened and preserved (Eisenberger et al., 1997, p. 813). Social exchange theory regards relationship between two parties as *"an agreement of favorable treatment in exchange for benefits in the future. In fact, social exchange theory rests on the norm of reciprocity"*(Aselage & Eisenberg, 2003, p. 450). Social exchanges between employees and organization (also managers) are initiated by the managers or leaders' (organization's representatives) attitudes and behavior (positive or negative) to their employees (Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993, p. 3). Thereafter, employees respond to managers' treatment either positively or negatively depending on the initial treatment (Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987).

Social exchange theory suggests that "*relationship between employee and organization is an exchange of mutual benefits or a trade of effort with impersonal rewards or emotional support*" (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Etzioni, 1961; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). In such an exchange, both organization and employees are assumed to obtain mutual benefits and

win. Employees expect emotional support, approval, respect and liking from organization and in exchange exercise more effort for achievement of organizational goals. Apart from this, the SET stresses the essence of evaluating motives and needs of employees and linking these motives and needs with organizational goals and objectives. Satisfying the needs would obligate employees to respond positively by exerting higher effort for the accomplishment of organizational goals (Aselage and Eisenberg, 2003, p. 492).

1.3.1.2. Organizational Support Theory (OST)

Organizations are organized groups of people managed to operate effectively to achieve organizational goals (Nadler, Tushman & Hatvany, 1982, p. 35). As it is already mentioned in social exchange theory, in organizational support theory employees identify managers' decisions as organizational decisions as well (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002, p. 566). Consequently, employees feel valuable and perceive that organization cares about them when they receive a favorable treatment by managers (Rhoades and Eisenberg, 2002, p. 698). Levinson (1965) argues that this perception is enhanced by organizational culture, polices, norms, leader's positive attitudes toward employees (p. 371). OST inherently assumes that POS is intensified when employees receive favorable treatment by their managers.

Organizational support theory advocates that "*employees develop thoughts and believes about the extent to which organizations value their efforts and shows concern about their well-being*" (Eisenberger, Armeli, Cummings & Lynch, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995). The theory suggests that perceived organizational support is primarily depended on the satisfaction of emotional needs at the workplace (e.g. social identity, caring and being accepted) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Sowa & Hutchison, 1986, p. 501). *"The norm of reciprocity seems to play an important role in the development of perceived organizational support"* (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 698). In addition to need satisfaction, the exchange relationship between employees and organizations is also shaped influenced by cost and benefit analysis. In other words, when individuals perceive that employers' rewards are valuable, employees show more generous reciprocity (e.g. higher productivity) (Eisenberger, Coterell & Marvel 1987; Cotterell, Eisenberger & Speicher, 1992). Organizational support theory is significant part of POS literature because it makes clear provides clear determnants and consequences of POS (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002).

1.3.1.3. Psychological Contract Theory

Psychological contract theory as other theories of social exchange theory addresses the employee-organization relationship (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003, p. 495). PCT is considered an important predictor of organizational behavior (Schein, 1988, p. 24) and used in many studies to explain several organizational outcomes like commitment, job satisfaction and job security. Researchers have published various recommendations on how to handle change in PCT and how to foster PCT in organization (Rousseau, 1995). Petersitzke (2009) determined that psychological contract is subject to constant change (p. 6). Furthermore, PCT similar to OST is based on reciprocity and mutual benefit approaches. Likewise, employees feel themselves obligated to exhibit managers' expected behaviors, as a response to earlier received favorable behavior and rewards (Rousseau, 1990, p. 391). For instance, when employees receive a good treatment from organization, then employees feel themselves obligated to reciprocate by showing a good behavior and attitude.

Henceforth, PCT evaluates the relationship and expectations of employees in exchange for their effort. Employees and managers are engaged in a sustained contract and each party has its own obligations and expectations toward another party (Guest, Isaksson & De Witte, 2010, p. 94). Accordingly, Guest et al (2010) determined that PCT develops from employees' perception and evaluation of obligation fulfillment by organizations (p. 95). Moreover, in this review PCT is evaluated as the perception of employees about exchange relationship with their leaders. These are the three main theories of POS in literature, and the following sections analyze the main reasons that foster development of POS and its consequences on individuals and organizations.

1.3.2. Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support

POS determinants have attracted researchers' attention particularly in organizational behavior field. Numerous models are offered using POS as mediator or moderator to explain behavioral relationships in organizations. In majority of these models, POS is thought to enhance commitment, motivation and several factors (such as human resources (HR) practices, organizations' treatment of their employees and managerial attitudes) are assumed to affect POS (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997 p. 83). In literature, the antecedents of POS are categorized under different categories. For instance, Alan, Shore, and Girffeth (2003) suggest that antecedents of POS are divided into three main

groups namely; being part of organizational decisions, fair procedures and policies and opportunities for growth (p. 101). However, in this study, the classification made by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) will be under scrutiny. The authors categorized the POS antecedents under four main headings namely; (1) organizational rewards and job conditions, (2) supervisor support, (3) fairness and (4) employees' characteristics (Rhoades & Eisenberger, p. 699). POS antecedents are presented graphically in the figure below and are explained in the following pages.
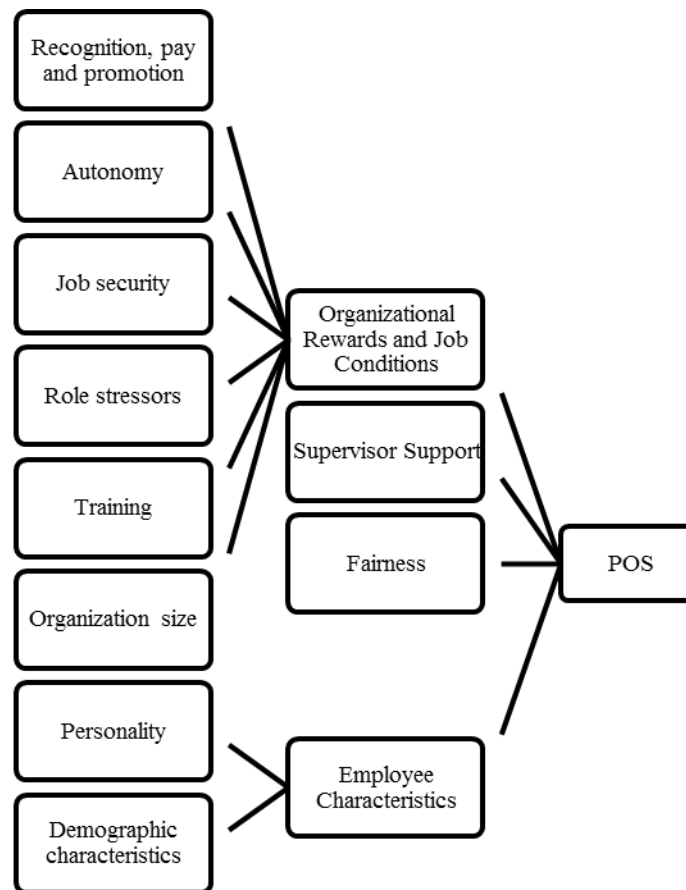
Figure 7. Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support. Adapted from "*Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature",* By R. Eisenberger and L. Rhoades, 2002. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(4), (p. 700-701).

1.3.2.1. Rewards and Work Conditions

Recognition of employees' contribution and POS are directly associated (Shore & Shore, 1995, p. 1595). Different kinds of rewards and favorable work environment are used in past empirical studies to examine the association between rewards, job conditions and

POS (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 700). Some of these rewards and job conditions are briefly reviewed and explained below.

Recognition, pay, and promotions are different type of rewards that employees expect in the workplace in exchange for their effort. According to Eisenberger and Rhoades (2002), when employees' performances are recognized, they are paid more or promoted for their effort, and they perceive that organizations appreciate their efforts and show concern about their prosperity (p. 700). In other words, the existence of promotion, higher payment, and recognition of effort positively impact POS.

Job security is the assurance that employees will work for the same organization in the future (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 700). When employees perceive job security, they feel themselves safe (e.g. free from being unemployed) and identify themselves more with organizational goals. According to reciprocity norm, in response to these positive feelings, employees are expected to show a better performance at work (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 1999, p. 100) and feel supported by the organization.

Autonomy is another concept that affects commitment in a negative way and cultivates turnover intentions (DeCarlo & Agarwal, 1999; Galletta, Portoghese & Battistelli, 2011, p. 4). Therefore, providing employees the autonomy or in other words, the freedom to decide about the accomplishment of the task, increases their perception of organizational support (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999, p. 1026). Employees perceive that organization trusts them. As Spreitzer and Quinn (2001) underline in their book that POS is higher in organizations that create manager-employee relationships based on trust (p. 374).

Role stressors or job-related stressors are inversely related to POS. There are three main stressors that are argued to be antecedents of POS; work overload, role ambiguity and role conflict (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 700). Since work overload and role conflict are principal variables in this study and their relationship with POS is reviewed thoroughly after other antecedents are scrutinized.

Training is a process or method that is taught in order to fulfill with the skill requirements of the job (Eiseberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 700). Wayne et al. (1997) described job training

as an investment in the employee. When employees are given training opportunities, they tend to believe that organization cares about their well-being (p. 84). Such a feeling elevates the perceived organizational support.

Lastly, *organization size* could be an important antecedent of POS given the fact that it influences the nature and quality of the communication within organization (Haveman, 1993, p. 595). Lack of communication and interaction between employees and managers weakens POS because employees are more likely to feel less valuable in the eyes of their organizations (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 700). However, it could be misleading to conclude that larger size organizations face POS issues. Relationship of organization size with POS depends on organizational culture. If the large size organization pays attention to employee needs and have an effective communication system, the effect of its size, which brings formality and strict chain of command may not give damage to POS.

1.3.2.2. Supervisor Support

Another important antecedent of POS widely discussed in literature is perceived supervisor support (PSS). PSS is the perception of employees whether managers value them and cares about them (Levinson, 1965; Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). Managers have power to control and direct employees to achieve the organization's goals and objective. Eisenberger and his colleagues (2001) employees regard the actions and decisions of their managers as if they were made by organization (p.43). Reflecting this fact, PSS and POS are found to be positively related to each other, most of the time PSS being a predictor of POS (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

However, Yoon and Thye (2000) claimed that the reverse is also possible meaning that POS could act as a predictor of PSS (p. 296). Regardless of the direction, interaction of PSS and POS changes according to the degree to which employees personify organization with managers. When managers have treated advantageously, have more access to information and participate in decision-making, then employees' POS is increased. Organizational support theory suggests that PSS has positive impact on decreasing withdrawal intention and increasing commitment in organizations (Eisenberger et al., 2001). When PSS is low, consequently POS decreases and employees are willing more to leave organizations and also other negative outcomes take place. Malatesta

(1995) found out that related to the norm of reciprocity, PSS would increase the extra-role performance of employees and both supervisors and organizations benefit from this situation (p. 24).

1.3.2.3. Procedural Justice (Fairness)

The third important determinant of POS is procedural justice. Andrews and Kacmar (2001) ascertained two components of organizational justice, *"distributive justice and procedural justice"* (p. 350). Distributive justice evaluates "perceived fairness of resources distribution" (Andrew & Kacmar, 2001, p. 357). On the other hand, procedural justice considers perceived fairness of procedures followed to distribute resources (e.g. promotion and pay rise) (Shore & Shore, 1995, p. 151). Furthermore, procedural justice has been conceptualized along with two aspects in literature namely; structural and social aspects (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997, p. 319). The structural aspect of procedural justice is related to formal rules and policies followed by organization. For instance, obtaining accurate information and proper notice before decisions are applied. The social aspect of procedural justice also referred as interactional justice, includes the interpersonal treatment in the allocation and distribution of resources.

Andrews and Kacmar (2001) underline that procedural and distributive justices depend on specific organizational decisions. However, individuals' perceptions of organizational support develop over time (Shore& Shore, 1995, p. 150) and are based on many decisions, rather than based on a one-time decision. Thus, employees' feelings of organizational support are expected to decline when they face unfair treatment regarding the distribution of resources throughout their employment (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandy, & Toth, 1997; Cropanzano et al, 1999; Eisenberg et al., 2002). In other words, fair organizational decisions positively influence POS in the long run. Andrew and Kacmar (2001) stress the potential role of leader-member exchanges on the relation between procedural justice and POS. The researchers use the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory to explain how out and in group relations shape the perception of unfairness (p. 351). According to LMX, relationships could be classified as in-group or out-group relationships (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001, p. 351). In-groups are the close relationships between supervisor and employee based on trust, support, interaction and formal or informal rewards. In contrast, out-group relationships between supervisor and employee are more formal with low levels of interaction and trust. This situation (.i.e., existence of

out-group relations) creates the perception of unfair treatment among employees and causes a decrease in POS (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001, p. 351). However, some authors do not accept the linkage between LMX and POS, because they believe that the distribution of resources is determined by organization not by a particular person such as a supervisor.

1.3.2.4. Employee Characteristics

Employee characteristics are another group of antecedents that are assumed to impact POS. By employee characteristics, authors mostly refer to employees' personalities and demographic characteristics. Personality is the combinations of qualities that an individual's character has and makes him or her unique and different from others (Singh, 2006, p. 60). Individuals could have different personality traits, yet of those traits, two of them are thought to influence POS. These two traits are benevolence and malevolence. (Eisenberg & Rhodes 2002; Watson & Clark, 1984, p.465).

Benevolence is the positive personality that allows an employee to create good impressions and interpersonal relationships. In contrast, malevolence personality reflects negative behaviors that prevent them from having good relationships and impressions. Therefore, the interpretation of organizational actions depends on whether employees have benevolent and malevolent personality traits (Witt & Hellman, 1992, p. 191). Furthermore, personality influences POS, which in turn influences the behaviors and attitudes of employees toward organization. Costa and McCrae (1985) identified another personality dimension, called as conscientiousness. Conscientiousness as a feature of character helps individuals to create a good relationship with organizations leading to increasing in POS (Rhodes & Eisenberg, 2002, p. 566).

1.3.3. Consequences of Perceived Organizational Support

Numerous studies reveal that POS generates positive organizational outcomes. Eisenberg and his colleagues (1986) assert that POS influences employees' interpretation of organizations' motives and may contribute to effort-outcome expectations (p. 501). The researchers usually have classified POS outcomes under two major categories namely; psychological and behavioral consequences. Given its prominence, Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002)'s classification will be discussed in the following sections. Among the consequences listed in Figure 8, the organizational commitment and its relationship POS

will be discussed in more details in later parts given the fact that these variables constitute main variables of interest in this study.
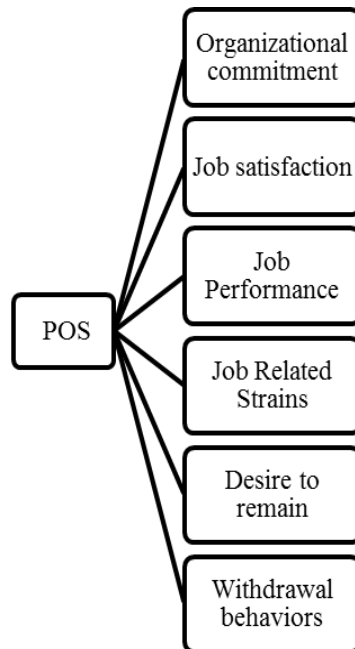
Figure 8. Consequnces of Perceived Organizational Support. Adapted from "*Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature",* by R. Eisenberger and L. Rhoades, 2002. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(4), (p. 700-701).

1.3.3.1. Job Satisfaction

POS and job satisfaction are two distinct albeit two related concepts (Ahmad & Yekta, 2010, p. 167). Locke (1976) explained "*job satisfaction is an emotional state of well-being experienced by an individual, after receiving favorable and unfavorable job experiences by organization*" (cited in Judge & Klinger, p. 394). Job dissatisfaction brings about poor performance of employees, less commitment, and higher turnover intentions. Eisenberg and Rhoads (2002) claim that POS could positively predict job satisfaction. The reason is threefold. Firstly, POS could meet employees' socio-emotional needs by giving them feeling of being valued and taken care of. Secondly, POS could raise employees' expectancies regarding reward-performance linkage, thereby make them more satisfied about the rewards they received. Finally, by means of POS, employees are more likely to perceive that organization is going to help them when they need. Such feelings are thought to contribute feelings of satisfaction (Eisenberg and Rhoads, 2002, p. 701). In line with assertions of Eisenberg and Rhoads (2002), many studies revealed a positive association between POS and job satisfaction (Burke & Greenglass, 2001; Stamper &

Johlke, 2003).

1.3.3.2. Job Involvement

Job involvement is another concept recently introduced in literature and is defined as "*the extent to which a person identifies oneself with his or her job*" (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey & Toth, 1997, p. 164). Individuals feeling high levels of job involvement are shown to exert efforts beyond their responsibilities, have more job satisfaction, motivation and work commitment (Gorji, Etemadi & Hoseini 2014, p. 16). Perceived organizational support is claimed to have a direct relationship with job involvement. Gorji et al. (2014) found tenure mediates POS and job involvement relationship (p. 19). More specifically, individuals who remain in the same organization for several years identify themselves with organization and perceive that organization cares about them as well. Gorji et al. (2014) results are also supported by the data collected from teachers and managers in high schools. POS makes employees identify themselves with the job.

1.3.3.3. Job Performance

Effective performance is what organizations are seeking in their employees. POS is listed as one of the main antecedents of the employee performance. According to reciprocity norm, employees who receive more resource and care from organizations are expected to show a higher performance level in order to fulfill the obligation they are feeling toward employers (Angle & Perry, 1983; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rousseau & Parks, 1990). Likewise, an increase in POS will make individuals more willing to show extra effort which could increase the task performance beyond the required task demands (Eisenberg et al., 1986, p. 501). Similarly, Gouldner (1960) and Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo & Lynch (1998) suggest that POS affects performance by satisfying socio-emotional needs of employees, which are known to be an important predictor of employee effort (p. 289).

George and Brief (1992), listed extra-role behaviors, which could be linked with POS. According to these authors, when employees receive adequate support from their organizations, they are more likely to help their coworkers, respond to the risks that threaten organization, assist their organizations to take advantage of the opportunities and increase their knowledge level to improve their performance (George & Brief, p. 312). Various authors have concluded in their empirical researches that POS positively predicts

performance at job (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Cropanzano et al, 1999, p. 164). Organizations by being supportive to their employee's needs and compensating them fairly, expect their employees to invest time and effort for accomplishment of organizational goals (Cropanzano et al., 1999, p. 165). Subsequently, employees' efforts result in higher work performance. However, there are researchers whose findings did not support the positive relationship of POS and performance (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996, p. 224).

1.3.3.4. Job Related Strains

The relationship between strain and POS has been demonstrated empirically in past studies. When subordinates perceive their supervisors to be supportive, positive outcomes are observed for both individuals and organizations (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002; Viswesvaran, Sanchez & Fisher, 1999, p. 328). Cropanzano et al. (1997) in their review reported that individuals who perceive support from third parties feel less stress and anxiety, higher levels of satisfaction and have better psychophysical health (p, 172). Accordingly, when employees are faced with high task demands, the emotional support and the aid provided by organization will alleviate the effects of those demands, thereby reducing the stress felt by the employees. POS provides positive effects on both high and low level of stress (Viswesvaran et al., 1999, p. 321).

1.3.3.5. Desire to Remain and Withdrawal Behaviors

Withdrawal behavior and desire to remain are two opposite feelings experienced by employees. Withdrawal behaviors are negative outcomes resulting from the lack of optimism about working for the same organization. However, desire to remain are positive outcomes that commit employees to continue working in the same organization. The main withdrawal behaviors encountered in literature are absenteeism, turnover intentions, and tardiness. Nevertheless, individuals who desire to remain in the same organization are motivated and emotionally connected to organization. Relationship between POS and turnover intentions is extensively studied in literature (Allen et al., 2003; Aquino & Griffeth, 1999). Perceived organizational support in literature is considered to be one of the main determinants of turnover intentions (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). Rhoades, Eisenberg, and Armeli (2001) declared that negative impact that PSS has on turnover intentions is mediated through POS. Additionally, Rhodes et al. (2001) suggest that

commitment mediates POS and turnover intentions relationship. POS and desire to remain are positively associated with one another. Thereby, when individuals perceive that organizational support them; their desire is to remain in the same organizations for long-term periods of time. Moreover, organizations are searching for manners and strategies to create an interrelation between employee and supervisor, aiming to decrease turnover intentions (Dawley, Houghton & Bucklew, 2010, p. 240). Buchanan (1974) suggests that there is created an affective attachment between individuals and organizations that value the contribution of subordinates and keeps its promises (Eisenberg et al., 1986). Same results were obtained by different authors and in different professions like engineers, hospital staff and scientist as well as blue collar workers (Steers, 1977; Cook &Wall, 1980).

1.3.4. Perceived Organizational Support and Work-Family Relationship

There is a constant increase of competition in job environment, with more women joining the labor market and raise of graduated student number. For that reason, employees are more stressful and exercise more effort to accomplish theirs over demanding jobs. Thereby, individuals are not to arrange a balance among life and job, that result in conflict between roles. Perceived organizational support or perceived manager's support is very crucial in diminishing WFC (Hammer, Hunthausen, Truxillo & Bauer, 2003, p. 545). POS helps to reduce stress level, subsequently reducing WFC. Thereby, Warren and Johnson (1995) found out that increase in POS decreased WFC (cited in Kahya & Kesen, 2014, p. 141). Several types of research advocate that POS is an antecedent of WFC (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner & Hammer, 2011). Similarly, there are studies performed in Turkey that found a significant relationship between POS and WFC, with POS impacting WFC (Turunç & Çelik, 2010). Gurbuz, Turunç, and Çelik (2013) concluded in his research on military forces that POS is significantly negatively associated with WFC and FWC (p. 145). Therefore, an increase in POS decreases WFC/FWC and a decline in POS intensifies WFC or FWC.

Moreover, there are studies that support not just the idea of POS predicting WFC, but also of POS serving as a mediator or moderator of the relationship of WFC or FWC with other concepts. Hao, Wang, Liu, Wu & Wu (2016) advocate that POS moderates the impact of WFC on stress (p.10). Foley, Hang-yue and Lui (2005) suggest that WFC and POS are negatively related to each other and POS moderates the relationship of WFC and FWC

with work stressors (p. 252). Additionally, POS serves as a moderator between WFC or FWC and organizational commitment (Casper et al., 2002, p. 104). However, POS usually is studied more as a moderator between WFC/FWC and work stressors or organizational commitment. Numerous researchers with samples from different professions suggest a positive impact of POS as a moderator between WFC and organizational outcomes. Altogether, previous researches determined POS impact WFC/ FWC, and serves as a mediator or moderator between WFC and other organizational outcomes. Therefore, researchers suggest that organizations should develop policies and strategies to enhance POS and decrease conflict between work and family lives (Selvarajan, Cloninger & Singh, 2013, p. 497).

1.3.5. Perceived Organizational Support and Workload Relationship

Work overload is another concept associated with POS. Nevertheless, there are fewer studies in literature analyzing the relationship between POS and work overload than those analyzing POS and WFC. Work overload is assessed as one of the main variables impacting the variance in POS (Allen, Armstrong, Reid & Riemenschneider, 2008, p. 560). Due to increase in competition organizations are seeking to increase their productivity and cut in expenses. For this reason, organizations require more effort and give more responsibilities to employees. Extra effort and responsibilities are shown to increase the work overload and consequently stress level of employees' workload (Pathak, 2000, p. 157). For instance, Jansen, DeJonge, & Bakker (1999) found work overload and time pressure as determinants of work stress among nurses. Since POS and stress are negatively related to each other it seems reasonable to expect POS and workload to be associated negatively with each other. In line with this expectations, Cortina and Landis (2013) reported a positive relationship between POS and work overload (p. 341).

Other studies instead have analyzed POS as a moderator of work overload with other concepts. Similarly, Cortina and Landis (2013) concluded that relationship of work overload and blood pressure of employees differs with POS (p. 609). Thereby, employees with low POS level experience a more significant increase in blood pressure caused by work overload than employees whose POS level is high (Cortina & Landis, 2013. p. 341). Ineffective job design strategies from managers is another factor that raises employees perceived work overload and decreases POS (Cullen, Silverstein & Foley, 2008, p. 63). Thereby, Allen, Armstrong, Reid and Riemenschneider (2008) determined that

manageable workload explains the variance in POS (p. 561). Thus, organizations decisions about job design strategies impact WL and POS. Additionally, work overload is a significant predictor of work stress and blood pressure that negatively influences POS.

1.4. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment (OC) is a thoroughly studied concept in organizational behavior field. It has been studied from different theoretical aspects. Young (2007) reported that organizational commitment in the past was surveyed more from the aspect of exchange theory and role conflict theory (p. 31). Nevertheless, current studies analyze OC in terms of behavioral and attitudinal standpoints (Zangaro, 2001, p. 15). Moreover, OC was firstly conceptualized as one dimensional, and then researchers concluded that OC is a multidimensional concept. Additionally, several multidimensional models of OC are developed in literature. Despite the numerous studies available, there is still no consensus about the definition of OC (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 303). Scholars suggest a variety of definitions for OC. Some of them describe commitment in terms of loyalty and effort, while others in terms of rewards and organizational identification.

Kanter (1968) is one of the earliest authors who described commitment as "*the willingness of employees to be loyal and use their energy for organizations*" (Angle & Perry, 1981, p. 2). Similarly, Farrell and Rusbult (1983) defined organizational commitment as "*the willingness of putting extra effort for organizational goals*" (p. 430). Moreover, Porter, Mowday, and Steers (1974) identified three perspectives of OC; I) strongly believing and accepting organizational goals, II) willingness to exercise effort beyond task requirements, and III) desire to keep the membership in the organization (p. 603-604). Comparatively, Buchanan (1974) describes commitment as *"an affective attachment beyond instrumental rewards"* (Angle & Perry, 1981, p. 2). Other authors instead (Steers, 1977) define organizational commitment as "*employee's identification and involvement in an organization*" (p. 47). Recently, *"organizational commitment is analyzed as an obliging force that controls employee's behaviors"* (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). Interestingly, definitions of organizational commitment seem to complete previous definitions and somehow fill the gaps of earlier researches.

In this study commitment is analyzed as the psychological process between employee-organization relationships about employees' decision remain committed (Allen & Meyer, 1991, p. 68). Thereby, Allen and Meyer's (1991) three-component model is taken into account to construct the research model. This model has three components namely; "*affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment*" (Allen & Meyer, 1991). Three-component model is significantly used in various studies. The OC definition proposed by Allen and Meyer (1991) is;

> "*A psychological state that characterizes employees' relationship with organization and has implication for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization*" (p. 67).

Nevertheless, in this study we have analyzed the first component of TCM developed by Allen and Meyers (1990). Thereby, the relationship of affective commitment with perceived organizational support, workload and WFC/FWC is evaluated. Allen and Meyer (1990) described "*affective commitment as an emotional attachment, involvement and identification with organization*" (p. 67). Three-component model and affective commitment are explained in detail in the following sections. Lastly, in order to understand more explicitly OC it is important to differentiate concepts similar to organizational commitment. Job commitment and job attachment are two constructs widely studied in literature and similar to organizational commitment. However, job attachment and job commitment are attitudinal responses to job rather than to organization (Rusbull & Farell, 1983). Thus, *"job commitment is a psychological attachment to job or occupation, while organizational commitment is a psychological attachment to organization"* (Williams & Hazer, 1986, p. 219). Next, motivation and OC are considered different but related concepts as well (Brown, 1996). Likewise, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) emphasize that commitment influences employee's behavior even when external motivations are not present (p. 301). Some other studies instead (e.g. Porter et al, 1974), suggest job satisfaction as another concept closely related to OC. Likewise, William and Hazer (1986) suggest that organizational commitment is an affective commitment toward organization, while job satisfaction is an emotional feedback to job (p. 219). Moreover, another concept closely related to organizational commitment is organizational identification. Pratt (1998) defined *"organizational identification as the degree to which employees' beliefs and self-concepts are integrated with organizations"* (p. 172). Therefore, both concepts explain relationship

between employees and organization. However, organizational identification analyzes this relationship according to employee's self-concept (Izod & Whittle, 2009, p. 26). In other words, in OC organization is remarked as the exterior part of employees while organizational identification as inner part. Other concepts usually confused with organizational commitment are organizational involvement and organizational loyalty. Etzioni (1961) explained organizational commitment in terms of organizational involvement. Moreover, organizational loyalty was studied and measured in terms of organizational commitment (Bennett & Kaufman, 2011, p. 362). Altogether, loyal and involved employees are committed and identify themselves with the organizations where they are members.

In this chapter, a thorough review of organizational commitment is undertaken in order to clarify how organizational commitment emerges and how it influences the behaviors and attitudes of employees in organization. Firstly, the importance of organizational commitment is briefly explained, and then its dimensions and approaches are reviewed. Lastly, antecedents are utterly revised, while consequences being not a priority in this study are shortly explained to have a more explicit understanding of concept.

1.4.1. Importance of Organizational Commitment

OC has been studied and inspected since the early 1960s. The findings of organizational commitment studies are important not just to organizations, but also to practice management as both parts are in search of ways to increase employee retention and work performance (Steers, 1977; Morris & Sherman, 1981, p. 513). Researchers' goal is to measure the intensity of employees' attachment to organizations and to understand the psychological importance that organization has for them (Buchanan, 1974; Benligiray, & Sonmez, 2012). Therefore, "*commitment is considered an important factor in predicting employee's behavior and understanding their psychological state*" (Porter, Mowday, & Steers, 1979; Eisenberger, Fasolo, LaMastro, 1990; Jaros, 1997). Indeed, organizations appreciate committed employees and incentive them with "*extrinsic (e.g. salary) and intrinsic (e.g. psychological) rewards* "(Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171).

Currently, organizational commitment has been studied in different disciplines such as sociology, psychology, human resources management and particularly in organizational

behavior. There are voluminous numbers of studies performed in different settings with different professions (e.g. teachers, nurses, scientist etc.) (Buchanan, 1974; Jaros, 1997, p. 341). Furthermore, Bateman and Strasser (1984) identified some important relationships between organizational commitment and employees (p. 97). These relationships emphasize why the study of OC is important. Firstly, Bateman and Strasser (1984) determined that OC is particularly related to employees' behavior in organization (e.g. turnover, absenteeism, performance effectiveness, and job researches activities). Secondly, authors argued that OC is related also to employees' attitudes. Similarly, OC determines employee's job and role characteristics (e.g. autonomy and responsibility, job variety, social interactions, amount of feedback provided on job, task identity, role conflict and ambiguity). Lastly, according to Bateman and Strasser (1984) and Steers (1977) organizational commitment has proved to be closely related to personal characteristics of employees (e.g. need for achievement, age, sex, role tension, education, central life interest and job tenure) (p. 109).

Organizations are seeking committed employees who perform above required duties, in order to efficiently achieve their goals and objectives (Farndale, Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hailey, 2011, p. 114). Some of the main outcomes of organizational commitment are explained below in the consequences of organizational commitment part including job performance, turnover rate, productivity (Porter et al. 1984; Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Next, dimensions and fundamental approaches developed by scholars are reviewed in following. Thereafter, antecedents and consequences of OC are briefly discussed.

1.4.2. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Becker (1960)'s theory is one of the first studies that analyzed OC dimensions. However, it continues to be a challenging concept of empirical studies. Then, later studies focused their attention more on the psychological side of commitment without underestimating economical aspect of OC suggested by Becker. As it is already mentioned, Side-bet Approach conceptualized commitment as one-dimensional. However, in the early 1980s researches started to consider OC as a multidimensional construct. Despite numerous studies and models in literature, yet there seems to be disagreements about OC definition and categorization of dimensions (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 300). Moreover, these disagreements lead to problems and confusions about construction of models in OC

studies as well. Consequently, the following part analyzes the dimensionality of organizational concept based on the approaches and models developed by different scholars.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) analyzed various definitions of numerous researches and concluded that OC is categorized in two dimensions namely; attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment. The classification of organizational commitment is presented schematically below in Figure 9.
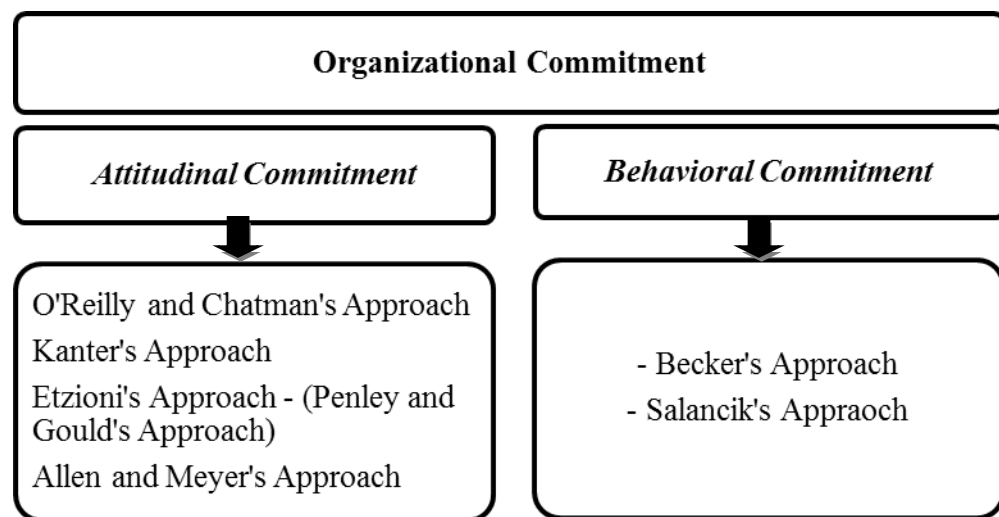
Figure 9. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from "*Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*", (p. 19-45). By R.T. Mowday, L.W. Porter, & R.M. Steers, 1982. New York: Academic Press.

1.4.2.1. Attitudinal Commitment

Mowday and his colleagues (1982) explain that *"attitudinal commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization"* (p. 27). Furthermore, Mowday and his colleagues (1982) suggest three factors that define attitudinal commitment:

       I)   Acceptance and belief in organizational goals and values.

      II) The consent to exercise more organizational effort.

      III) Affection to continue working at the same organization.

Attitudinal commitment develops consistently over time as employees become conscious about the significance that organization has for them (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 28). Meyer and Allen (1991) presented attitudinal commitment approach graphically as it is showed in Figure 10. Additionally, Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest the presence of secondary relations in the attitudinal approach. For instance, conditions (e.g. choice, revocability) influence psychological state of employees, which consequently has an impact on employees' behavior or attitudes. Then, behavioral consequences of commitment have an impact on conditions. Thus, these conditions have a significant influence on change in commitment or stability of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 199, p. 62).
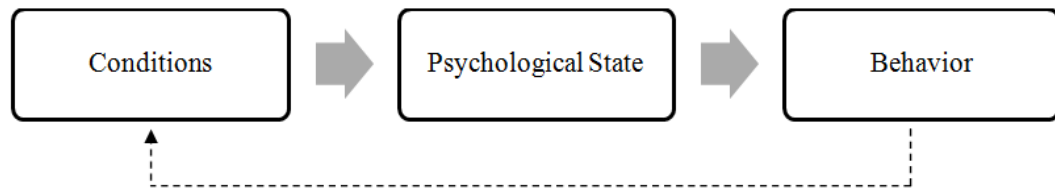
Figure 10. Attitudinal Perspective of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from *A three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment,* by J. P. Meyer and N. J. Allen, 1991. Human Resource Management Review, (p. 63).

The main approaches related to attitudinal commitment are O' Reilly and Chatman, Allen and Meyer, Kanter and Etzioni's approach, whose model was further developed by Penley and Gould. Each of the approaches developed by above mentioned scholars is discussed below.

1.4.2.1.1. Etzioni's (Penley and Gould's) Approach

Penley and Gould (1988) model of OC was initially proposed by Etzioni(1961). Etzioni's model (1961) is composed of three dimensions embracing both forms of commitment, instrumental and affective (Penley & Gould, 1988). Penley and Gould (1988) suggest that Etzioni's model (1961) prospect the explanation of employees' extra behaviors in organization. The three dimensions developed by Etzioni (1961) are; moral, calculative and alientative commitment. The model is presented schematically in Figure 11.
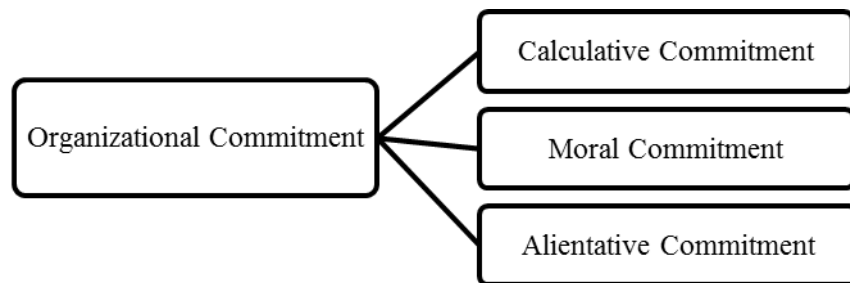
Figure 11. Etzioni's Approach of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from "*Etzioni's Model of Organizational Involvement: A Perspective for Understanding Commitment to Organizations*", by L. E. Penley & S. Gould, 1988.Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9, (p. 43 - 59).

According to Etzioni (1961), *calculative commitment* reflects an agreed exchange relationship between organizations and employees. This commitment is similar to exchange theory or instrumental motivation developed by Barnard (1938) and Wiener (1982) (cited in Penley & Gould, 1988, p. 47). Similarly, Penley and Gould (1988) defined calculative commitment as attachment based on contributions provided by employees in exchange for receiving remuneration (p. 47). Whereas, *moral commitment* or referred by Etzioni (1961) as moral involvement is the affective attachment of employees with organizational commitment. Employees experiencing high levels of moral commitment identify themselves with organizational goals (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Penley & Gould, 1988, p.49). Lastly, *alienative* term was firstly mentioned by Karl Marx with the meaning of "a lack of control". Thereafter, Etzioni (1961) used this term in his study to determine the third dimension of OC. Alienative commitment is the commitment that employees have toward organizations when they do not have alternative employment opportunities or alternative better earnings (Penley & Gould, 1988, p. 49). Emmployees lack alternative jobs, loss of family ties due to immigration, financial loss such as pension plans and other similar situations. Penley and Gould (1988) argue that alienatively committed employees would continue to work for the same organization even if the received rewards are less than their efforts (p. 44). However, they assure that calculative committed employees would leave the organization under the same circumstances. Likewise, aleinatively commitment is also referred as negative organizational commitment (Penley & Gould, 1988, p.44). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) think that Etzioni's (1961) model provides broader definitions of commitment and employees' commitment pertain to one of the three categories (p.24).

1.4.2.1.2. Kanter's Approach

Kanter (1968) conceptualized commitment as the "*willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems*" (Kanter, 1968, p. 499). The researcher uses social actors in lieu of employees and social system in lieu of organizations. According to Kanter (1968), commitment not only integrates the requirements of social systems with the experiences of social actors but also plays a crucial role in understanding employees' motivation. Kanter (1968) identified three main dimensions of organizational commitment namely: continuance, cohesion and control commitment. The model is presented schematically in Figure 12.
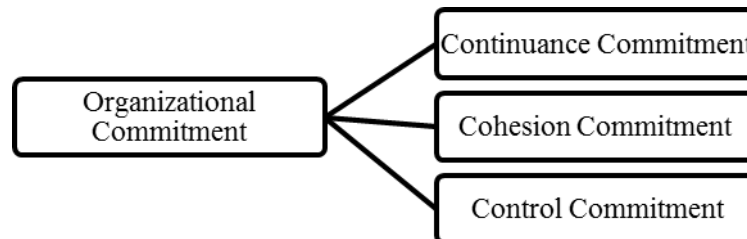
Figure 12. Kanter's Approach of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from *The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization,* by N.J. Allen & J.P. Meyer, 1990. Journal of occupational psychology, 63(1), (p.2-4).

Continuance commitment reflects the commitment of employees who continue to participate in the organization because they gain profit and leaving organization would cause them some costs (Kanter, 1968, p. 501). When explaining the continuance commitment, in parallel with Kanter, claims that employees would continue to work for the same organization as long as the costs of remaining within organization are lower than costs of leaving. Kanter (1968) highlights two important processes that would unfold commitment; sacrifice and investments. Therefore, continuance commitment is also viewed as the devotion to organization because of previous sacrifices and personal investments (Kanter, 1968, p. 505). These sacrifices and investments could be regarded as huge costs by employees.

Cohesion commitment is defined as *"organizational attachment emerging from close social relationship within the organization*" (Hall, 1993, p. 681). Kanter (1968) discusses cohesion commitment as the affective and emotional attachment of employees to the social groups

in organization. This type of organizational commitment is also composed of two important elements which unfold commitment; renunciation and communion (Kanter, 1968, p, 507-508). Last commitment type cited by Kanter (1968) is *"control commitment, known as the attachment related to organizational norms and codes"* (Hall, 1988, p. 680). These norms and codes influence employees' behavior and performance. As in other types of organizational commitment (i.e., cohesion and continuance commitment), control commitment has also two main elements which are namely mortification and surrender (Kanter, 1968, p. 510).

Kanter (1968) underlined the existence of different types of commitment because employees are expected to show different patterns of behavior in organizations. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) emphasized that the approach developed by Kanter (1968) is different from that of Etzioni (1961) because Kanter's model includes interrelated types of commitment. These types could be used concurrently for the development of commitment. Moreover, each type of commitment strengthens the other commitments and together influence employee-organization relationship.

1.4.2.1.3. O' Reilly and Chatman's Approach

O' Reilly and Chatman (1986) focused on the psychological aspect of OC. Authors suggest three dimensions of commitment namely: compliance, identification and internalization dimensions. The model is presented schematically in Figure 13.
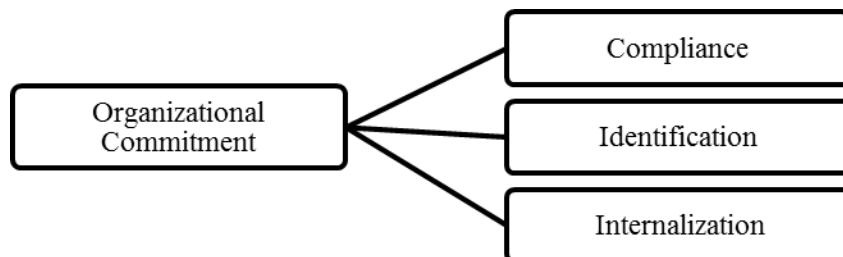
Figure 13. O'Reilly and Chatman's Approach of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from "*Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior*", by C. A. O'Reilly, J. Chatman, 1986. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 71(3), (p. 493-498).

In compliance commitment, employees are committed to their organization because they receive extrinsic rewards, not because they share the same beliefs with organizations

(O'Reilly, & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Herscovith, 2001, p. 302). On the other hand, identification reflects a desire to affiliate in organization (O' Reilly, & Chatman, 1986, p. 494). Affiliation with the organization makes employees satisfied for being a member of it, it does not make employees internalize the values' of the organization (O'Reilly, & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Herscovith, 2001, p. 302). Last commitment dimension, internalization, reflects the involvement based on the mutual values of employees and organization (O' Reilly, & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Herscovith, 2001).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest that internalization and identification are strongly affiliated with one another. Additionally, there is a positive correlation between tenure and identification and a lack of association among internalization and tenure. Compliance dimension instead is negatively associated with the tenure and is unrelated to extra-role behaviors (O' Reilly, & Chatman, 1986, p. 492). These authors concluded in their study that newly hired employees base their commitment on compliance dimension as extrinsic rewards are the main reason why they continue to work for organization (p. 497). Moreover, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) observed that time passes internalization and identification dimension become important to employees because they identify themselves and affiliate more with organization (p. 497). A major contribution of O'Reilly and Chatman's study (1986) is the assumption of other behavioral outcomes related to psychological commitment such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

1.4.2.1.4. Meyer and Allen's Approach

The most prominent model in literature that explains the employee-organizational relationship is "*Three-Component Model*" developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). TCM is presented schematically in Figure 14. Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three dimensions of commitment namely; "*affective, continuance and normative commitment*". Affective commitment is the "*emotional attachment"* that employees have toward the organization where they are employed (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Meyer & Allen, 1990, p.3). Additionally, Meyer and Allen (1990) divided AC into three components; "*a) emotional attachment to the organization b) identification with the organization and c) involvement in the organization"* (p. 4). In other words, individuals continue to work for the same organization because they are emotionally attached to organization and enjoy being part of it (Allen & Meyer, 1991).

Employees feel like they belong there and want to work for the same organization for a long period of time or until they get retired (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Eisenberger et al, 2001, p. 825). According to Lee and Mowday (1987), employees have a sense of belonging and identify themselves with organizations, are psychologically more attached to organizations (cited in Kumari & Afroz, 2013, p.25). Furthermore, Kumari and Afroz (2013) emphasize that affectively attached employees do not only feel psychologically attached to organizational goals, but also to organizational culture, organizational policies and procedures, reputation of the organization and to their managers (p. 826). Moreover, employees who are affectively attached to organizations engage more in activities in order to achieve organizational goals (Eisenberger et al., 2001, p. 825).

Affective commitment is the most studied component of TCM, both empirically and theoretically (Kusluvan, 2003, p. 526). Most of the studies suggest that determinants of AC are grouped under three main categories; work experience, personal characteristics and organizational characteristics (Kumari & Afroz, 2013, p.25). Furthermore, affective commitment leads to positive organizational outcomes. Likewise, when employees identify themselves with organization and subsequently exercise more effort to achieve organizational goals. As a result employees' performance increases and organizational goals are successfully achieved. Numerous studies have found a significant relationship among affective commitment and self-perception of performance, job effort, turnover rate and absenteeism (Jamal, 1990; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Baugh & Roberts, 1994). Additionally, empirical findings suggest that relationship of organizational outcomes is stronger with affective commitment than continuance and normative commitments (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2009, p. 75). Furthermore, Beck and Wilson (2000) concluded that AC develops as tenure increases.

As indicated before, the other dimensions cited in Meyer and Allen's model (1990) are continuance and normative commitment. *Continuance commitment* reflects a perception of social or economic cost of leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1990, p. 4). Whenever social or economic costs are perceived high by employees, they would show a stronger desire to continue being a member of organization (Jaros, 1997, p. 320). Continuance commitment develops when employees are conscious that leaving organization would cost them more loss than gain from available employment alternatives. *Normative commitment* involves a feeling of obligation toward organization (Jaros, 1997, p. 321). Meyer and Allen

(1991) assessed that employees with high normative commitment level feel themselves under obligation to not leave the organization.
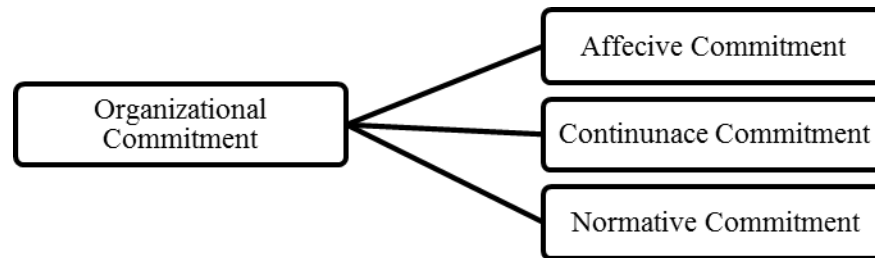
Figure 14. Meyer and Allen's Approach of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from *A three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment,* by J. P. Meyer and N. J. Allen, 1991. Human Resource Management Review, (p. 68-69).

Meyer and Allen (1991) assert that according to attitudinal interpretation, three-component model analyzes commitment as a psychological situation that defines employee-organization relationship. However, the psychological state is thought to be different for each dimension. Employees experiencing "*affective commitment*" stay in the organization because they "*want* to", those with "*continuance commitment*" stay because they" *need to",* and employees with "*normative commitment"* stay because of obligation like they "*ought* to" do so (Meyer, Allen, & Smith 1993, p. 540). Additionally, Meyer and Allen (1991) advocate that employees experience different level of the three commitments. Moreover, voluminous studies are focused on the differences between the three forms. Jaros (1997) suggest that Meyer and Allen (1991) focused not just on the observation of differences, but also on predicting the similitude among the three dimensions (p. 9). An important similitude cited by Jaros (1997) is the impact that each dimension has on employees' decision to remain within organization (p. 10). This model assumes to analyze the relationship that organizational commitment has with turnover, job performance, absenteeism, tardiness, and citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002, p. 43). These authors contributed significantly to the organizational commitment academic literature, particularly with the affective commitment.

This model has also been subject to criticism. There are scholars who declared that three component model does not even serve as a model of OC due to inconsistencies in conceptualizations. Scholars argue that this model predicts just the employee turnover, the behavior to stay or leave the organization without representing a wider scope of

organizational behaviors (Solinger, Van Olffen & Roe, 2008, p. 73). Another criticism is that the model is not empirically sustained and this criticism about three component model is related mainly to *"the position of continuance commitment as a dimension of the overall commitment construct, and to the relation between normative and affective commitment"* (Solinger et al, 2008, p. 74).

1.4.2.2. Behavioral Commitment

Mowday et al. (1982) suggest organizational commitment to be an active employee-organization relationship rather than loyalty of an employee toward organization. The scheme of behavioral commitment is presented in Figure 15. Mowday et al. (1982) identified secondary relations influencing also on behavioral commitment approach. Moreover, in the behavioral approach scheme, attitudes produced by a behavior could cause the behavior to be repeated again. The main approaches developed in behavioral commitment are the side bet approach of Becker and Salancik's approach.
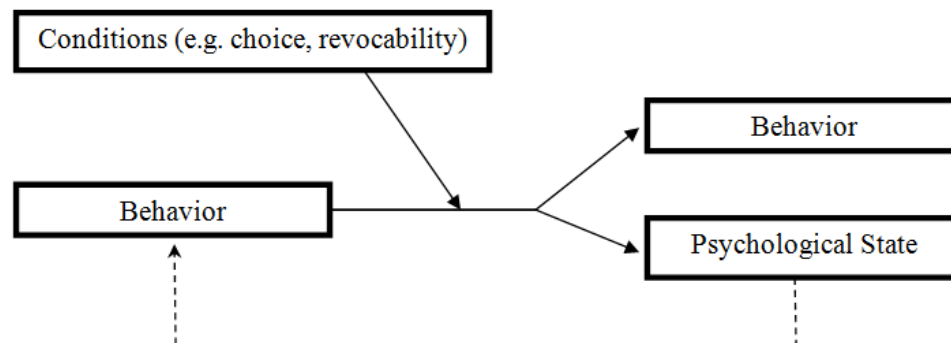
Figure 15. Behavioral Perspective of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from *A three Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment,* by J. P. Meyer and N. J. Allen, 1991. Human Resource Management Review, (p. 63).

1.4.2.2.1. Side-Bet Approach (Becker's Approach)

Howard Becker is perhaps the first researcher who conceptualized organizational commitment from the perspective of employee-organization relationship. In 1960s, Becker

developed a side-bet theory that analyzes the employee-organization relationship from an economical view. Side bet term is referred to the accumulated investment of an employee in the organization where is currently working. Becker (1960) suggests that employees stay committed and find it difficult to renounce because of investments that they have made in organization. These investments are hidden investments and their value is assessed by employees. Even though, the side-bet theory is not widely used in the recent researches, it provided important insights about the affiliation of OC and turnover intentions.

1.4.2.2.2. Salancik's Approach

Salancik (1977) defined commitment as an identification of employees with organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Salancik (1977) suggest three main factors that influence the commitment of employees; visibility, irrevocability and volitionally. The approach of organizational commitment developed by Salancik (1977) contributed significantly in the academic researches. Salancik (1977) analyzed organizational commitment from two points of view; as organizational behavioral approach and as a social psychology approach. The model is presented schematically in Figure 16.

Figure 16. Salancik's Approach of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from "*Commitment and the control of organizational behavior and belief*" (p. 1-54), *by G.* Salancik, 1977. In B. Staw & G. Salancik (Eds.). New Directions in Organizational Behavior. Chicago: St. Clair.

Buchnan (1974) and Porter et al. (1974) suggest that organizational behavior is the process during which employees identify themselves with organizational values and goals (cited in Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, p. 24). Additionally, Staw (1977) categorized organizational behavior approach as attitudinal commitment. The social psychology approach asserts that employees' past behaviors (e.g. invested time and effort in the

organization) are the reason that they feel committed to organization (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 25). In this approach organizational commitment is assessed as an attachment implied by costs and investments in organization. Staw and Salancik (1977) are also referred to this approach as behavioral commitment. Salancik (1977) asserts that commitment is able to adjust the attitudes of employees in order for them to not leave. Mowday et al. (1982) underline that approaches developed by Salancik (1977) are firmly related to each other. Organizational behavior approach (attitudinal commitment) is viewed as the process of employees' reflection for their relationship with organization. Additionally, the social psychological approach (behavioral commitment) is the continuance of the first process where employees are committed and how they approach this situation. Consequently, employee would enhance both attitudinal and behavioral commitment simultaneously (Mowday et al., 1982).

In the below sections, prominent theories and models that address the dimensions of organizational commitment were discussed. However, it is not worthy to acknowledge that there are models and approaches, which have not been discussed in here, yet somehow related to the above-mentioned approaches and models. Many other models recognize the instrumental commitment, of perceived cost of leaving the organization which is referred as continuance commitment (Becker, 1961; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Penley & Gould, 1988; Allen & Meyer, 1991).

The difference between the attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment does not rely just on the different approaches developed by different authors, but also they differ in antecedents and consequences researches. Meyer and Allen (1991) assert that in attitudinal approach, study is focused more in distinguishing the antecedents that contribute to foster commitment. In contrast, behavioral approach researches are focused more on the consequences related to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following part analyzes OC antecedents and consequences.

1.4.3. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Antecedents of organizational commitment are studied intensively in literature. Analyzing the antecedents of commitment not just helps us to understand the commitment concept

better, but also gives us the knowledge about the factors that foster OC. Antecedents are the factors that influence employees to feel committed to organization after they are hired. Therefore, in this study the OC antecedents are categorized into three main groups namely; individual antecedents, organizational antecedents, and non-organizational antecedents. This categorization is based on previous researches of organizational commitment antecedents. Antecedents are presented in Figure 17 and are explained in detail below.

Individual/ Personal Antecedents

- Age and Tenure
- Gender
- Education Level
- Marital Status

Organizational Antecedents

- Role Related Characteristics
- Organizational Structural
- Work experience and work environment
- Organizational Support

Non-Organizational Antecedents

- Professionalism
- Alternative employment opportunities

Organizational Commitment

Figure 17. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from "*Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*", (p. 19-45). By R. T. Mowday, L.W. Porter, & R.M. Steers, 1982. New York: Academic Press.

1.4.3.1. Individual Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Employees' personal characteristics (e.g. age, tenure, education, race, gender, marital status etc.) constitute individual antecedents of organizational commitment. Parsons (1968) claimed that the behavior of employees is an outcome of their personality and organizational factor thereby personality could affect organizational commitment

substantially (p. 138). In fact, the effects of personal characteristics, especially the effects of personality are thoroughly investigated in literature. However, in order to not diverge out of the scope of this study, some of the personal antecedents of commitment are not reviewed. The main personal antecedents investigated in this research and considered to have an important effect on organizational commitment are education level, gender, marital status, age, and tenure.

1.4.3.1.1. Education

Education level is an important predictor of organizational commitment and negatively impacts commitment (Angle &Perry, 1981). In the early 1960s seeking advanced formal education was seen as a variable that enhances organizational commitment. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) evoke us that formal religious affiliations in some societies were seen as an incentive for development and maintenance of occupational or organizational status (p. 562). However, in the recent years, highly educated people tend to be less committed. Meyer and Shoorman (1998) suggest that well-educated individuals have higher expectations than individuals with less education level (p. 19). DeCotiis and Summers (1987) argue that sometimes expectations of highly educated individuals are far beyond the reward that they receive and these expectations are not compatible with their skills, knowledge and education level (p. 462). Whenever the expectations of high educated individuals are not satisfied by the organizations, this would decrease their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Besides that, individuals who are highly educated have more alternative employment opportunities causing a decrease in commitment (Mayer & Shoorman, 1990, p. 20). Mowday and his colleagues (1982) emphasize that individual who has a higher education level might be more committed to their profession than organization, which makes it difficult for organization to gain the psychological attachment of these individuals.

2.4.3.1.2. Gender

Another personal antecedent of commitment is gender. However, researchers reported conflicting results regarding the association of OC and gender. Men and women employees are considered to perceive different levels of commitment because of their

family-related responsibilities. While some of the studies reported that women are more emotionally attached than men (e.g., Hrebiniak &Alutto, 1972; Angley & Perry, 1981), others found men more committed than women (e.g., Graddick & Farr, 1983, p. 642). Several studies emphasized that the level of organizational commitment does not depend on gender (Riketta, 2005). Recently, it is hypothesized that much of the differences between men and women regarding organizational commitment may not the mere effect of gender.

Despite the inconclusive results, some researchers explained why gender could affect organizational commitment. For instance, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argue that gender could influence organizational commitment by shaping the employee's perceptions about their organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990), as well as Scandura and Lankau (1997) claimed that organizations providing family support programs (e.g. flexible working hours) have more committed employees because such programs help employees to balance job and life demands. The researchers note that the family oriented programs could enhance the organizational commitment of female employees since women are the ones who face more WFC due to their heavier burden in family responsibilities. Another important reason that explains the difference in commitment between genders is related to the social culture where the studies have been performed. There are cultures where gender gaps between women and men are huge, such as most of the men work and most of the women are housewives. In these cultures, men are expected to show a higher commitment level than women.

1.4.3.1.3. Age and Tenure

Two principal predictors influencing organizational commitment are age and tenure. Cohen (1993) underlines the importance of age and tenure as the main measures of side-bets, or the accumulated investments perceived by employee that are lost if individual leaves the organization (p. 144). Wiener (1982) declared that age and tenure have a significant impact on commitment (p. 421). Age is considered an important variable in organizational commitment as long as it is analyzed analogously with tenure (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 26). The reason why age is not considered a distinct antecedent of OC is the existent evidence of the negative relationship with OC. Moreover, the length of service increases together

with the age, making employees more committed and less attracted to alternative employment opportunities (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). Researchers concluded that alternative employment opportunities decrease as employees' age and tenure increases (March & Simon, 1958; Angel & Perry, 1981). The limited alternative employment opportunities would make employees more psychologically attached to the current organization (Mowday et al, 1982, p.26).

However, in the recent year's empirical researches emphasize that significance of age and tenure as predictors of organizational commitment is less than they assumed in the earlier studies (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990). Employees being recently graduated show a higher level of commitment due to lack of experience, consequently less employment opportunities (Allen & Meeyer, 1984, p. 4). Mowday et al (1982), Rusbult and Farrell (1983) also highlighted the significance of alternative job opportunities (Cohen, 1993, p. 145). According to Cohen (1993), the argument provided by Meyer and Allen highlights the fact that the degree of organizational commitment is different at different age groups because of alternative job opportunities (p. 145). Consequently, the influence of age and tenure on organizational commitment is different at different age groups. Therefore, the weak relations of age or tenure with organizational commitment could be moderated by employment stages (Cohen, 1993, p.145).

1.4.3.1.4. Marital Status

Marital status is an essential demographic characteristic that influences OC positively (Siew, Chitpakdee & Chontawan, 2011; Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson & Anthony, 1999). Accordingly, married employees have more family obligations and in need for a job, subsequently being more committed (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 568). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argued that link of OC with marital status could explain in terms of the financial burdens (p. 177). Since married employees have more financial burden than unmarried employees, it is expected that married employees would show a higher level of commitment. However, marital status may negatively influence OC of an employee. Likewise, married individuals have more responsibilities than unmarried individuals, because their load of family responsibilities is higher. Therefore, job demands conflict with family demands leading to WFC. Then, individuals who experience WFC could become

less committed to their organization. Nevertheless, the relationship between organizational commitment and WFC is discussed in detail in the following parts.

1.4.3.2. Organizational Antecedents of Commitment

This part reviews how organizational antecedents impact employees' OC. Organizational commitment is influenced by perceived work environment and job characteristics (Mowday et al., 1982). Salancik (1977) suggests that work environment and job characteristics enhance employees' sense of responsibility, thereby their commitment as well (Mowday et al, 1982, p. 58). For instance, employees feel more committed if they perceive their work environment to be social and friendly (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Some of the main job characteristics and work environment that foster organizational commitment are; role related characteristics, structurally related characteristics, work experience and work environment (Mowday et al, 1982, p. 32). Many researchers have categorized organizational predictors in a more detailed manner being management, organizational justice, rewards, organizational culture, team work, payment satisfaction etc. In this study, organizational predictors are adapted from Mowday and his colleagues (1982). Additionally, under this categorization, the most important assessed predictors are included as well.

1.4.3.2.1. Job Related Characteristics (Role Characteristics)

Organizational commitment is closely associated with job-related characteristics (Mowday et al, 1982, p. 32). Watson, D'Annunzio-Green, and Maxwell (2004) in their book assert that organizational commitment is related to role theory as well. Mowday and his colleagues (1982) identified three categories of role-related factors; "*job scope, role conflict and role ambiguity*" (p. 32). Job scope and OC are directly associated to each other. Lewis, Goodman, Fandt and Michlitsch (2006) define job scope as the number of different tasks that comprise a job and the frequency with which each task is accomplished (p. 192). Jobs that constitute of many tasks, have a broad scope and jobs that constitute of fewer tasks have narrower scope. Stevens and his colleagues (1978) highlight that as the number of job activities and operations increases (job scope increases), employees are more committed as they face more challenges (p. 158). Mowday et al. (1982) agree with

former researches that an increase in job scope would increase the challenge faced by employees and consequently increase their commitment. Various studies demonstrate the significant relationship between commitment and job challenges (Steers, 1977; Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972).

Unlike job scope, role conflict and ambiguity are inversely related with commitment (Babakus, Cravens, Johnston & Moncrief, 1996, p. 41). March and Simon (1958) declared that perception of employees about remaining or leaving the organization is related to their work role satisfaction (p. 94). An employee who is not satisfied with his/her work reports lower levels of OC (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 567). Social environment and role within organization influences and determine the behaviors and satisfaction of employees (Benligiray & Sönmez, 2012, p. 3892). Moreover, role as an antecedent of OC is conceptualized by two different constructs; "*role ambiguity and role conflict*" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 32)*. "Role ambiguity is the uncertainty related to responsibilities and expectations of the role and occurs when employee is not clear about his or her tasks and authority"* (Benligiray & Sönmez, 2012; Jones, 2007). These constructs are determined and studied in different researches as sources of workplace stress (Judeh, 2011, p. 173). Employees perceiving high level of stress are less satisfied, show lower level of motivation, lower performance, and less commitment. Jackson and Schuler (1985) suggest that if employees feel uncertain and unclear about their job and responsibilities, they will cease from organization decisions and reveal negative behaviors toward organization (p.108).

Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) defined role conflict as the conflict of expectations and demands between roles, or the failure to comply with the rules and commands in an organization (cited in Judeh, 2011, p. 173). Role conflict is divided into two distinct types; intra-role and inter-role conflict. Forsyth (2009) defined intra-role conflict as *"conflict resulting from contradictory demands within a single role"* (p. 156). Judeh (2011) suggest that conflicts are not always destructive, and conflicts can have positive impacts as well (e.g.organizational development) (p. 174). However, if intra-role conflicts are not properly managed they can lead to negative work outcomes (e.g. dissatisfaction, organizational commitment, stress). "*Inter-role conflict occurs when the behavior and requirements of a certain role are incompatible with the demands and behavior of other roles*" (Forsyth,

2009, p. 156). When individuals find that their role as spouse or parent interferes with their work role, they experience inter-role conflict and feel less bound to their work. Therefore, role related predictors of commitment suggest that whenever task requirements are not ambiguous, employee does not faces role conflict or experiences role stress, and are provided with more challenge commitment level is increased (Mowday et al, 1982, p. 32). Stress and uncertainty are thought to have negative impact on organizational commitment, as individuals will value more the alternatives outside organization (Hrebiniak, & Alutto, 1972, p. 568).

1.4.3.2.2. Organizational Structure

Organizational structure is a formal system of authority designed by organizations to define tasks, establish the interaction and coordination of individuals and groups to successfully achieve organizational goals (Aquinas, 2009, p. 94). It is important that organizations are well coordinated in order to eliminate ambiguities and use resources efficiently. Organizational structure's association with OC is not investigated as intensely as other antecedents in literature. Stevens, Beyer, and Trice (1978) are assumed to be the first researchers who correlated organizational structure with commitment (cited in Mowday et al, 1982, p. 32).

Although, the results regarding organizational structure as antecedent of organizational commitment are contradictory. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggest that organizational characteristics like organizational structure may influence employees' commitment (p. 181). Moreover, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argue that the nature of organizational structure is fundamental for the group relationship that will be established and determines leaders' behavior. Subsequently, leaders' behavior directly has an influence on employee commitment. Klein, Becker, and Meyer (2012) underline that the study of organizational structure is a significant determinant of OC, because it influences the relationship of employees with organizations (p. 288). In this study, the dimensions of organizational structure developed by Klein et al. (2012) are adapted; centralization, organizational size, culture, and communication. Various studies have included different dimensions of organizational structure like stratification, formalization, complexity, union presence, span

of control and participation in decision-making. In this study, in order not to deviate from the research purpose, not all the structure antecedents are investigated.

Various authors suggest a positive relationship of decentralization with OC (Glisson & James, 2002; Subramaniam, McManus & Mia, 2002) suggest a significant relationship between centralization of authority and organizational commitment (p. 318). Similarly, Bateman and Strasser (1984) concluded that in nurses, centralization of authority and OC are directly associated (p. 107). The results regarding the relationship of organizational commitment with centralization are inconsistent to one another. For instance, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) concluded a non-significant relationship among commitment and centralization. Mowday et al. (1982) suggest that decentralization and increased autonomy are significantly related to organizational commitment.

Organizational size is assessed as an antecedent that influences the development of organizational commitment. Mills, Helm Mills, Bratton and Forshaw (2006) define organizational structure as the entire number of employees working in the organization (p. 474). Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) suggest that employees in large organization feel less valued than in small organizations. Authors argue that small organizations are more flexible and responsive to employee's needs, and this increases the employees' commitment. On the other hand large companies because of the greater number of employees and limited time have a more decentralized and complex structure (Amah, Daminabo-Weje & Dosunmu, 2013, p. 117). Amah et al. (2003) suggest that small size organizations stimulate commitment and motivation, as they have more optimistic organizational culture, management is more consultative and employees' self-esteem is higher (p.118). Various researches are performed on the structure of high education institutions. Blau (1994) suggest that large size institutions have a more complex structure that negatively influences organizational commitment (p. 164). Similarly, Umbach (2007) concluded that small size institutions are more able to enhance commitment (p. 116). Although, there are researches that do not support connection between organizational size and commitment (Mathieu& Zajar, 1990; Rhodes, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001).

Organizational communication is another important antecedent that researchers assume to be related to organizational commitment (Allen, 1992). Communication is one of the

crucial activities performed in an organization during the day like sharing information about the tasks and organizational goals. Klein, Molloy, and Brinsfield (2012) emphasize the importance of both formal and informal communication structure in the enhancement of organizational commitment (p. 131). Downs and Hazen (1977) identified several communication items that could enhance commitment like rapid feedback, integration and top to bottom communication (Varona, 1996, p. 3-5). Some of these variables provide more communication satisfaction to employees than other variables. Supervisory communication, communication climate, and personal feedback are the items that correlate more with job satisfaction (Downs & Clampitt, 1993). Various studies highlight that employees who are satisfied with the management's communication, will probably be more committed (Downs & Adrian, 2012).

Organizations that encourage both horizontal and vertical communication, provide employees the opportunity to understand of organizational goals. This makes employees more committed to organization as a whole and to the organizational goals (Wright, Gardner & Moynihan, 2003, p.32). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggest that accurate and timely supervisory or leader communication fosters employees' commitment to the organization (p. 180). Putti, Aryee, and Phua (1990) underline that satisfactory communication relationship with top management and supervisors strengthens the organizational commitment (p. 48). Open communication and adequate information from upper level to lower levels in an organization enhance organizational commitment. Most of the studies highlight a direct and positive relationship of organizational commitment with communication. Therefore, Carriere and Bourque (2009) suggest that satisfaction is considered an intermediate variable of communication and organizational commitment (p. 35). However, there are studies that deny any kind of association among OC and commitment (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988, p. 506).

1.4.3.2.3. Work Experience

Work experience is the last category of antecedents determined by Mowday et al. (1982). Studies in literature have identified several work experience variables that influence organizational commitment; perceived organizational support, organizational justice, leadership and human resource practices (Flores, 2008, p. 28). Wiener (1982) suggests

that strong relationship between work experience and commitment derives from psychological comfort, a feeling of being competent and consistent in job. Buchanan (1974) also emphasizes that the nature and quality of work experience determine OC (p. 542). Background of work experiences is assumed to influence employees' commitment positively or negatively. Additionally, Buchanan (1974) underlines that early work experience has a larger influence on the development of commitment (Flores, 2008, p. 33). Employees formulate expectations based on their experience. Those who have more work experience usually have more expectation than those who do not have too much experience. When employees' expectations before joining organization are asserted, employees feel more committed to organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment is also enhanced and developed through socialization. Mowday et al. (1982) recommend that work experience is viewed as a socializing force. Moreover, employees during socialization process understand better organizational goals and values (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Jones (1986) suggests that employees of organizations that have their socialization institutionalized formally would report greater commitment. Below a brief literature review is provided for work experience antecedents of organizational commitment (p. 78).

Leadership and organizational commitment are the two main constructs studied comprehensively in different fields and professions. The behavior and attitudes of leaders have a direct impact on employees and fosters their OC (Berry, 2008, p. 17). Pitman (1993) in his study of white-collars highlights a positive relationship between charismatic leader and employees' organizational commitment. Other researchers like Young-Ritchie, Laschinger, and Wong (2007) suggest that nursing leadership behavior is a determinant element of OC (p. 417). Perceived leadership style is an important factor as perception is fundamental element in shaping employees behavior (Griffin & Moorhead, 2011, p. 76). Individuals perceive the same thing or situation differently. Employees who perceive their supervisors to be communicative, supportive and fair show higher level of OC (Kacmar et al, 1999, p. 395). Likewise, several researches highlight that a positive perception and interaction with supervisors is a significant predictor of OC (Blau, 1985; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997).

Right human resource practices also enhance OC (Turnbull, Blyton & Turnbull, 1992, p. 169). HR practices are rules and policies applied by organization to successfully achieve organizational goals through individuals. Wright and Keohe (2008) highlight that HR practices motivate employees to perform non-compulsory behaviors that increase organization's performance (p.13). Practices generally used by HR are compensation plans, bonuses for successful performances, share of the gains, promotion, training, participation in decision making, information sharing etc. (Wright & Kehoe, 2008, p. 14). Walton (1985) argues that HR practices provide mutual benefit to both organizations and employees (p. 77). Increasing commitment to HR practices does not mean just higher profits, but also increase in well-being, self-worth and dignity of employees (Walton, 1985, p. 78). Several studies have concluded a significant relationship between the two constructs (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). However, Meyer and Allen (1997) enhancing commitment starts with creating a good perception in employees about efforts exercised by organization. TCM argue that an employee might be committed for different reasons (Allen & Meyer, 1991). An employee might need to continue in order to not lose the pension plan, might be obligated from family pressures or it could be the voluntary desire because of a good relationship with management. Thus, bearing in mind employees' perception of organization, HRM should integrate rigorous and thoroughly investigated HR practices to foster OC (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997).

Lastly, organization justice measures the level of fairness that individuals perceive in the organizational decisions (Foster, 2010, p. 2). Gouldner (1960) and Blau (1964) are the first authors who investigated the relationship of organizational justice with organizational commitment. They explained the relationship between two constructs based on SET. Researchers suggest that individuals will remain in the same workplace as long as they perceive a fair exchange process between their effort and organizational decisions (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964). Several studies suggest that organizational justice and organizational commitment are directly related to each other (Mowday et al, 1982; Cohen, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Loi et al. (2006) found out that perception o employees about organizational justice and their commitment augments as POS increases (p. 118). Numerous researches underline that outcome is more important than procedure. Likewise, distributive justice is more important than procedural justice in OC. In other studies, procedural justice is a more significant predictor of OC (Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

1.4.3.3. Other Organizational Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Locke (1976) explained that *"job satisfaction is the positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of ones' job or job experiences"* (cited in Glisson & Durick, 1988, p. 65). Mowday et al. (1974) explained the difference among the two constructs. Organizational commitment is more comprehensive than job satisfaction because it is an affective attachment to the whole organization (Mowday et al, 1974, p. 226). Additionally, job satisfaction is referred as the reply of employee to his or her job or to certain features of the job (Mowday et al, 1974, p. 226). Mowday et al (1974) argue that commitment is more stable than satisfaction and its development takes more time than development of satisfaction. The degree of satisfaction and commitment influences employees work performance and consequently organizational success. Several researches suggest that *"job satisfaction is an antecedent of OC"* (William & Hazer, 1986, p. 224). Other studies instead allude that "*OC is a determinant of job satisfaction*" (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p. 9). Additionally, there are studies that suggest "*no relationship between OC and job satisfaction*" (Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller, 1986, p. 853). However, numerous studies relate job satisfaction to organizational commitment (Cropnazano & Konosvky, 1991; Mathieu & Zajac). Brown and Peterson (1994) suggest that job satisfaction positively influences organizational commitment (cited in Stewart, 2008, p. 11). Similarly, employees whose level of job satisfaction is high do not search for alternative job opportunities or think about leaving the organization (Sager, 1994; Boles, Johnson & Hair, 1997, p. 21).

Job Stress is an antecedent that adversely influences organizational commitment (Wells, Minor, Anger, Matz & Amato, 2009). Crandall and Perrewe (1995) defined job stress as negative feelings experienced in the workplace (p. 114). Dworkin, Telschow and Dworking (1990) argue several sources of job stress, like the relationship with colleagues, superiors or customers, hierarchical situations and work assignments (p. 66). In the last decades, job stress has become an important topic of research due to the negative impacts that it has on both organizations and employees. Employees who perceive stress at job perform less efficiently at work, have a higher absenteeism rate and are willing to leave organization. Somer (2009) concluded that job stress is significantly affiliated with to AC and insignificantly affiliated with CC (p. 273). Moreover, some researches refuse the

existence of any kind of relation between OC and stress at work (Yaghoubi, Yarmohammadian & Javadi, 2008).

1.4.3.4. Non-Organizational Antecedents of Commitment

Non-organizational predictors of OC are equally important to OC organizational determinants. Non-organizational factors of commitment are categorized in two groups; professionalism and alternative employment opportunities.

1.4.3.4.1. Professionalism

The number of professionals and new professions has grown constantly. This has intrigued researchers to scrutinize conflict, professionalism and organizational commitment relationships. Vollmer and Mills (1966) defined professionalism as "*the set of attitudes in relation to the conduct, qualities, and work that characterize the professional group with an ideology and associated activities*" (Cited in Widhiarso & Ravand, 2014, p. 42). Hall (1986) identified five dimensions that distinguish profession from occupation; autonomy, belief in public service, belief in self-regulation, sense of calling to the field and using professional organization as a major referent (p. 109-110). Pankin (1973) in his study suggest that professionalism and organizational commitment are related to each other from three aspects namely; conflict, compatibility, and adjustment (cited in Holliman, 2012, p. 35).

Holliman (2012) underlines that conflict among professionals and organizations emerge when they have controversial views (p. 129). Raelin (1986) highlights that managers expect professionals to abide to their directive and to organizational procedures. However, professionals diverge from mangers' expectations because they are faithful to their professions' principles. This causes conflict between management and professionals, then as a consequence OC of professionals is diminished. According to Rinke (2009) compatibility aspects assert professionalism and bureaucratization to emerge within the same social group (p. 19). Finally, adjustment aspect according to Pankin (1973) suggests that relationship between organizations and professionals is interactive and mutually adaptive (cited in Holliman, 2012, p. 35). Therefore, bureaucracy in an organizational should be compatible with professionals' principles and methods of doing work in order to foster organizational commitment. Moreover, organizations that provide

adaptive coping strategies to their professionals would enhance organizational commitment of their employees. In other studies, professionalism is analyzed as a mediating variable of organizational commitment (Nixon, Martin, McKeown & Ranson, 1997, p. 112). Most of the researches analyzing the influence of professionalism on organizational commitment are in the fields of teaching and nursing.

1.4.3.4.2. Alternative Work Employment and Career Opportunities

The existence of alternative work employment opportunities influences employees' organizational commitment. Perceived lack of employment alternatives is related to the continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 74). Employees who have more employment options are less committed to the current organization. In contrast, employees that have less employment alternative are more committed to their organization because they perceive that leaving organization includes many costs (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 74). According to Becker's (1960) theory, the likelihood that employees will commit to an organization is positively related to quantity of side-bets they identify. For instance, the decrease in alternative employment opportunities increases the perceived cost of leaving organization (Meyer& Allen, 1990). Similarly, other researches which included in their study exchange theory concluded that organizational commitment is higher for employees who have less alternative options for employment (Meyer & Allen, 2000, p. 291). Although, Meyer and Allen (1984) suggest that organizational commitment for some young employees is higher than many older employees because they lack experience and their alternative employment opportunities are less (p. 377). Farrell and Rusbult (1981) argue the influence of lack of alternative employment opportunities on organizational commitment by analyzing the economic recessions and high unemployment rate periods (Cooper, 2012, p. 71).

However, individuals beside employment opportunities are in search of career opportunities as well. Organizations, as the time passes should provide to their employees the opportunity to grow, develop and advance in the workplace. It is important to realize the employees' need for self-actualization. Otherwise, they will seek alternative career and employment opportunities. Kent and Otte (1982) suggest a significant relationship between organizational commitment and career development opportunities (p. 10). Bateman and

Stresser (1984) advocate OC and career relationship is a negotiation between organizations needs and employee's needs (p. 108). Several studies concluded that employees willingness for having a good career is closely related to OC (Sturges, Guest & Mackenzie Davey, 2000. p. 366). Similarly, many studies suggest that lack of alternative employment opportunities for employees increases their organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1973).

1.4.4. Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Consequences of organizational commitment are extensively studied in literature. Organizations are in search of high quality employees, and by developing optimal work arrangements and opportunities organizations try to keep their employees committed (Wright and Corpanzano, 2007, p. 95). The costs of leaving are high for employees and for organizations as well. Wright and Corpanzano (2007) argue that it is important to follow effective recruitment policies and develop HR practices that retain successful employees within organization (p. 101). The costs related to employee turnover are divided in three groups; separation costs, replacement costs (hiring new employee) and training costs (Wright and Corpanzano, 2007, p. 98). The consequence variables of organizational commitment discussed under this section are adapted from the model developed by Steers' (1977). In this study consequences of organizational commitment are not of primary interest. Therefore, a brief review of the main consequences is provided below. The consequences reviewed below are; turnover, performance, absenteeism and job effort.
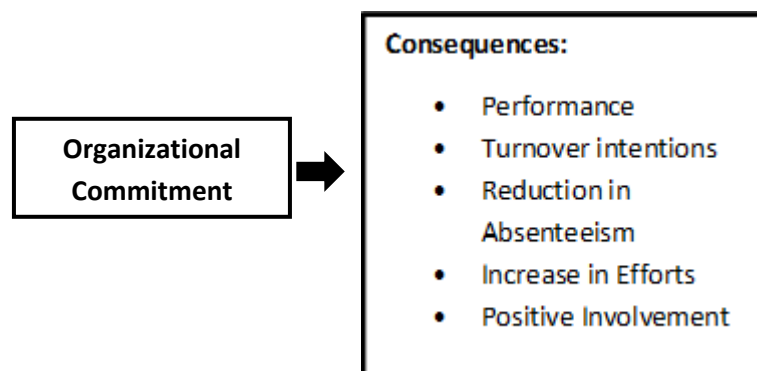
Figure 18. Consequences of Organizational Commitment. Adapted from "*Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*", (p. 19-45). By R. T. Mowday, L.W. Porter, & R.M. Steers, 1982. New York: Academic Press.

The outcomes of OC in various studies are related to turnover intentions (Wiener, 1982). Employees that feel less psychologically attached to their organization are more willing to leave. Similarly, Mowday et al. (1982) argue that highly committed employees would report lower turnover rates. Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) suggested three main categories of employee turnover determinants: general economic conditions, work-related factors, and individual factors (cited in Wright and Corpanzano, 2007, p. 98). Numerous researches suggest a direct and strong connection between OC and turnover intention (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter et al, 1976; Steers, 1977; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Parasurman, 1982). Performance is another variable that is closely related to organizational commitment in literature. Employees that feel committed to current organization would remain in the same organization even if organization is going through difficulties. Committed employees would work beyond the required tasks, protects organizations' assets and reputation, have strong work ethics, are cooperative and punctual (Allen & Meyer, 1997). These are some of the qualities that committed employees possess, thus exhibiting superior performance at work. Mowday and his colleagues (1982) suggest that OC has a direct impact on performance. Similarly, different studies suggest a direct positive association of OC and performance (Farrell and Rusbult, 1981; Mowday et al, 1974; Steers, 1977; Porter et al., 1976; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). However, other studies have concluded a week relationship between OC and performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), others instead concluded a negative relationship between commitment and performance (Steers, 1977).

Absenteeism is also considered an important outcome of organizational commitment. Barling and Cooper (2008) defined absenteeism as the failure to appear in the workplace at the scheduled time (p. 160). Trist and Hill (1953) analyzed absenteeism as a temporal disengagement with the job due to dissatisfaction (cited in Barling & Cooper, 2008, p. 160). Several authors suggest a positive relationship between organizational commitment and absenteeism (Steers & Rhodes, 1978). However, the influence of organizational commitment on absenteeism has contradictory results in literature (Angle &Perry, 1981; Hammer, Landau, & Stern, 1981; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Steers, 1977). Likewise, Angle and Perry (1981) suggest a positive relationship between absenteeism and orgnizational commitment, but Hammer et al. (1981) report a negative relationship.

Balu and Boal (1987) assume that inconsistencies of results rely on measurement issues of variables and conceptualization of dependent and independent variables (p. 288).

Job effort is another outcome of organizational commitment suggested by Steers (1977). According to Steers (1977) employees who are committed to their organizations would exercise more efforts on the job (p. 48). Several researches suggest that committed employees exercise more effort and show a better performance at work (Meyer et al, 2002; Wasti, 2002; Janoniene, 2013), while other researchers concluded no relationship between the two constructs (Kidwell &Robbie, 2003) (cited in Ali, 2015, p. 294). Several studies have included also other organizational outcomes (e.g. organizational citizenship behavior, positive involvement, interpersonal trust, and agreement with organizational changes) though this study interest is not the consequences but the antecedents of organizational commitment. Therefore, the review of organizational outcomes is concentrated more on the main important consequences without deviating from the purpose of study. The following part investigates thoroughly the relationship of organizational commitment with other variables that are part of this study.

1.4.5. Organizational Commitment and Work-Family Conflict

Work–family conflict produces stress-related outcomes making role conflict an important predictor in organizational behavior literature (Frone et al., 1997, p. 718). WFC is one of the stressors that causes employees feel less OC (Jennings & Baker 2003, p. 56). According to Festinger (1957), employees who perceive contradictions between their beliefs and behaviors, respond by changing either their behavior or beliefs because of unbearable psychological situation (Casper et al, 2002, p. 100). Allen et al (2000) underline that results about WFC and OC relationship are inconsistent to one another and put the emphasis on inspection of WFC. A few researches concluded outstanding results related to the negative and significant impact of WFC on OC (Perrewe et al, 1995; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netmeyer et al, 1996; Thompson & Lyness, 1997; Kossek & Ozeki 1999; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). However, some studies suggest no relationship between the two constructs (Casper, Martin, Buffardi & Erdwins, 2002; Wiley, 1987; O'Driscoll et al., 1992; Schenewark, 2008, p. 82). Casper et al (2002) explain that

ambiguous results of WFC and OC relationship in the past research are due to unclear conceptualization and measurement of constructs (p. 100).

Furthermore, some studies assert that WFC and FWC influence positively turnover intentions and searching alternative employment opportunities (Burke, 1988). Consequently, WFC, and FWC influence negatively employees' commitment to their organization. Thereby, WFC and FWC are strongly related to organizational commitment (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 408). Moreover, it is of significant importance to remember that both WFC and OC are analyzed more specifically, like evaluating the relationship between constructs dimensions. WFC is analyzed as two-dimensional concept in literature, WFC and FWC respectively. Some authors have analyzed the relationship between WFC and OC, by analyzing all the three dimensions of organizational commitment. On the other hand, other authors have not taken into consideration the different components of commitment. Lyen and Thompson (1997) are an example of researchers that took into account all components of OC. The results of their study showed that WFC and AC are negatively associated. Likewise, Good et al. (1988) concluded a negative relationship of AC with WFC/FWC. In numerous studies, WFC and affective commitment are inversely related (O'Driscoll et al., 1992; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

However, there are studies that did not found any opposite relation between WFC and AC (Casper et al, 2002, p. 104). Similarly, Akintayo (2010) claims a negative influence of WFC on affective commitment. The reason for this result according to authors is the homogeneous sample used in this study compared to the heterogeneous sample used in past researches. Casper et al. (2002) argue that when employees perceive WFC they continue to remain in the organization because they have to and not because they want to. Researches also analyzed how different forms of conflict influence OC. Lambert et al, (2003) in their study with social and human service workers concluded that behavior-based conflict significantly influences organizational commitment. Similarly, Tesone (2008) suggest that behavior based FWC predicted organizational commitment (p. 246). Comparably, Kacmar, Carlson, and Williams (2000) concluded that organizational commitment and behavior-based conflict are significantly related to one another (p. 268). In other studies, time-based conflict is concluded as the main indicator of organizational

commitment (Greenhaus &Beutell, 1985). Likewise, studies suggest that conflict increases as time spent with family and work life increases (Duxbury & Higgins, 1994; Gutek et al., 1991). Siu (2014) suggests a negative relationship of strain based and time based conflict with affective commitment. Then, Siu (2014) concluded that strain based work-family conflict is positively related to continuance commitment, while time based work-family conflict is not significantly related to continuance commitment. However, affective commitment was not related to strain based and time based family-work commitment. Gender is usually used as moderator of relationship between WFC and OC.

Additionally, time-based FWC and affective commitment are inversely associated for male employees (Siu, 2014).In some studies, work-family conflict is analyzed as antecedent of organizational commitment. However, in other studies organizational commitment is perceived as antecedent of work-family conflict. Empirical researches suggest that committed employees work above and beyond their work demands (Daft, 2012, p. 392). Bailyn (1993) and Parasuraman et al. (1996) highlight that an index of commitment is employees who work long hours. When employees are highly committed they spent most of the time in accomplishing their tasks and leaving behind their family responsibilities. Therefore, researchers suggest that high commitment would cause roles to conflict with one another (Bailyn, 1993; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997).

A bunch of researches suggests that work-family programs are a good incentive to enhance commitment and reduce work-family conflict (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Hammonds, 1997). The increase participation of woman in the workforce is one of the main reasons for the development of family supportive programs (Rousseau, 1995). Generally, the policies used by organizations to support family responsibilities are flexible working hours, child care opportunities and leaves of absence (Allen, 2001, p. 414). Allen (2001) suggests that work-family programs are important to both organizations and employees. Work-family programs help employees to manage and coordinate their multiple roles' responsibilities, while organizations advantage is to have committed employees. Allen (2001) proposes that when employees feel to be supported less about family issues by their organization, then role conflict and WFC increases (p. 429). Thereby, significant results have been attained, suggesting an inverse relationship between OC and WFC (Good et al., 1988; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Therefore, an increase in WFC would

decrease the level of OC in employees. Additionally, Ahuja et al. (2007) emphasize that WFC influences OC indirectly, as WFC causes work exhaustion that impacts commitment that one has toward organizations.

Work-family conflict is a concept that is critical to both individuals and organizations. Studies about WFC have been at the attention of many researchers worldwide and mixed results have been achieved because of difference in samples and measurement techniques. Work-family conflict has been a topic of research and has attracted the attention of researchers in Turkey as well. Identical to the studies performed in the foreign countries, also in Turkey the samples and the measurements of WFC have been different by different researchers. Mainly the studies have been focused on the service sector and the samples usually composed of professionals (white collars), such as accountant, teachers, and managers. Furthermore, samples have been categorized according to gender and marital status (Zıncırkıran & Tıftık, 2014). Some of the studies' results obtained in different regions in Turkey do not match with the general results obtained in other countries. For instance, in a study performed in Diyarbakir by Zıncırkıran and Tıftık (2014) with practitioner of accountancy to measure the degree of WFC and FWC, most of the answers were *"I am not sure"*. However, this might be related to the interest or scarce of participants to respond properly. Efeoğlu and Özgen (2007) investigated the influence of WFC on job stress, job satisfaction, and OC. Thereby, results demonstrated that WFC had positive impact on job stress and job satisfaction, while negative impact on organizational commitment. Similarly, Efeoglu (2015) supports the previous results about the negative impact of WFC on OC.

However, Sonmez and Benligiray (2012) evaluated the relationship of OC and WFC among nurses and doctors. Results revealed a week and positive relationship between the two constructs. Additionally, Sonmez and Benligiray (2012) suggest that WFC increases as OC rises. Additionally, WFC and OC linkage was not supported by all researches (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006, p. 173). Thereby, in Turkey, the relationship between OC and WFC is evaluated in numerous studies. Moreover, results are controversial with some studies alluding a positive relationship, others a negative relationship between constructs. Additionally, there are studies that did not find any significant relationship at all.

1.4.6. Organizational Commitment and Workload

Workload is another construct that influences employees' behavior at work. In literature, perceived work overload is significantly associated with organizational commitment (Azeez & Omolade, 2013, p. 122). Numerous empirical and theoretical studies have examined work overload and OC direct association, whereas other studies have investigated the mediation or moderation effect of OC on work overload and other constructs. Researches on the relationship of these two constructs have achieved sound results on the negative impact of work overload on OC. Reliable conclusions for OC and work overload relationship have been received from different samples in both private and public sectors. Dewe (1992) showed that WL is one of the principal determinant of stress at work. Moreover, Greenberg, Sikora, Grunberg and Moore, (2008) underline that work overload fosters frustration and resentment feelings in employees (p. 12). Thereby, employees struggle to bear the stress generated by work overload and decide to leave organization. Thus, work overload influences negatively organizational commitment of employees (Flores, 2008, p. 162). Ultimately, employees who bear an overload at work are expected to be less committed to organizations.

Sager and Wilson (1995) suggest that work overload leads to turnover intentions. Malik, Sajjad, Hyder, Ahmad, Ahmed and Hussain (2013) in their study on CSRs observed a negative association of turnover intentions and job stress that is generated from work overload (p.1573). Similarly, other authors emphasize that relationship between work overload and intentions to leave organizations is mediated by other variables as well (e.g. job satisfaction, organizational commitment) (Hulin & Judge, 2003; Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal Bashshur, 2007, p. 517). In addition to that, WL negatively predicts job satisfaction (Rageb, Abd-El-Salam, El-Samadicy & Farid, 2013, p. 52). Correspondingly, job satisfaction and OC are positively affiliated with one another. As a result, individuals who are not satisfied with their job do not cultivate any commitment feeling for organization. Conclusively, voluminous studies have determined that employees perceiving WL are less committed, less satisfied and more aspirant to withdraw from organization (Jones, Chonko, Rangarajan, & Roberts, 2007, p.668). Moreover, other researchers have also inspected the association of perceived work overload with OC dimensions. Results reveal that work overload is a strong determinant of affective commitment (Malik, Malik & Waheed, 2010, p. 227). Somers, (2009) also established a negative impact of job stressors on affective commitment (p.79). Lastly, work overload is

negatively correlated to organizational commitment and to OC first component, affective commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 324).

Work overload and organizational commitment are two constructs that is over studied in a lot of countries. Determinants of employees' organizational commitment and its impacts on employee behavior and attitudes occupy a considerable number of organizational behavior studies in literature. Additionally, organizational commitment and its relationship with other variables have been studied extensively in Turkey as well. These researches complete OC and work overload literature, and provide the fundamentals for comparing organizational outcomes and employees perception in different countries. A lot of empirical researches are performed on both blue and white collars and also on different professions (e.g. teachers, health staff, hotel staff etc.). Some researches revealed a negative association between the two constructs, and others instead did not find any correlation between the two. However, Oral (2015) established that OC and perceived work overload are strongly and directly associated among hotel employees. Similarly, Kaya (2007), Hoş and Oksay (2015) also determined that work overload impacts organizational commitment (p.14). Thus, work overload is considered a determinant factor of OC.

Nevertheless, work overload is not only a determinant factor of OC but also perceived work overload is influenced by organizational commitment. Thereby, employees who are committed, accomplish their tasks more successfully even under high pressures of stress. Thereby, Duygulu and Abaan (2007) in their study among nurses observed that work overload increases stress level perceived by employees. However, high committed nurses were able to manage better their stress level and work overload than their less committed coworkers (Duygulu &Abaan, 2007, p. 66).

1.4.7. Organizational Commitment and Perceived Organizational Support

Researchers in the last decades have analyzed the exchange relationships among employees and organizations, and particularly employees' perceptions of this reciprocal relationship (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). POS and OC are two important distinct concepts of this study. Even though, POS and OC are independent constructs from each other, they are analogous concepts (cited in Morin, Rousseau & Aube, 2007, p. 481). Perceived organizational support and affective commitment are closely related to SET (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, and Cropanzano, 2005, p. 155). Individual perceiving

organizational support is more motivated and dedicated to their work. These employees have a better performance relative to others and feel emotionally bound to organization. Meanwhile, organizations profits from committed employees to achieve their goals and keep skilled employees in the organization. POS assures employees that the organization stands behind them as they perform their jobs and handle stressful conditions, and these supported employees would value more and respect more the organization for which they work for (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993).

According to literature reviews, Eisenberger et al (1986) are assumed to be the founders of POS concept. Moreover, Eisenberger et al (1986) are also the first authors who evaluated the relationship of POS and OC. Commitment and POS research Thus, the relationship between the two constructs dates since the early studies of POS concept. Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) explains that POS produces emotional commitment toward organization, as employees believe that organization is always available to help them with their needs and provide rewards for their efforts. Voluminous studies indicate a positive relationship between POS and OC, with POS being a significant predictor of OC (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002;; Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen, 2009 etc.).

Perceived organizational support is thought as one of the main factors that foster AC to organization. Moreover, other researchers ascertain a strong significant relationship of POS with organizational commitment's dimensions. Meyer and Allen (1991) argue that satisfying employee needs by recognizing their efforts and status would help them create their social identity that consequently would increase organizational commitment (Aube, Rosseaue & Morin, 2007, p. 481). Therefore, perceived organizational support positively influences affective commitment.

Other researchers have measured the effect of POS on OC by including also moderators' and mediators' role. Morin et al. (2007) included work autonomy and locus of control as moderators of POS and organizational commitment relationship. The relationship of POS to OC is mediated and moderated by different variables (e.g. job satisfaction, OBSE etc.). Perceived organizational support is used as a moderator in different studies as well. However, POS as a moderator is discussed in the following parts. In this part, the relationship between POS and OC is reviewed in different researches worldwide, and below a review of the main studies related to POS and organizational commitment

performed in Turkey is provided.

Parts of OC and POS's comprehensive literature are also researches pursued in Turkey. Perceived organizational support is studied considerably in Turkey, although not as intensively as organizational commitment. Additionally, the study of the relationship between POS and OC has also stimulated the interest of several researchers in Turkey. The majority of the samples include white collars populations. Ucar and Ötken (2010) concluded a significant relationship between POS and OC, and it is partially mediated by organizational-based self-esteem (OBSE) (Ucar & Ötken, 2010 p. 85). Moreover, their results support the findings of Eisenberger and Rhoades (2002), Corpanzano and Folger, (1991), Wayne et al (1997) and other authors. Thereby, they concluded a positive influence of POS on AC and NC and a negative influence on CC. Hence, Robbins et al (2009) underline a strong relationship among perceived organizational support (POS) and affective commitment (AC).

Similarly, Üren (2011) in her findings suggest a significant positive relationship of POS with AC and NC and no correlation between POS and CC. Colakoglu, Culha, and Atay (2010) in their study argue that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between POS and OC, and POS has a significant impact on affective commitment. Likewise, Ersoy (2014) also was engaged in a research in hotel industry like Colakoglu et al (2010) suggesting a significant positive influence of POS on OC. Numerous researches in Turkey have also analyzed perceived organizational support with other variables (e.g. self-efficiency, organizational cynicism, organizational citizenship behavior etc.). Definitely in Turkey, POS's direct and positive impact on OC and AC is supported by many studies and in different fields (e.g. Gürbüz, 2012; Yokus, 2006 etc).

Taken in consideration all previous empirical and theoretical researches in literature, in this study results are expected to be as it is stated in the hypotheses below. In following all the necessary statistical analysis take place to test these proposed hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Work overload negatively predicts affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2: POS positively predicts affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3: POS moderates the effect of WFC on Workload such that higher POS decreases the effect of WL on WFC.

Hypothesis 4: POS moderates the relationship between WFC and AC such that higher POS decreases the effect of WFC on AC.

Hypothesis 5: WFC mediates the relationship between work overload and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 6: WFC negatively predicts affective commitment.

Hypothesis 7: Family-work conflict negatively predicts affective commitment.

Hypothesis 8: POS moderates FWC and Workload relationship such that higher POS decreases the effect of WL on FWC.

Hypothesis 9: POS moderates FWC and AC relationship such that higher POS decreases the effect of FWC on AC.

Hypothesis 10: FWC is expected to mediate work overload and affective commitment relationship.

Hypothesis 11: The mediating effect of WFC/FWC on the relationship between workload and affective commitment differs with the levels of POS.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

This study aspirate to scrutinize the effect of WFC, FWC and workload on AC. Additionally, it aims to observe the moderating effect of POR on these relationships. In this chapter, sample, data collection instruments and procedures are discussed. Thereafter, analyses used to test the hypotheses are examined. This study is a quantitative research, and questionnaire technique was used for data collection.

2.1. PARTICIPANTS

This research is conducted in three main public hospitals and two main healthcare centers in Ankara (for ethical reasons the names of the institutions are not provided in the study). The sample size consists of nursing staff. According to the Local Health Authority of Ankara, approximately forty public hospitals and one hundred healthcare centers provide service in Ankara. These hospitals are categorized in; Training and Research Hospitals, Public Hospitals and University Hospitals. According to the Turkish Institute of Statistics (TUIK, 2014) in Ankara, approximately 13,300 nurses were employed both in public and private institutions. However, these numbers include both Ankara city and its districts. Henceforth, there is not any official information about the actual number of nurses serving in Ankara city. In addition the lack of data regarding the exact size of the target population, time limitations for data collection and participant's lack of desire affected sampling process. Convenience sampling technique is used considering limitations and problems cited above. The sample size was decided based on the rule of thumb *"(N ≥104 + m; where m is the number of IVs)"* provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). According to the formula, the optimal sample size turned out to be N≥108 (four predictors; WFC, FWC, WL and POS).

One hundred and eighty-four questionnaires were delivered and one hundred and seventy-seven were collected back across all respondents (the response rate is % 96). From the collected questionnaires thirteen of them were deleted because of a large amount of missing values (more than 50% missing data), considering the suggestions of

(Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p. 63). Therefore the total number of respondents in this study turned out to be one hundred and sixty-four. This research was performed in accordance with ethical standards. The demographic characteristics of the sample are provided below (see Table 1). The most obvious thing to emphasize from the table is gender distribution of sample. Women account for 94,5 % (N=155) of sample size (that is representative of nursing staff population in public hospitals and health centers) and 5,5 % (N=9) of them are men. The participants' age range from 21 and 60 years of old, with a mean of 36 years. The majority of participants are married (73%, N=120). Although considerable number of respondents do not have children (31%, N= 50), still most of them have children (69%, N=114). Respondents mostly have one child, and the maximum number of children that they have is three children.

Other important demographic characteristics considered in this study are education, work experience and working time. As can be seen from the table, most of the participants have an undergraduate degree (54%, N=89). Participants graduated from vocational school are also numerous in number (30%, N= 49). Meanwhile, participants with high school and graduate education level are fewer. Analyzing the occupational tenure or number of years of professional experience, it is observed that greatest part of participants has an occupational tenure between 11 and 20 years (42%, N=69). Furthermore, participants with 1 to 10 years of occupation tenure are also great in number (33%, N=54), and participants who have above 21 years of occupational experience account for (25%, N=41). In regard to years of service in the current public hospital or health care center; 6% of participants (N=10) have worked less than 1 year, 22% (N= 36) 1 to 3 years, 21% (N=34) 4 to 6 years, 11% (N=19) 7 to 10 years, 16% (N= 26) 11 to 14 years and 24% (N=39) above 15 years.

Lastly, the working time for participants is assessed through work schedule, working hours per week and weekend working. Most of the participants work with long working hours, 74% (N=122) of them work above 41 hours per week and 26% (N=42) work less or equal to 40 hours per week. Moreover, 79% (N= 129) of respondents in this study work on weekend and 21% (N=35) of them do not work on weekend. Consequently, the majority of participants work with shifts 63% (N= 104), instead 4% (N=6) of them work continuously night time. The rest of participants work continuously day time, 33% (N=54)

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

	N	(%)
Gender		
Male	9	5.5
Female	155	94.5
Age		
20-30	36	22
31-40	84	51
41-50	39	24
51 old and above	5	3
Marital Status		
Single	44	27
Married	120	73
No. of Children		
0	50	31
1	53	32
2	58	35
3	3	2
Education Level		
High School	14	9
Vocational School	49	30
Undergraduate	89	54
Graduate	12	7
Organizational Tenure		
Below 1 Year	10	6
1-3 Years	36	22
4-6 Years	34	21
7-10 years	19	11
11-14 years	26	16
Above 15 Years	39	24
Occupational Tenure		
1-10 Years	54	33
11-20 Years	69	42
Above 21 Years	41	25
Working Schedules		
Continuously Day/Night time	60	37
Shift	104	63
Working Hours/ Week		
Below or equal to 40 hours	42	26
Above 41 hours	122	74
Working on Weekend		
Yes	129	79
No	35	21

Note. Frequency and Percentage distribution of participants.

2.2. MEASUREMENT

In this study, data were collected through self-administrated questionnaire technique, which allows researchers to work with large sample size and make quantitative data analysis. Questionnaire is composed of five parts measuring different variables (DV= affective commitment, IV= workload, WFC, FWC and Moderator= POS). The first part of the questionnaire includes items related to demographics of participants (age, educational level, tenure, marital status) and working conditions (working hours, shift and non-shift work). In other parts, respondents were asked to rate close-ended items that measure participant's commitment toward their organization (hospital), work overload, WFC/FWC and POS. A total of 57 items included in the questionnaire and participants were required to rate each item using a five-point Likert-style rating scale ("strongly disagree"=1, "disagree"=2, "uncertain/ neither agree nor disagree"=3,"agree"=4 and "strongly agree"=5).

Scale's items have already been translated into Turkish and used in previous studies. Therefore, the reliability and validity has already been assessed in previous researches. The following parts mention the details about scales together with findings reported by previous studies regarding the reliability and validity.

2.2.1. Demographic Variables

The first part of the questionnaire contains items related to demographics and working conditions (i.e., age, education, marital status, gender, work experience, tenure, family size (no. of children), working time and schedule). In this study, demographic variables and variables related to working conditions are used as control variables in order to control their effect on study variables and reveal the characteristics of the sample.

2.2.2. Organizational Commitment Scale

Different OC scales have been used by different researchers. The organizational commitment scale used in this research was put forward by Allen, Meyer, and Smith (1993). This scale is one of the most prominent scales used in organizational commitment studies. Therefore, the reliability and validity of the items were assessed and found to be satisfactory in previous studies. Another reason for selecting this scale was related to similar sample characteristics. Meyer et al. (1993) originally developed the scale using the

data from nursing staff. In addition to that, this scale allows the measurement of organizational commitment dimensions separately. Since this study test hypothesis related to affective commitment, distinct measurement of each commitment dimensions is an advantage. Finally, the items of this scale have been previously used by other researchers and proved to be well-adapted toTurkish. The translation was firstly made by Wasti (1999) using the back-translation technique. Wasti (1999) added new items to original 18-items scale to better reflect the emic nature of organizational commitment in Turkey (See Wasti's (2003) article for details). This extended version of the scale is taken by Tosunoğlu's (2014) thesis study, no further modifications were made.

The organizational commitment scale consists of 25 items (18-items of Meyer et al, 1993 and 7 items of Wasti, 2003), which measures the three dimensions; "*affective commitment (AC), normative commitment (NC) and continuance commitment (CC)*". Eight items are used to measure AC, ten items to measure NC and seven items to measure CC. However, considering the conceptual framework and hypotheses of the study, only responses to affective commitment items were considered. In the original questionnaire 7-point Likert-type scale rating was used (1 "strongly agree" and 7 "strongly disagree"), but in this study we used a *"5-point Likert-type scale"* ("strongly disagree"=1, "disagree"=2, "uncertain"=3,"agree"=4 and "strongly agree"=5) as in many other studies conducted in Turkey (e.g. Tosunoğlu, 2014).

The reliability estimates values for affective commitment subscale of organizational commitment according to Fields (2002) range from .77 to .88 for affective commitment. Meyer et al. (2002) assessed internal consistency for each subscale of organizational commitment and for the organizational commitment questionnaire as well. The scale reliability for affective commitment was (Cronbach α = .82) (p. 26). Wasti (2003) (cited in Tosunoğlu, p. 86) reported relatively high reliability for affective commitment (Cronbach α = .83) using Turkish data. Again with Turkish sample Tosunoğlu (2014) found the affective commitment subscale very reliable (Cronbach α = .87). In this research, reliability coefficient was found to be satisfactory, albeit smaller in magnitude (Cronbach α= .77).

2.2.3. Workload Scale

Workload has been measured with different techniques and measurement scales so far. Peterson and his colleagues (1995) developed a comprehensive measure of work overload that was based on 11-item scale. Originally the role overload instrument was developed by Pareek (1976), and then Peterson et al. (1995) added four more items to that instrument. Therefore, in this research to properly measure work overload, the survey developed by Peterson et al. (1995) was used. This questionnaire was adapted in Turkey and the items of survey used in this research correspond to research performed by Derya (2008). Participants indicated the level to which they concur with each item by using a 5-point Likert-type scale ("strongly disagree"=1, "disagree"=2, "uncertain"=3, "agree"=4 and "strongly agree"=5). High scores indicate higher levels of perceived workload (i.e., participants think that their roles and responsibilites are more than they can handle).

Peterson et al. (1995) not only provides a good assessment scale for work overload in literature, but their questionnaire has proved to be reliable and valid in previous researches managed both internationally and in Turkey as well. Therefore, the items of scale were not changed. Cronbach alphas for work overload in the study of Peterson et al. (1995) ranged from .62 (Indonesia) to .89 (Singapore) in the 21 countries where the survey was administrated. However, Turkey was not part of the 21 countries taken under evaluation in Petersons and his colleagues (1995) study. Although, other academicians have attained relative high alpha coefficient values for work overload scale developed by Peterson et al. (1995). Fields (2002) assured that work overload reliability estimates to be (α = .93), and Derya (2008) in her research attained an internal consistency of the scale with value (α = .86). In this study, the internal consistency of work overload was found to be satisfactory (α = .84).

2.2.4. Work-Family Conflict (WFC) and Family-Work Conflict (FWC) Scales

WFC has been thoroughly studied in literature both empirically and theoretically. In the early researches, it was measured as a single construct including both dimensions work to family conflict and family to work conflict. Numerous researches (e.g. Kopelman, Greenhaus and Connolly, 1983; Bacharach, 1991; Gutek et al, 1991 and Stephens and Sommer, 1996) devised different WFC instruments. The number of items for these instruments ranges from 4 items to 14 items per survey. Stephens and Sommer (1996)

suggested a survey that measures WFC based on the three dimensions WFC; *"time-based conflicts, strain-based and behavior-based conflicts"*. In this research, in order to measure WFC and FWC, the questionnaire originally proposed by Netemeyer and his colleagues (1996) is used. Nevertheless, in this study, the items of WFC and FWC were taken from Derya (2008). The scale consists of 10 items; first five items scale measure WFC and the rest five items scale measure FWC. A 5-point Likert-type scale ("strongly disagree"=1, "disagree"=2, "uncertain"=3,"agree"=4 and "strongly agree"=5) was used to rate the items.

This survey has proved to be reliable and valid in previous researches. Moreover, the items of this survey have been previously used by other academicians and proved to be well adapted to Turkish language. Assessment of items validity and reliability has been proved in previous researches and for this reason items were not changed. Netemeyer and his colleagues (1996) reported Cronbach alpha values of .88 for WFC and .89 for FWC respectively. Derya (2008) found high reliability for work to family conflict (α = .90), and family to work conflict to be (α = .87). In this research internal consistency for WFC was found to be (α = .92), and for FWC found to be (α = .93).

2.2.5. Perceived Organizational Support Scale

POS scale was developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986). The original survey of POS is one dimensional and is composed of 36 items. Academicians suggest two options to users, the long option including all the 36 items or using a shorter version of the survey. Many researchers used the long version of survey with all the 36 items. However, other researchers used the short versions of the original survey. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (1986), short versions also provides accurate results because is equally valid and reliable. In this study, 12 items scale was used to measure perceived organizational support, which was used by Durmuş (2011) in his research in military hospitals.

The questionnaire has proved to be reliable and valid in previous theoretical and empirical studies. Another important reason to choose this scale is the participants (nurses) of this study. Lastly, the items of this survey have been previously used by other academicians and proved to be well adapted and adopted in the Turkish language. Assessment of items validity and reliability proved in previous researches and for this reason items were not

changed or alternated. A 5-point Likert-type scale ("strongly disagree"=1, "disagree"=2, "uncertain"=3,"agree"=4 and "strongly agree"=5) was used to rate the items. The Cronbach alpha values ranged from .74 to .95 in many researchers. Cronbach alpha found by Durmuş (2011) is (α = .93). In this study, the internal consistency for POS was found to be (α = .94). Details about the items of this study are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Internal Consistencies of Varialbes

	Total Number of Items (n=40)				
	Number of Items	Scale Max.	M	SD	A
1. Affective Commitment	8	5	2.96	0.69	.77
2. Work Overload	10	5	3.43	0.76	.84
3. Work-Family Conflict	5	5	3.74	0.91	.92
4. Family-Work Conflict	5	5	2.66	1.06	.93
5. Perceived Organizational Support	12	5	2.53	0.80	.94

Note. α: Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

2.3. ANALYSIS

After the data were collected, they were coded and made ready for statistical analyses using SPSS. Before proceeding with the analyses, data were screened for accuracy (data screened for data entry errors, identification of outliers and missing values). After data screening, factor analyses were performed to understand whether scales were able to measure constructs as intended. Thereafter, the hypotheses were tested using Process Macro detailed by Hayes (2002).

2.3.1. Preliminary Analyses

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), prior to data analysis, the data should be screened to detect plausible problems that could affect the results obtained in the main analysis if they are not eliminated or controlled (p. 60). Data screening was performed in accordance with the steps suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). Prior to data screening, negatively worded items were recoded to make them in line with other items. In the below sections, four main stages of data screening process are presented.

1.   Stage: Accuracy of Data File

Firstly, the accuracy of the data entry was examined by checking the data for extreme and out of range values or logically inconsistent values. Univariate descriptive statistics (e.g. minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations of values) were used for this purpose. For the continuous variables, it was checked if the values are within the range and if the standard deviations and means are plausible. For discrete variables, it was checked if there was any value out of range. Univariate outliers were identified by calculating the "z" score for each variable, and variables having z-value more than the cut off point (a score above 3 and less than -3) were noted as univariate outlier. If the answer of the respondent (participant) was found both univariate and multivariate outlier, that respondent's answer was excluded from further analysis in order to not obtain misleading results.

2.   Stage: Missing Data

After ensuring data entry accuracy, data set was checked for missing data. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest that the seriousness of missing values depends on the pattern of the missing value, how much is missing and why it is missing (p. 63). Data set was checked for the pattern of missing data, meaning that whether the missing values were distributed randomly or nonrandomly. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) claim that non-randomly missing values affect the generalizability of results. Moreover, they suggest that missing values of less than 5% in a random pattern is not a serious issue. Therefore any procedure for replacing those values would provide similar results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 63). In this study, the pattern of missing data was checked using missing value analysis in SPSS.

3.   Stage: Normality Test

At this stage, histograms and box plot graphics were drawn for each variable in order to assess whether the distribution is normal. In addition to that skewness, which measures the symmetry/asymmetry in the distribution and kurtosis, which measures the peakedness of distribution, were calculated for each variable. When there is a normal distribution of data, kurtosis and skewness values are expected to be close to zero. If the skewness is positive cases are pile up to the left, whereas negative skewness cases pileup to the right. Kurtosis values above zero indicate a peaked distribution and values below zero indicate

flat distribution. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest that "*when skewness and kurtosis values are between -3 and 3 normality is present*".

4.   Stage: Identification of Multivariate Outliers

Identifying multivariate outliers is the final stage of data screening process. Variables with multivariate outliers were assessed using Mahalanobis Distance Index, which measures "*the distance of a case from the centroid of all cases for the predictor variable*" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 74). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), Mahalanobis Distance (MD) can be evaluated for each case using χ^2 distribution with a probability estimate of (p <.001). After regression analysis was performed, maximum and minimum Mahalanobis distances were compared Chi-square value in order to detect outliers.

After data screening process was finished and all necessary adjustments were made. Factor analysis and reliability analysis were undertaken. Each of these analyses is explained in detail in the following parts.

2.3.2. Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis is a commonly used variable reduction technique performed after univariate and multivariate outliers are absent (Field, 2009). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) distinct the two analysis and explain that Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is associated with theory development. However, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a more sophisticated technique used to test theories and is mainly performed through Structural equational modeling (SEM). In this research, since the scales of each variable were developed based on the theory and which items correspond to which dimension was already known, CFA was used to assess the factor loading of each scale.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a multivariate statistical technique used to verify the number of underlying dimensions of factors (latent or unobserved variables) and the pattern of the relationship between indicators (observed measures) and factors. Confirmatory factor analysis tests whether measured variables (i.e., scale items) represent the constructs (i.e., variables of the study) or not.

In this study, measurement model in which all scale items were proposed to be linked with 5-factors (i.e., workload, WFC, FWC, perceived support and affective commitment). Goodness-of-fit indices are assessed to determine whether data fits the measurement model, specifying the relationship between scale items and factors. In order to assess the model fit, the rule of thumb indices suggested by Schmelleh-Engel et al. (2003) were used. The researchers assert that there is not a consensus about what constitutes a good fit model, therefore fit indices should be considered concurrently. After the adequate fit was achieved, item-factor relationships were assessed using t-values. Significant t-value indicates that particular scale item measures the proposed factor.

Table 3

Recommendations for Model Evaluation: Fit Indices and Acceptable Thresholds

Fit Measure	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit
χ^2	$0 \leq \chi^2 \leq 2df$	$2df < \chi^2 \leq 3df$
p value	$.05 < p \leq 1.00$	$.01 \leq p \leq .05$
χ^2/df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$	$2 < \chi^2/df \leq 3$
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$	$.05 < RMSEA \leq .08$
CFI	$.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.95 \leq CFI < .97$
GFI	$.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq GFI < .95$
NFI	$.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq NFI < .95$

Note: *CFI* = Comparative Fit Index, *ECVI* = Expected Cross Validation Index, *GFI* = Goodness-of-FitIndex, *NFI* = Normed Fit Index, *RMSEA* = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation. It is not possible for *NFI* to reach1.0 even supposing that the specified model is correct, particularly in smaller samples. The *CFI* value of.97 is considered more rational than the often reported limit criterion of .95 for a good model fit.This table was constructed based on the article of Schmelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H. and Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the Fit of Structural Equation Models: Tests of Significance and Descriptive Goodness-of-Fit Measures. *Methods of psychological research online*, *8*(2), 23-74.

2.3.3. Reliability Analysis

It is essential in SEM to have good scores of reliability and validity. After assessing the construct validity of the scales through confirmatory factor analysis, the reliability of the scale items was assessed. Cronbach alpha, which measures the internal consistency of scales items were calculated for each latent variable. As suggested by Field (2009), Cronbach alpha greater than .70 indicated the existence of internal consistency, thus reliability of the variable. Elimination of the items was made using the criterion suggested

by Field (2009) such that any item having an item-total correlation less than .30 was excluded from further analyses. After ensuring the reliability for each study variable, variable scores were calculated by taking the average of the items measuring those variables.

2.3.4. Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis is used to estimate a sample correlation coefficient, which is denoted by "r", "rs" or"т". Correlation coefficient is a measure of association between two variables. Values of correlation take values between -1 and +1. A correlation coefficient of +1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a positive linear sense. Whereas, a correlation coefficient of -1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a negative linear sense. Moreover, a correlation coefficient of 0 indicates that there is no linear relationship between the two variables. A correlation analysis does not establish a cause-effect relationship. It indicates only the direction and the strength of association. In this study, Cohen's (1988) conventions to interpret the results are used. Cohen (1988) suggests that correlation coefficient of .10 is thought to represent a weak or small association and a correlation coefficient of .30 is considered a moderate correlation; and a correlation coefficient of .50 or larger is thought to represent a strong or large correlation.

The correlation analysis depends on the type of variables. In this study, Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient also known as Pearson's correlation, Spearman's correlation, and Kendall's correlation were used to calculate the correlations between variables. Hauke and Kossowski (2011) suggest that there are cases when the use of Pearson's correlation coefficient can be misleading. Therefore Spearman's or Kendall's correlation coefficient would be a better measure. Spearman's and Kendall's correlation are used to measure the relationship between two ordinal variables, which both consist of ranks (e.g. demographic variables and organizational commitment). Kendall's т and Spearman's rs correlation are used instead of each other, but they are not identical in magnitude because their logic and computational formula are quite different. Hauke and Kossowski (2011) suggest that both values are nearly the same and would lead to same conclusions, but when discrepancies occur it is safer to report the lower level. Researchers are still analyzing properties and comparison between Kendall's and Spearman's correlation. Additionally, Spearman's correlation is considered the regular Pearson's

correlation in terms of the proportion of variability accounted for and it is used more in the past researches than Kendall's correlation. Therefore in this study, Spearman's correlation is reported for ranked correlations. Pearson's correlation instead was used to measure the linear relationship between two continuous variables such as between predictor variable (IVs) and outcome variable (DVs) (e.g. workload and organizational commitment).

Furthermore, ANOVA was performed to test the effect of controlled variables on the outcome variable. ANOVA is a test used to evaluate if two or more groups differ from each other significantly in one or more characteristics (DeCoster, 2006, p.15).   After the statistically significant difference between groups was assessed, in order to determine which group is significantly different from others post hoc tests were taken. In order to determine which test was going to be used to assess the difference between groups, Levene's test was assessed. Levene's test purpose is to test the difference in variance among groups. In the Levene's test, the probability value was above .05, meaning that data variances are relatively similar and the test is insignificant. In other words, we can assume homogeneity of variance. Post hoc analysis was decided based on the results of Levene's test.

2.3.5. Hypotheses Testing

In this study, conditional PROCESS analysis was conducted with the help of AMOS 18 software, which is a very useful graphic interface to build models. Conditional PROCESS modeling was used to analyze the relationship between variables and to build complex models from the research variables. In this PROCESS analysis was used to estimate the direct and indirect pathways of WL, WFC, and POS on organizational commitment. Moreover, two separate models were constructed for WFC and FWC as mediators. Both of the models are moderated by POS. The term conditional processing modeling represents a melding of two ideas both conceptually and analytically, mediation analysis and moderation analysis. Model number fifteen of conditional process analysis was thought as appropriate to test for both moderating and mediating effect of variables. Since two models were constructed, in the first model, WFC is the mediator between WL and OC relationship, and in the second model, FWC is the mediator between WL and OC relationship. Moreover, POS is the moderator of both models. Baron and Kenny (1986)

proposed a four-step approach to test for the mediational hypothesis. In this study, the mediational effect of WFC and FWC was evaluated based on these four steps:

(I)   Step 1: Show that the casual variable (predictor) correlates with the outcome variable.

(II)   Step 2: Show that the casual variable correlates with the mediator.

(III)   Step 3: Show that the mediator affects the outcome variable.

(IV)   Step 4: The establishment of the complete mediation across the variables.

When relationships in the first three steps are significant, in the fourth step full mediation or partial mediation is tested. In the fourth step of the model, findings support full mediation when predictor variable is insignificant when mediator is taken under control. However, results support partial mediation when predictor variable is still significant when mediation is controlled. Finally, moderation of mediation analysis was performed. Indeed, a moderator analysis is just a multiple regression equations with an interaction term. A moderator changes the direction or the magnitude of the impact of one variable on another variable. Moderation effect can be enhancing, buffering or antagonistic. Enhancing moderator effect would increase the impact of predictor on the outcome, buffering moderator effect would decrease the impact of predictor on the outcome and antagonistic effect would reverse the impact of predictor on the outcome.

In this study moderated multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the moderating effect of POS on the relationship between WL, WFC, FWC, and OC. In the model constructed for this study the moderator is POS, the outcome is OC and predictors WL, WFC and FWC. It is important that variables are centered and interaction established before running multiple regression analysis. Therefore, PROCESS developed by Andrew F. Hayes was used for moderator analysis, which is software that does the centering and interaction of variables automatically. Consequently, multiple regressions were performed and models significance was compared. In other words, it was observed if the combined effect of predictors and moderator is significant and more substantial than the effect of the model without the interaction.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

This chapter introduces the analysis, interpretation, and presentation of results performed in this study. In order for this study to achieve optimal results and test the hypothesis, it is important and necessarily to analyze the collected data properly. Firstly, in this part data screening and outlier analysis results, then a discussion of the descriptive statistics take place. Nevertheless, nurses' demographic characteristics are described in detail in the previous chapter. In the following sections factor analyses, reliability and correlation analysis results are discussed. After the determination of the control variables, the results of moderated multiple regression analyses are presented. Finally, the results of the hypotheses are displayed and a summary of the results is given.

3.1. RESULTS OF PREMILINARY ANAYSIS

As indicated before, the accuracy of data entry and the factors that could produce distorted correlations were examined using the steps suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2003). Prior to data screening, negatively worded items were recoded, in order that each item of the scale could indicate the same type of response. In the organizational commitment scale, following items were recoded.

1. "I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one."

2. "I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization."

3. "I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization."

4. "I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization."

Inspections of descriptive statistics (e.g. minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations of values) revealed that response to one item was entered as 55 instead of 5.

The necessary correction was made. After this correction, the minimum and maximum values for each item were found to be consistent with the rating scale. That is, none of the data had values other than the rating scale points. Mean and standard deviation were compared, and the value of standard deviation was lower than the mean value for all the items, as expected. Univariate outliers were detected as none of the z-scores were bigger than 3.29 and less than -3.29. Missing data were identified in missing value analysis. From 177 respondents, 13 of them were deleted because of excessive missing values. The pattern of the missing values was missing completely at random (MCAR). Since there were no variables with 5% or more missing values in a random pattern, any procedure followed for replacing missing values would lead to the same results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 63). In this study age and occupational tenure's missing values were replaced with the sample mode, while other variables (e.g. total tenure, education, marital status, weekend working time) were replaced with the mean substitution method.

In the third stage of data screening, normality assumption was examined. Looking at the visual inspections and also the values of Skewness and Kurtosis, the data were judged to be normally distributed. The skewness and kurtosis values were between -3 and 3, suggesting the normal distribution of the scale items and variables. Finally, multivariate outlier screening was conducted. Regression analysis revealed neither maximum nor minimum Mahalanobis distances exceeding the critical Chi-square value. This suggested that there is no multivariate outliner in the data set.

3.2. RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

As indicated before CFA was used to examine whether items were able to measure the study variables, as intended. In the specified measurement model, all scale items were assigned to 5 study variables (Affective commitment (AC), WFC, FWC, WL, and POS) and study variables were allowed to covary. The number of variables in the model was 85, of which 45 were unobserved variables (exogenous) and 40 were observed variables (endogenous). Initial examination of the fit indices suggested the existence of poor fit. Closer examination of modification indices and factor loadings revealed that several revisions had to be made in the measurement model. First of all, one workload item was excluded from the measurement model because of the insignificant factor loading. The factor loading of one of the AC's items was found to be marginally significant. However,

the decision to exclude or include this item was decided to be made based on the results of reliability analysis. Secondly, some error terms were allowed to vary considering the modifications suggested by the program. Doing these revisions, however, the distinctiveness of the factors (i.e., study variables) was taken into account, meaning that only the error terms of the item measuring the same factor were allowed to covary. After the previously mentioned revisions, the fit indices of the model have examined again. Except for good-of-fit index, which is expected to be greater than .90 for good model fit, all of the fit indices suggested the existence of acceptable model fit using the criteria of Schmelleh-Engel and her colleagues (2003).

The main fit indices used in the study are provided in Table 5. Researchers suggest that chi-square index should be insignificant to indicate that the proposed model fits the data. However, as it was declared earlier the chi-square index is affected by the degrees of freedom $\chi^2(704) = 1055,953$, p < .05, a χ^2/df ratio was used in order to evaluate goodness-of-fit independent of degrees of freedom. Schmelleh-Engel and her colleagues (2003) suggest that a ratio below 2.0 indicates a good fit. The χ^2/df ratio was lower than 2.0 in this data set (χ^2/df=1.5), meaning that the model provides a good fit to the data.

Table 4

Goodness-of-fit indices for the model (n=164)

Model	χ^2	P	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
Default Model	1055.953	.000	1.5	.772	.908	.055

Note: Refers to Schmelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Müller (2003) normed index.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) claim that Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was created as an alternative to Chi-square test. GFI score in the model was below .90 score required for an acceptable fit. However, researchers (Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar and Dillon, 2005) suggest that in case of a large number of degrees of freedom relative to the sample size, the GFI has downward bias. An acceptable fit for GFI would have been above 0.90, and in this model (GFI= .772) which does not make it an acceptable fit. Another index suggesting poor fit of the model is the NFI. Generally, a value above .90 is considered as acceptable fit, and in this model, the NFI score is below the acceptable fit (NFI=.772). However,

Bentler (1990) suggest that NFI is sensitive to sample size and underestimates the fit for samples less than 200. CFI value is acceptable with score .907, based on the previously advanced criterion. Finally, RMSEA score being one of the most informative values of fit indices, was slightly above .05 indicating a good fit of the model (RMSEA=.055). Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest that a good model fit by an RMSEA score of .06 or less, and value of .08 or less is considered acceptable.

After evaluating the model fit, the significance of factor loading (i.e., unstandardized regression weights) was examined. As seen from Table 5, all of the factor loadings were found to be significant at p<.001 significance level.

Table 5

Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Weights

	B	S.E.	*B*
Workload			
Item1	.62**	.09	.50
Item2	.65**	.08	.59
Item3	.66**	.09	.57
Item4	.82**	.09	.69
Item4	.89**	.08	.75
Item6	.76**	.08	.69
Item8	.40**	.08	.40
Item9	.90**	.08	.76
Item10	.60**	.08	.58
Item11	.33**	.07	.37
Work-Family Conflict			
Item1	.83**	.07	.79
Item2	.89**	.07	.85
Item3	.91**	.06	.89
Item4	.93**	.07	.86
Item5	.79**	.07	.79
Family-Work Conflict			
Item1	.99**	.08	.84
Item2	1.15**	.07	.94
Item3	1.08**	.08	.87
Item4	.88**	.08	.75
Item5	.92**	.08	.77
Perceived Organizational Support			

Item1	.76**	.07	.72
Item2	.82**	.07	.80
Item3	.69**	.07	.70
Item4	.69**	.07	.71
Item5	.66**	.06	.75
Item6	.75**	.06	.78
Item7	.84**	.06	.84
Item8	.73**	.06	.80
Item9	.93**	.06	.89
Item10	.74**	.07	.74
Item11	.85**	.07	.82
Item12	.46**	.09	.37
Affective Commitment			
Item1	.59**	.11	.47
Item2	.62**	.08	.59
Item3	.57**	.08	.54
Item4	.60**	.09	.56
Item5	.74**	.09	.65
Item6	.38**	.10	.33
Item7	.76**	.09	.68
Item8	.56**	.08	.58

Note: *** p < .001   B= unstandardized regression weights, β=standardized regression weights.

3.3. RESULTS OF RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Once the factor analysis was completed and validity was assessed, the next step was reliability analysis. As indicated before, internal consistency is assessed to judge whether the scale items are reliable or not. Internal consistency was measured by looking at the Cronbach's alpha correlations coefficients.

3.3.1. Reliability Analysis for Affective Commitment

An eight-item scale was used to measure AC. The Cronbach's alpha or internal consistency for AC was found to be (α= .77). Results support the results of previous similar researches, which reported Cronbach's alpha values between .77 and .88. When item-total correlations were examined for each scale item, only sixth item was found to be low item-total correlated (r=.368). This item was identified as a problematic item also in

factor analysis, but the decision about removing it or not was left to reliability analysis. Even though this item has a lower correlation than the rest of the items, the decision for removing it or continuing in further analysis was based on the results presented in column fourth (Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted). Removing item number six would drop the Cronbach's alpha of this scale from .77 to .764. Thereby, item number six in affective commitment was seen as useful item for further analysis and it was not removed after attaining reliability analysis results. Below statistics of items and scales are presented.

Table 6

Reliability Analysis for Affective Commitment

Affective Commitment Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
"Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok".*	20.72	.407	.758
"Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var".	20.96	.457	.747
"Bu kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum".	20.89	.517	.737
"Bu kuruma kendimi "duygusal olarak bağlı" hissetmiyorum".*	20.78	.516	.737
"Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum".	20.85	.473	.744
"Kendimi kurumumda "ailenin bir parçası" gibi hissetmiyorum".*	20.59	.368	.764
"Bu kurumun çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum".	20.67	.534	.734
"Bu kurumun amaçlarını benimsiyorum".	20.40	.512	.740

Cronbach's alpha for Affective Commitment α =.77

Statistics for Scale	N	Mean	SD
	8	2.96	0.69

Not. * Revised items

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's test for non-additivity was applied and it revealed no significant correlation ($p < .01$) between items. It tests whether there is a multiplicative interaction between the items of the affective commitment scale. Additivity is desirable because it provides more accurate estimates of the population effects. Tukey's

estimate of power that should be increased to achieve additivity is 2.9621. F test of non-additivity was not significant at level p<.01, F (1, 163)=.277 p=.599. Non-additivity (ANOVA with Tukey's Test for Non-additivity) indicates that affective commitment scale has additivity, so items interact with one another.

3.3.2. Reliability Analysis for Workload

Workload was measured on an eleven-item scale. However, workload item seven was removed after factor analysis. In the reliability analysis, workload was evaluated on a ten-item scale. Cronbach's alpha or internal consistency was found to be (α= .84), indicating that workload scale is highly reliable. Cronbach's alpha values in the previous researches range from .62 to above .90. For the correlation of each item workload and total score from the questionnaire (see Table 7). Although all workload have item-total correlations above .3, item eight and eleven appears to be less correlated with total scores compared to other items r =.311 and r =.353 respectively. In addition, the estimates of Cronbach's alpha value when a particular item is not included in the calculation were assessed. All the estimates reveal a lower Cronbach's alpha value than the actual alpha value except the item eight. Alpha value, if item eight is deleted changes from .84 to .85, and it is not considered a significant change for improving the reliability. Thereby, item eight was not removed from workload scale.

Tukey's test for non-additivity analysis revealed no significant correlation (p<.01) between items. Tukey's estimate of power that should be increased to achieve additivity was .958. F test of non-additivity was not significant at level p<.01, F (1, 163) =.040, p=.841. Non-additivity (ANOVA with Tukey's Test for Non-additivity) indicates that workload scale has additivity, so items interact with one another.

Table 7

Reliability Analysis for Workload

Workload Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
"İşimde benden talep edilenler kapasitemin üstünde".	30.52	.500	.830
"İş yüküm oldukça ağır".	29.62	.575	.823
"İşim hafta sonları ve akşamları da çalışmamı gerektiriyor".	29.41	.499	.830
"İş yüküm beni aşıyor".	29.86	.643	.816
"İşlerimi yetiştirebilmek için özel hayatımdan fedakârlık yapmam gerekiyor".	29.53	.644	.816
"Normal iş saatleri içinde işlerimi bitirmekte zorlanıyorum".	30.06	.660	.815
"Yaptığım iş bilgi ve beceri seviyemin üzerinde. İş yükümün ve aldığım sorumlulukların altında eziliyorum".	30.88 30.33	.311 .648	.845 .815
"İşim çok ve uzun saatler çalışmamı gerektiriyor".	29.53	.506	.829
"Şu anda çalıştığım pozisyon çok fazla işle ve kişiyle uğraşmamı gerektiriyor".	29.33	.353	.841
Cronbach's alpha for Workload α =.84			

Statistics for Scale	N	Mean	SD
	10	3.43	0.76

3.3.3. Reliability Analysis for Work-Family Conflict and Family- Work Conflict

Alpha coefficients for WFC and FWC were found to be higher than those coefficients reported in previous studies. As indicated before, WFC and FWC were measured on a five-item scale each. The Cronbach's alpha for WFC was found to be (α=.92), and Cronbach's alpha for FWC was found to be (α=.93). An omission of any scale item would have caused a decrease in the overall internal consistency. The estimation about WFC and FWC when removing any particular item are presented in the table below. All the estimations are below the current values of internal consistency. Simultaneously, item-total correlations of data are relatively good, all of them are above r=.74.

Assuming a significance level at .01 for Tukey's non-additivity test it was found $F_{(1, 163)}=$ .040, p=.841. Tukey's estimate of power that should increase to achieve additivity was found to be .958. Thereby, the additive model is appropriate for this data.

Table 8

Reliability Analysis for Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict

Work-Family Conflict Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
"İşimin gerekleri, aile hayatıma engel olabiliyor".	14.9864	.749	.909
"İşime ayırmam gereken zaman, aile sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmemi zorlaştırıyor".	14.9986	.807	.898
"Evde yapmak istediklerimi, işimin bana yüklediği sorumluluklardan dolayı bir kenara itmek zorunda kalıyorum".	14.9117	.849	.890
"İşimle ilgili konular yüzünden üzerimde hissettiğim baskı, ailevi sorumluluklarımı yerine getirebilmeme engel oluyor".	15.1520	.808	.898
"İşimle ilgili görevlerden dolayı aile planlarımı değiştirmek zorunda kalıyorum".	14.9397	.747	.910
Family-Work Conflict Items			
"Ailemin ve/veya eşimin talep ve beklentileri, benim işle ilgili faaliyetler yapmama engel oluyor".	10.3868	.779	.915
"İşte yapmak istediklerimi, eşimin ve ailemin bana yüklediği sorumluluklardan dolayı yetiştiremiyorum".	10.5715	.843	.903
"Ev hayatım, işimle ilgili (işe zamanında gelmek, günlük işlerimi yapmak, fazla mesaiye kalmak gibi) sorumlulukları yerine getirmemi engelliyor".	10.5470	.817	.908
"Evdeki işlerime zaman ayırabilmek için işimle ilgili şeyleri bir kenara itmek durumunda kalıyorum".	10.7953	.803	.910
"Aile ile ilgili konular yüzünden üzerimde hissettiğim baskı, işimle ilgili sorumluluklarımı yerine getirebilmemi engelliyor".	10.8075	.794	.912

Cronbach's alpha for Work-Family Conflict α =.92
Cronbach's alpha for Family-Work Conflict α =.93

	N	**Mean**	**SD**
Statistics for Scale WFC	5	3.74	0.91
Statistics for Scale FWC	5	2.66	1.06

Not. First five items belong to WFC and the second five items belong to FWC.

3.3.4. Reliability Analysis for Perceived Organizational Support

Finally, reliability analysis for POS was performed. The scale is composed of twelve items. Cronbach's alpha for POS was found to be .93, with all item-total correlations ranging from .350 to .848. It was seen reasonable to omit item twelve not just because it has a low item-

total correlation relative to other items, but also the internal consistency of the scale increases to .94 if that item is deleted.

Table 9

Reliability Analysis of Perceived Organizational Support

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Perceived Organizational Support Items			
"Görev yaptığım hastanede, daha iyi hizmet vermek için yaptığım katkılar önemsenir".	28.4931	.713	.927
"Verdiğim hizmete yönelik gösterdiğim fazla çaba, görev yaptığım hastane tarafından önemsenir".	28.6678	.771	.925
"Görev yaptığım hastanede, kendimi geliştirmeme destek olur".	28.4195	.672	.929
"Bir sorunum olduğunda görev yaptığım hastane bana yardım eder".	28.5817	.685	.928
"Yapabileceğimin en iyisini ortaya koymama yardımcı olmak için görev yaptığım hastane bana bütün olanaklarını sunar".	28.7569	.740	.927
"Özel bir desteğe ihtiyacım olduğunda görev yaptığım hastanenin desteğini hissederim".	28.6739	.763	.925
"Yaptığım işten memnun olmam, görev yaptığım hastane tarafından önemsenir".	28.6403	.797	.924
"Görev yaptığım hastane, fikirlerimi önemser.	28.8019	.765	.926
Başarılarım, görev yaptığım hastane için övünç kaynağıdır".	28.5285	.848	.922
"Görevi zamanında bitiremem söz konusu olursa görev yaptığım hastane bunu anlayışla karşılar".	28.6556	.704	.927
"Görev yaptığım hastanenin bir parçası olmam amirlerim için gurur kaynağıdır".	28.5014	.801	.924
"Görev başında olmadığım zaman yokluğum hissedilir".	27.8568	.350	.944
Cronbach's alpha for Perceived Organizational Support =.93	α		
Cronbach's alpha for Perceived Organizational support after removing item 12	α=.94		

Statistics for Scale	N	Mean	SD	
	12	2.53	0.80	

Considering the results of reliability analysis, eleven items were decided to be used. The results for internal consistency of the scale are nearly the same with the previous researches. Perceived organizational support scale displayed a good internal consistency and the results for items and scale statistics are provided in Table 9. Tukey's test of non-additivity reported non-additivity in the data.

3.4. RESULTS OF CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Once validity and reliability tests were performed, other analysis continued by testing the correlation between concepts. Firstly, Pearson's linear correlation coefficients among variables are assessed as a preliminary test of hypotheses. After that, non-parametric correlation of Spearman's rho is assessed to analyze the relationship between demographic, predictor and outcome variables.

3.4.1. Relationship between Demographic Variables and Predictor Variables

In this section, a bivariate analysis is performed to determine any significant relation between predictor variables and several demographic variables (gender, marital status, education level, working format, working time and weekend working). Moreover, non-parametric tests (Spearman's correlations) are performed to measure the degree of association between nominal demographic variables and predictor variables. Prior to hypothesis testing models, association between demographic and predictor variables were evaluated to determine whether there is any variable that should be included as covariate in the model. Many demographic variables (age, marital status, children characteristics, gender, occupational tenure, total tenure and weekly working time) were not significantly associated with predictor variables. However, correlation analysis revealed some significant associations between demographic variables and predictor variables.

Likewise, WFC and work overload were positively associated with working format and negatively associated with weekend working. Whereas, education level was negatively affiliated with FWC and workload, r=(-.171) and r=-184, p<.05 respectively; meaning that nurses having a bachelor or graduate degree seem to experience less family-work conflict and perceive their workload high. Working format and WFC were positively significantly

associated r=.161, p<.05. Similarly, working format was positively and significantly related to WL r=.165, p <.05. Weekend working as it was expected was negatively associated with WFC r=-.224, p<.05, and negatively associated with WL r=-.185, p<.05. However, it is important to emphasize those correlations between predictor variables and demographic variables are weak. In the following page, demographic-predictor variables correlations are present.

Table 10

Correlation Analysis Matrix between Demographic Variables and Predictor Variable

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.Gender	1													
2.Age	-.064	1												
3.Education	.029	-.116	1											
4.Marital Status	.025	-.280**	-.031	1										
5.No.of Children	.056	.450**	-.139	-.594**	1									
6.Occupational Tenure	-.018	.914**	-.131	-.294**	.429**	1								
7.Total Tenure	-.012	.595**	.002	-.213**	.234**	.610**	1							
8.Working Format	-.010	-.116	-.088	.047	-.043	-.078	-.098	1						
9. Weekly Working Time	.104	.020	.021	-.023	.026	.032	-.172*	.263**	1					
10.Weekend Working	-.071	.097	.106	-.047	.053	.090	.188*	-.687**	-.479**	1				
11. WFC	.042	.064	-.118	-.099	.059	.083	-.031	.161*	.124	-.224*	1			
12.FWC	-.114	.049	-.171*	-.124	.080	.040	.019	.054	-.034	-.011	.333**	1		
13.POS	.138	-.048	-.005	.119	-.009	-.041	.067	-.129	-.034	.133	-.270**	-.058	1	
14.WL	-.040	.093	-.184*	-.034	-.011	.110	.072	.165*	.083	-.185*	.494**	.253**	-.317**	1

Not. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

3.4.2. Relationship between Demographic Variables and Outcome Variable

Once the associations between predictor variable and demographic variables were assessed, association between demographic variables and outcome variables (affective commitment) were examined. Similarly, the purpose of such analysis is to ascertain if any demographic variable should be controlled during hypotheses testing analysis. Likewise, as in the previous part the Spearman's and Pearson's correlations were used to analyze the association between variables. The results of bivariate analysis suggest that there is no significant association between outcome variable (affective commitment) and majority of demographic variables despite the working format and weekend working. Working format is associated with affective commitment significantly r=-215, p<.01. The magnitude of association between the two variables is moderate and there is an inverse relationship between them. In contrast, weekend working and affective commitment was positively and significantly associated to one another, r=213, p<.01. Additionally, results suggest a significant positive association between working schedule or format and weekly working time r=.263, p<.01. This implies that nurses working with various shifts, at the same time work with longer hours. Thereby, this results in a decrease of affective commitment. Emmerik and Sanders (2005) highlighted that women working with longer hours are less likely to show affective commitment toward their organization. In this study, almost 95% of respondent were women as well. Emerik and Sanders (2005) advocate the correlation and negative association between affective commitment and working schedule.

Additionally, working on weekend variable was negatively associated with working schedule variable and weekly working time variable, r=-.687 and r=-.479, p<.01 respectively. The association between these demographic variables is strong. Consequently, working on weekend being negatively associated with working schedule and weekly working time is assumed to logically and empirically be associated positively with affective commitment. Moreover, there was a significant association between weekend working and total tenure, r=.188, p<.05. As a result, the two demographic variables that are significantly associated with affective commitment are working format or working schedule and weekend working. The association of these variables is presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Correlational Analysis Matrix between Demographic Variables and Outcome Variable

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Gender	1										
2.Age	-.064	1									
3.Education	.029	-.116	1								
4.Marital Status	.025	-.280**	-.031	1							
5.No.of Children	.056	.450**	-.139	-.594**	1						
6.Occupational Tenure	-.018	.914**	-.131	-.294**	.429**	1					
7.Total Tenure	-.012	.595**	.002	-.213**	.234**	.610**	1				
8.Working Format	-.010	-.116	-.088	.047	-.043	-.078	-.098	1			
9. Weekly Working Time	.104	.020	.021	-.023	.026	.032	-.172*	.263**	1		
10.Weekend Working	-.071	.097	.106	-.047	.053	.090	.188*	-.687**	-.479**	1	
11. Affective Commitment	.101	.003	.032	.008	.095	-.025	.153	-.215**	-.034	.213**	1

Not. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

3.4.3. Relationship between Predictor Variables and Outcome Variable

Correlation analysis is conducted between predictor variables and outcome variables. Pearson's correlation analysis is used to assess the direction and strength of association among variables. Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was assessed at a significant level of .01. Predictor variables are WFC, FWC, workload and POS. The outcome variable is affective commitment. The relationships between predictor and outcome variables are presented in Table 12 according to results of Pearson's product-moment correlations.

A "*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation*" was run to determine the relationship between the outcome variable affective commitment and each of its predictors analyzed in this study. The result suggested a moderate relationship between affective commitment and workload, which is statistically significant (r=.-230, n=164, p <.01). The relationship was moderate based on the Cohen (1988) threshold for correlation coefficients. Moreover, the relationship was negative suggesting that an increase in workload would have a negative impact on affective commitment. This suggests that employees (nurses) who perceive a work overload at job are less affectively committed to their organization (hospital). Another predictor that is associated with affective commitment is perceived organizational support. POS had a stronger correlation than workload with affective commitment. Correlation is positive and statistically significant (r=.392, n=164, p<.01). This suggests that nurses who perceive a higher level of support from their organizations or supervisors are willing to be more affectively committed. However, no statistically significant correlations were found between WFC, FWC and affective commitment for the whole sample.

Table 12

Pearson's Correlation Coefficients between Predictor Variables and Outcome Variables

	Predictor Variables			
Outcome Variable	Workload	Work-Family Conflict	Family -Work Conflict	Perceived Organizational Support
		N=164		
Affective Commitment	-.230[**]	-.019	-.048	.392[**]
Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.812	.544	.000

Not. ** Correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 (2-tailed)

Additional correlation analysis results were incorporated in this part in order to provide more detailed information about the relationship between variables. Table 13 provides information on the correlation coefficients between all the predictor variables as well. Most of the predictor variables were significantly associated with one another, despite the perceived organizational support and family-work conflict variables did not have a significant correlation. Nevertheless, the association between variables was moderate with all of the correlations coefficients being lower than .5. It is not seen necessary the idea of dropping any variable or creating any new variable by joining highly associated variables. The predictors that were significantly and moderately associated with one another were workload with WFC (r =.494, n=164, p <.01). The results indicated a positive linear relationship between workload and WFC, suggesting that an increase in workload is associated by an increase in WFC. Workload was also statistically significant and positively related to family to work conflict (r=.253, n=164, p <.01). However, workload was negatively related to perceived organizational support (r=-.317, n=164, p <.01). Thus, an increase in perceived work overload is associated with an increase in FWC and a decline influence on perception of organization support.

Table 13

Pearson's Correlations among Predictor Variables

	1	2	3	4
1. Workload	1			
2. Work-Family Conflict	.494**	1		
3. Family-Work Conflict	.253**	.333**	1	
4. Perceived Organizational Support	-.317**	-.270**	-.058	1

Not. ** Correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 (2-tailed)

POS was also significantly and negatively related to WFC (r=-.270, n=164, p <.01), and not significantly related to FWC. FWC and WFC are also significantly positively related to each other, (r=.333, n=164, p <.01). Thereupon, in this study work overload is related in a linear positive relation with WFC and FWC, and negatively related to POS. Moreover, WFC and FWC are also significantly and positively related. However, POS is negatively associated with all predictors despite FWC were no significant relations was found between them.

Since the bivariate analysis yielded significant results for working format variable and weekend working format variable, these two demographic results are controlled during hypotheses testing. It is essential to control these two variables since they will adversely affect the hypothesis testing results. Once, the correlation analysis results were assessed ANOVA was performed to test the effect of controlled variables on the outcome variable. The purpose of one-way ANOVA is used to determine whether the mean of dependent variable is the same in two or more unrelated, independent groups. Levene's test was not significant assuming the homogeneity of variances. F value was evaluated and a statistically significant difference between groups was assessed, below .05. Therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between groups (F=1,162) =6.807, p=.010). Given the pattern of results, a follow-up analysis was performed to determine the degree to which demographic variables played an important role in predicting affective commitment. The analysis revealed that the two demographic variables should be included in the hypothesis testing.

3.5. RESULTS OF MAIN ANALYSIS - HYPOTHESES TESTING

The hypothesis introduced in this study depicted POS moderating the impact WFC, FWC and work overload have on affective commitment. Additionally, the impact of workload on affective commitment was mediated by WFC and FWC. In this study, the moderation and mediation are integrated into a single model known also as a moderated mediation model. Moreover, to test the moderation analysis, the modeling that combines moderation and mediation PROCESS macro for SPSS software is used. Conditional Process analysis was developed by Andrew F. Hayes and the fifteen model was considered proper for our analysis.

3.5.1. Testing the First Model

In this model, the impact of work overload on affective commitment is tested, and this relationship is mediated by WFC and moderated by POS. Thus work overload impacts affective commitment directly and indirectly mediated by WFC. Moreover, the indirect relationship is moderated by POS. In other words, the impact of WL on AC is conditional depending on the value of POS. The model is schematically presented in Figure 19. Two

demographic variables are taken under statistical control in this model in order to avoid misleading results. These variables are working format and weekend working format. Level of confidence for all confidence intervals is 95 % CI.

Firstly, to test the hypotheses that WFC mediates the relationship between workload and affective commitment. In the first step, workload and work-family conflict relationship were analyzed. Working format and weekend working format were controlled to eliminate bias results. Controlling variables do not significantly predict WFC and AC. In order to avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centered and interactions term of WFC with POS and WL with POS were created. WL explain a significant amount of variance on WFC, (b= .55, t (160) =6.74, p<.001). Thus, workload is a significant predictor of WFC. Thereafter, the impact of each predictor and all interactions on AC were evaluated. Next, the direct effect of WL on AC is examined. Results suggest that WL significantly predict AC, (b= -.17, t (156) =-2.33, p= .02). Similarly, WFC significantly predict AC, (b=.16, t (156) =2.61, p= .01). Then moderator impact on DV was determined. POS significantly predicts AC, (b= .36, t (156) =5.39, p= .000). After all predictors were separately analyzed if they predict affective commitment or not, then interactions of predictor variables were assessed. The first interaction, the interaction of POS and Workload, was found to be significant (b= -.27, t (156) =-2.87; p= .004). However, the interaction of POS and WFC was found to be insignificant with (b= .16, t (156) =1.87, p= .0633). When the significant moderation was examined closely, it was realized that the moderation is only significant at high (b = -.39; t= -3.65; p =.001) and moderate levels of POS (b = -.17; t =-2.33; p = .02). Remarkably, the moderation was not significant at low levels of POS.
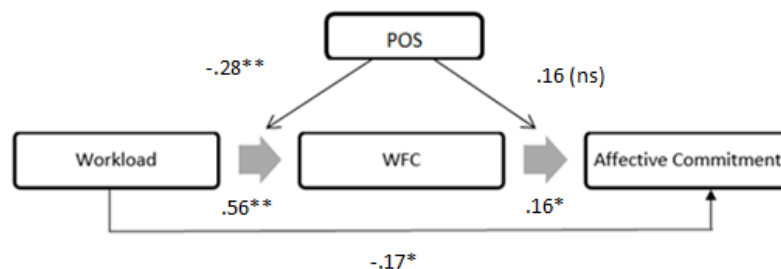
Note. ns: non-significant; *: p<.05.

Figure 19. Model 1. The Mediating Effect of WFC on the relationship between WL and AC, moderated by POS.

Moderated mediation model (R^2=.2608, (F (7, 156) = 7.8631, p<.001) and mediating relationship were found to be significant. However, the confidence interval included 0, which casts doubts about the mediating effect of WFC on the relationship between WL and AC. Therefore, to validate the results obtained from conditional process analysis, the mediation effect was tested using Baron & Kenny's (1986) four-step approach. In the first step, the direct effect of WL on AC was examined. As seen from the table below, the effect of WL on AC was found to be negative and significant (b =-.23; β = -.21, p<.05). At the second step, the direct of WL on WFC was examined and WL was found to positively predict WFC (b =.49; β = .59, p<.05). At the third step, the effect of WFC on AC was examined. However, at this step the effect of WL on AC was controlled. Results revealed that WFC could not predict AC after controlling the effect of WL. This renders the mediation hypothesis invalid. It seems that WL and WFC could predict AC on their own. When WL and WFC are taken into account together, the effect of WFC on AC seems to be suppressed by the effect of WL. However, results in respect with the first model suggest that relationship between workload and affective commitment differs with POS level as it presented in Figure 20. Even though, work-family conflict did not mediate the impact of WL on AC, POS revealed to be a strong determinant of this relationship.

Table 14

Mediation Analysis for WFC

	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT						
	B	**B**	*P*	**R**	**R^z**	**T**	**SE**
WORKLOAD	-.230	-.208	.003	.230	.053	-3.015	.670
	WFC						
	B	**B**	*P*	**R**	**R^z**	**T**	**SE**
WORKLOAD	.494	.591	.000	.494	.245	7.241	.791
	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT						
	B	**B**	*P*	**R**	**R^z**	**T**	**SE**
WFC	-.019	-.014	.812	.019	.000	-.238	.688

Not. p <.05
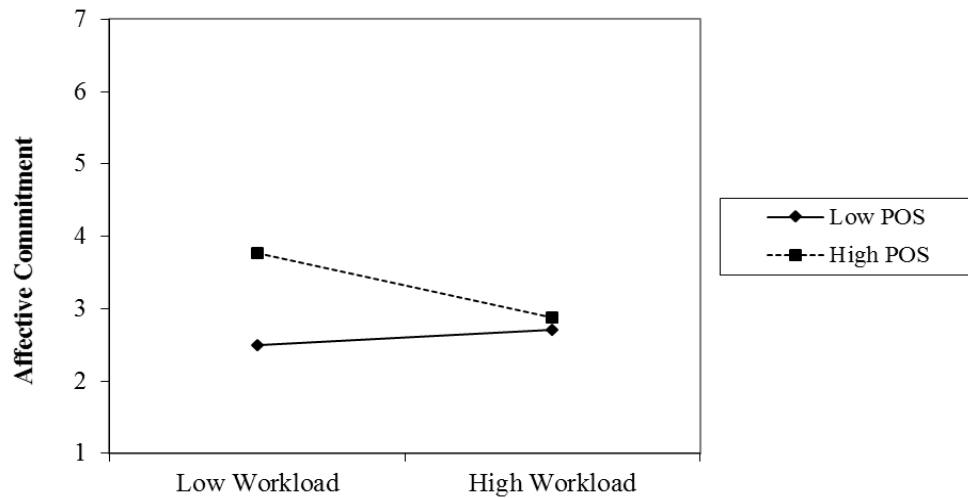
Figure 20. Relationship of Affective Commitment with Workload at Different Levels of POS

3.5.2. Testing the Second Model

In the second model, the impact of work overload on affective commitment is tested again. Nevertheless, in this model mediator is FWC and moderator is again POS. Thus, this model is the same as the first model, but mediator is the second dimension of work-family conflict (FWC). Likewise, in this model WL predicts AC, and their relationship is conditional depending on the value of POS. The model is schematically presented in Figure 21. Similar to the previous model, working format and weekend working format are taken under statistical control to eliminate bias results.

In order to test the estimated hypotheses with PROCESS procedure for SPSS 21.0, starts with analyzing work overload relation with FWC. As in the first model, control variables do not significantly predict FWC and AC. In order to avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centered and interactions term of FWC with POS and WL with POS were created. WL explained a significant amount of variance on FWC, (b= .36, t (160) =3.31, p<.001). Next, all variables (WL, POS, FWC) were assessed if they predict or not affective commitment. Subsequently, the direct effect of WL on AC was assessed. Nonetheless, in this model once WL was included in the model, it did not significantly predict AC, (b=-.09, t (156) =-1.38, p=.17). Similarly, FWC did not significantly predict AC, (b= .03, t (156) =.51, p= .6088). POS significantly predicts AC,

(b= .35, t (156) =5.13, p= .000). Thereafter, interactions of predictor variables were assessed. In the first interaction, POS interacting with FWC is observed. This interaction underlined a non-significant impact of POS and FWC on AC, (b= .09, t (156) =1.58, p=.12). However, the second interaction of workload and POS significantly predicted AC, (b= -.19, t (156) =-2.36, p= .0197).
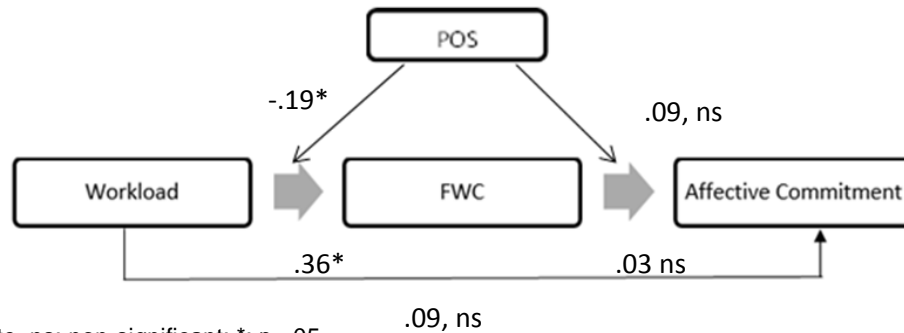
Figure 21. Model 2. The Mediating Effect of FWC on the relationship between WL and AC, moderated by POS.

Note. ns: non-significant; *: p<.05.

Moderated mediation model (R2=.2214, (F (7, 156) = 6.3366, p<.001) was found to be significant. However, the effect of FWC on AS was found to be insignificant. Besides that, the confidence interval included 0, which made the mediating effect of FWC on the relationship between WL and AC invalid. AS in Model 1, to validate the results obtained from condition process analysis, the mediation effect was tested using Baron & Kenny's four-step approach. In the first step, the direct effect of WL on AC was examined. AS seen from the table below, the effect of WL on AC was found to be negative and significant (b = -.23; β = -.21, p<.05). At the second step, the direct effect of WL on FWC was examined and WL was found to positively predict FWC (b =.25; β = .35, p<.05). At the third step, the effect, the effect of FWC on AC was examined after controlling the effect of WL on AC was controlled. Results revealed that FWC could not predict the AC after controlling the effect of WL. This renders the mediation hypothesis invalid.

Table 15

Mediation Analysis for FWC

	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT						
	B	**B**	**P**	**R**	**R^2**	**t**	**SE**
WORKLOAD	-.230	-.208	.003	.230	.053	-3.015	.670
	FWC						
	B	**B**	**P**	**R**	**R^2**	**t**	**SE**
WORKLOAD	.253	.354	.001	.253	.064	3.333	1.028
	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT						
	B	**B**	**P**	**R**	**R^2**	**t**	**SE**
FWC	-.048	-.031	.544	.48	.002	-.608	.687

Not. p <.05

3.5.3. Results of Hypotheses Tested in the Study

In this part developed hypotheses and their results are evaluated with the help of different analyses methods. The estimated hypotheses for this study and results related to these hypotheses are presented in the table below. Thereby, relationship of work overload and affective commitment is moderated by POS and is partially mediated by work-family conflict.

Table 16

Hypotheses of Research and Hypotheses Testing Results

		ACCEPT	REJECT
H1	Work overload negatively predicts affective commitment.	✗	
H2	POS positively predicts affective commitment.	✗	
	Hypotheses about Model 1. (WFC mediating WL and AC, and POS moderating their relationship).		
H3	POS moderates the relationship between WFC and Workload such that higher POS decreases the effect of WL on WFC.	✗	
H4	POS moderates the relationship between WFC and AC such that higher POS decreases the effect of WFC on AC.		✗
H5	WFC mediates the relationship between work overload and affective commitment.		✗
H6	WFC negatively predicts affective commitment.		✗
	Hypotheses about Model 2. (FWC mediating WL and AC, and POS moderating their relationship).		
H7	Family-work conflict negatively predicts affective commitment.		✗
H8	POS moderates FWC and Workload relationship such that higher POS decreases the effect of WL on FWC.	✗	
H9	POS moderates FWC and AC relationship such that higher POS decreases the effect of FWC on AC.		✗
H10	FWC is expected to mediate work overload and affective commitment relationship.		✗
	MAIN HYPOTHESIS		
H11	The mediating effect ofWFC/FWC on the relationship between workload and affective commitment differs with the levels of POS.	✗	

CONCLUSION

This study's aim was to have a greater understanding of factors that enhance affective commitment like POS and factors that inversely affect commitment like work overload and WFC/FWC. To test the proposed hypotheses, questionnaire technique for data collection and quantitative analysis method were used. Hypotheses developed for the previously mentioned purpose are tested using quantitative research method. Thereby, data were obtained from a survey conducted among nurses in public hospitals and healthcare centers. After factor analysis of study variables, hypotheses were tested using PROCESS macro detailed by Hayes (2002). Results obtained did not prove all hypotheses; WFC and FWC did not significantly mediate the relationship of WL and AC. Nevertheless, POS moderated relationship between WL and WFC but did not moderate WFC and AC relationship; POS moderated WL and FWC relationship but did not moderate FWC and AC relationship; then WL, WFC/FWC, and POS positively predicted AC as it was expected. The results of statistical analyses were discussed in detail in the previous chapter. In this part, results are briefly discussed and interpreted.

To demonstrate the relationship among study variables two models were built and a total of eleven hypotheses were developed. Stated hypotheses were analyzed using conditional process analysis. Additionally, working format and weekend working format were taken under control to eliminate biased results. The first model examined workload and affective commitment relationship mediated by WFC and moderated by perceived organizational support. Results suggested that affective commitment is negatively predicted by work overload and positively predicted by perceived organizational support. Proposed hypotheses in the first model proved that POS moderated the relationship between WFC and WL, such that higher POS decreased the effect of WL on WFC. Nevertheless, POS and WFC interaction did not significantly predict AC. Thereby, in nurse staff in Ankara, perceived In addition, WFC did not negatively predict AC, and did not mediate relationship between WL and AC. As it was expected WL positively predicted WFC.

It was seen reasonable to validate the results obtained from conditional process analysis by using regression analysis. Thereby, in order to identify the existence of mediation, Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step mediation approach was used. While testing through regression analysis for the existence of mediation, the impact of WL on AC was controlled. Results reconfirmed that WFC did not mediate relationship between WL and AC. Thus, in the first model moderated mediation was performed, and results suggest that WFC did not mediate the relationship between WL and AC, and POS moderated relationship among WL and WFC. Therefore, an increase in POS decreased the influence of WL on WFC. However, POS did not moderate relationship of WFC and AC. As a result, an increase in perceived organizational support did not decrease the effect of WFC on affective commitment. The reason for such results in the first model is the presence of WL as a strong variable. Workload suppresses the effect of WFC on AC. WL not only changed the magnitude of WFC on AC, but also the direction of the effect.

The second model constructed in this study is similar to the first model. Nevertheless, in this model, the mediator is not WFC but its opposite dimension FWC. Proposed hypotheses were analyzed using conditional process analysis. The second model is similar to the first model. It evaluated the relationship between workload and AC mediated by FWC and moderated by POS. Model fit indices demonstrated a poor fit in the first examination, and once revisions were performed acceptable model fit indices were obtained. In both models, POS significantly and positively predict AC. However, WL did not significantly predict AC in the second model. Proposed hypotheses in the second model proved that POS moderates FWC and WL relationship, such that WL effect on FWC is diminished as POS increases. However, FWC and AC relationship was not moderated by POS. Similarly to previous model, FWC did not mediate WL and AC relationship. In the first model, to validate results obtained from mediation regression analysis were done. In this model, regression analysis for proving mediation with four-step procedure was performed as well. Results are the same as model one, FWC (mediator) did not mediate WL and AC relationship. In the third step, the effect of WL on AC was controlled and FWC did not significantly predict AC. Therefore, FWC mediation of WL and AC relationship is invalid. The presence of WL in the model changed the direction and magnitude of FWC on AC. WL suppresses the effect FWC on AC.

The results of this study suggest that from 10 developed hypotheses, 4 of them were accepted and the rest 6 hypotheses were rejected. WFC and FWC did not mediate the relationship between WL and AC. Work overload has a positive impact on both WFC and FWC. POS moderated WL and WFC relationship, but did not moderate WFC and AC relationship. Then, POS moderated WL and FWC relationship, but did not moderate FWC and AC relationship. In this part results of the study were briefly discussed. In the following parts finding of hypotheses, results are evaluated, limitations of the study are discussed and future research suggestions are provided in order to eliminate these limitations. Lastly, contribution of this study and findings of the results of literature are determined and some recommendations are advised.

Based on the results obtained from statistical analysis of this study, in the first model work overload negatively predicts affective commitment. Therefore, nurses are less affectively committed to their organization (i.e., hospital or health center), when they perceive greater workload at work. As it was stated in literature review, perceived work overload influences employees' behavior and attitudes. In this study, findings suggest that perceived WL significantly predicts AC and influences attitudes and behavior of nurses. Attained findings in this study are supported also by several researches in literature review (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Workload is considered a strong determinant of AC, as it is one of the main predictors of stress at work and fosters resentment feelings in employees (Greenberg et al, 2008). Thereby, work overload is an important issue in nursing staff, as it generates stress and exhaustion. Furthermore, stress generates health problems in employees, both physical and psychological problems. Consequently, nurses working under such conditions are more willingly to leave organization and are less affectively committed to their organization. Moreover, as long as nurses' continue to bear work overload, they cannot properly serve the community because their exhaustion and stress will affect their performance at work. Additionally, workload is also strongly associated with job satisfaction (Rageb et al, 2010). Therefore, nurses perceiving greater workload are less satisfied with their job and subsequently less emotionally attached to their organization. The negative impact of work overload on affective commitment is also supported by researchers in Turkey (Hoş & Oksay, 2015; Kanbur, 2015). Thereby in this study, workload demonstrated to be a strong negative determinant of affective commitment among nurse

staff and this result is also supported by previous studies in other professions (Malik et al, 2010; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Hosie, 2006).

Findings of this study suggest that POS moderates the relationship between WFC and WL. Thereby, as nurses perceived organizational support increases, the effect of WL on WFC decreases. Nurses experience less work to family conflict when they perceive more organizational support from hospital or health center administrator even if they face the same workload at work.

The importance of relationship between WFC and WL increased with the growth in a number of dual-earner couples and women joining labor market. Bolino and Turnley (2005) suggest that stress in one of the main determinants of WFC experienced by individuals. Work overload is one of the main determinants fostering stress at work and having a positive impact on WFC (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998). Especially for nurses, who work long hours and face greater physical and mental workload. In this study, WL significantly and positive impact WFC, such that an increase in WL caused an increase in WFC. Therefore, nurses perceiving work overload lack the necessary resources, like time and energy to accomplish their family responsibilities. Subsequently, when nurses perceive high work overload, their work to family conflict is increased proportionally. Nurses spend more time and energy at work, and are not able to fulfill their family responsibilities. Another important point to mention in this study is that most of the participants were females and greatest proportion of respondents was parents as well. It proves the results of previous studies that parents especially women who experience stress at work do not have a good relationship with their children, causing an increase in WFC (Galambos et al, 1995). In this study, nurses' work with long hours and experience work overload that negatively influences family relationship, and increasing WFC. The results of this study, about the direct relationship of WL and WFC supports the findings generated by previous studies; work overload negatively affects WFC, such as an increase in WL causes an increase in WFC (Ilies et al. , 2007; Geurts et al., 2003, Michel et al., 2011, etc.).

Also interesting was the fact that POS influences WFC, both directly and through antagonistic effect when interacting with WL. As it was expected POS decreased work to family conflict. POS is considered a crucial determinant in reducing WFC, as POS is a crucial factor in decreasing stress level at work (Hammer et al, 2003). Thus, when nurses'

perceived support from their organizations, their inter-role conflict was reduced, WFC was decreased. The findings obtained in this study are also supported by the findings of other researchers both in Turkey and other countries (Gurbuz, 2013; Turunc & Celik, 2010; Kossek et al, 2011; Warren & Johnson, 1995, etc.). POS and WL are also associated in literature to one another. WL is positively related to stress, while POS is negatively related to stress (Wfald et al, 2008). Therefore, WL and POS were expected to be negatively related to each other.

Numerous studies have empirically analyzed the interaction of POS with study variables to observe their impact on WFC. In this study, the interaction of POS with WL accounted for a significant proportion of variance in work to family conflict. Findings suggest an antagonistic enhancing effect that as POS increases, the effect of WL on WFC was reversed. Firstly, workload had a significant positive impact on WFC, but after WL interaction with POS, their impact on WFC was negatively significant. Thereby, nurses experiencing work overload and high perceived organizational support reported less WFC. In this study proposed hypotheses was proved, with POS moderating the relationship between WL and WFC. Perceived organizational support reversed the positive effect of WL on WFC in nurse staff.

Findings of FWC, WL, and POS relationship are the same with the above interpreted results of WFC, WL and POS relationship. Nevertheless, the magnitudes of the relationships are different for the two models. Findings suggest that POS moderates the relationship between FWC and WL as well. Nurses experience less FWC when they perceive more organizational support from hospital or health center directors even if they bear the same workload at work.

Firstly, the direct relationship of WL and POS on FWC are discussed. Therefore, FWC was significantly and positively influenced by WL. Findings of this study support previous researches that workload negatively influences work and family life (Clark & Baltes, 2011). Thereby, it was determined a direct positive effect of WL on FWC, such that an increase in WL causes an increase in FWC. Family to work conflict for nurse staff in this study was increased as they perceive more workload. Nurses' work and family life is strongly associated with their perceived work overload. FWC and POS were also expected to be negatively related to each other, similar to aforementioned relationships. Findings

supported expectations and POS was negatively related to FWC, such that an increase in POS level caused a decrease in FWC among nurse staff. Results of this study suggest that interaction of POS and WL accounted for a significant proportion of variance in FWC. POS had an antagonistic enhancing effect on the relationship between WL and FWC. Proposed hypothesis was proved as POS moderated relationship between WL and FWC in nurse staff, causing a change in magnitude and direction of WL and FWC relationship.

In this study, two important hypotheses were developed to test the indirect effect of WL on AC through WFC and FWC. Results generated by the model in the process macro suggest that WFC and FWC did not mediate work overload and affective commitment relationship. In order to verify whether or not WFC and FWC mediate relationship between WL and AC, four-step approach developed by Baron and Keyenn (1986) was conducted. In the first step, the direct effect of WL on AC was examined. WL negatively and significantly predicted AC. In the second step direct effect of WL on WFC was examined, and WL positively and significantly predicted WFC. However, in the third step, after controlling the effect of WL on AC, WFC did not predict AC. This reconfirmed that WFC did not mediate the effect of WL on AC. Similar steps were followed for the mediation effect of FWC between WL and AC. Findings were the same as for WFC. Thus, both FWC and WFC do not mediate the effect of WL on AC.

These findings contradicts the results obtained from previous researches, because WFC and FWC are considered as negative predictors of affective commitment in literature (Lyen & Thompson, 1997; Good et al, 1988; Netmeyer et al, 1996; Thompson & Lyness, 1997; Kossek & Ozeki 1999; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999, etc.). However, Siu (2014) suggested that affective commitment was not related to strain based and time-based FWC. In Turkey, findings of relationship between WFC and OC are different from one another. Some researchers (i.e., Efeoğlu and Özgen, 2007) found a negative impact of WFC on organizational commitment. However, Sonmez and Benligiray (2012) found a positive relationship of OC and WFC among nurses and doctors. Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006) did not found any significant relationship between OC and WFC. Other researchers instead (i.e., Batur and Nart, 2013) concluded a partial effect of WFC on OC. Thereby, in Turkey results about relationship between OC and WFC are controversial. Subsequently, there is an issue with this variable measured in Turkey.

Thereby, obtained results do not support the expected negative relationship of WFC and FWC with AC. In both models, POS did not moderate WFC/FWC and affective commitment relationship. Therefore, these results did not support the theoretical propositions, that the influence of FWC and WFC on nurses' affective commitment is moderated by POS.

WFC was founded to positively and significantly predict AC. However, it was interesting the fact that FWC did not significantly predict affective commitment. The fact that FWC and AC do not correlate with each other contradicts previous studies that found a negative relationship between the two constructs (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Casper et al. (2002) did not found a significant association between FWC and AC as well. Studies that found a negative relationship between FWC and AC had a more heterogeneous sample. However, participants of Casper et al (2002)'s research were all employed mothers, and in this study most of the participants (95 %) were all women nurses. The reason for variations in results might be attributed to the difference of how women and men manage work and family life (Casper et al, 2002). Additionally, parents and nonparents manage work and family life differently as well. Women are more disposable to sacrifice career and do not affectively attach to organization, if they are consciousness that work spontaneously interferes with family. Segmentation approach suggests that work and family life are not related to one another. Thereby, if nurses of this study segment work and family issues, than FWC might not influence AC. Considering all the findings together, that although women are more present in labor market in the recent years, employment for these nurses may be more a necessity than a desire to work. Thus, since women might work more because they need to not because they have to, making them not affectively committed to organization.

Findings suggest that POS and affective commitment are related to each other. In other words POS significantly and positively predicts AC. Thereby, nurses respond positively to organizational support, and becoming affectively committed to their organizations. Moreover, results are consistent with findings of previous researches that organizations who developed policies to support their employees, then their employees are more affectively committed to organization. However, output generated from this research did not support the moderation effect of WFC on AC, and FWC on AC as well. POS did not moderate the effect of WFC and FWC on affective commitment.

Limitations and Future Research

This study enhanced our understanding of relationships between WL, WFC, FWC, POS and AC in nurse staff. Nevertheless, important questions remain to be studied and proposed in future researches. One crucial limitation in our sample is the composition of the sample with a majority of women. The reason for that is the fact that most of the nurses are women. Although Casper et al (2002)'s findings are similar to these results; it examined all dimensions of commitment not just affective commitment. Another limitation of this study is the number of participant and research performed on healthcare organizations. Health care organizations workload is higher compared to other organizations. Another constrain of this study was sample construction that is almost homogeneous, with most of respondents being women. Some characteristics that might affect relationships explored in this study are tenure, number of children or marital status. Marital status and its effect on these relationships is another variable that could be considered in the future results. It is important to choose samples to make a generalization about these findings or find samples with similar charactersitics of nurses that employee many female employees.

The effect of work-family conflict on AC is different from past research; consequently future researches should research why such differences occur. The possible and logical interpretation could be that nurses are used to their job work overload and can separate work from family life, or may be gender differences. Presence of workload variable is also thought to be a significant influence on this relationship as it suppresses the effect of WFC/FWC on affective commitment. Since this data collection did not demonstrate the expected results, a more improved measure of WFC and FWC could better enhance our understanding of work–family conflict. Although the significant relationship between affective commitment and POS and past research has found that affective commitment and POS are highly related but distinct constructs. Thus, the relationship between POS and affective commitment supports Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) theory of the relationship as a social exchange process. Finally, additional research is needed to link the variables in this study with other important organizational outcomes. Future research should generate more comprehensive models explicating the relationships between these variables and other important constructs.

The current study contributes to the literature by examining, work overload, perceived organizational support, and work-family conflict effect on affective commitment. Particularly, it was examined how work–family interference mediates the effect of work overload on affective commitment, and how perceived organizational support moderate these relationships.This topic of research was inspired by studies similar or related to this topic of study. After deciding the topic of study, research process did not aim only to provide an understating of the topic, but also to establish what is already known in order to determine whether this research contributes to knowledge and literature. Looking at previous international researches, it was aimed to implement a similar research in Turkey as well. It was seen reasonable to investigate a topic that could close research gap in Turkish literature and guide future researches. Organizational commitment despite being abundantly studied in Turkey, its relationship with workload being mediated by work-family conflict and moderated by perceived organizational support did not come across during literature review. In the international literature, there is relatively small amount of studies with the sampe perspective of this study. Additionally, Casper et al (2002) suggest that cultural framework is important because it influences work-family relationships. Moreover, in this study it was observed that study of WFC and FWC has generated results that are not consistent with literature. Thus, WFC and FWC are important study variables that are influenced by cultural in Turkey.

Another important contribution of this study in literature is the proposed method for analyzing data. Method was based on moderated mediation of the relationship between work overload and affective commitment. Most of researches consider organizational commitment with all its three dimensions, but in this study it was examined only affective commitment. Thereby, this is one of the main contributions of this study to the literature of affective commitment and its predictors. Some of the findings of the current study were consistent with previous studies. However, wok-family relationship was controversial from previous researches, and from expected results. Casper et al (2002) in their study also attained same results with WFC and FWC not predicting affective commitment.

In this study, important findings were obtained from the tested hypotheses. Results suggested that workload predicts negatively affective commitment and positively work-family conflict; perceived organizational support changes the effect that work overload has

on work-family conflict; relationship between workload and affective commitment was not mediated by work-family conflict. Moreover, family-work conflict did not significantly predict affective commitment. Underlying the results of this study, some vital suggestions and recommendations are advised to administrators of health care organizations. Next, suggestions are provided on how to enhance affective commitment in nurse staff as well.

Firstly it is important to understand that results of work-family issues vary from one culture to another. In Turkey, results about the effect of work-family conflict were controversial from one another. Thereby, researchers should consider cultural framework of participants in order to provide the appropriate suggestions to administrators (Casper & Swanberg, 2011). In Turkey, results suggest that affective commitment is influenced by WFC, but it is not influenced by FWC. Thereby, nurses spent most of their time and work making work interfering with family responsibilities. Nurses in Turkey work more than 40 hours per week as it is determined by legislation. These findings are consistent with the findings of Siu (2014), who suggests a negative relationship of strain-based and time-based conflict with affective commitment. Strain at work is generated from work overload and limited time to accomplish both work and family demands. Specifically, this finds suggest that Turkish nurses experience work overload that leads to their work-family conflict, resulting in decrease in affective commitment. Healthcare organizations interested in supporting their nurses to minimize work-family conflicts, must develop proper family support policies and survey nurses to understand their problems and identify nurses that are mostly at risk for role conflict. Indirectly, administrators could reschedule the working time and working format, in order to decrease nurses' work overload. Therefore, administrators should use their nurses more effectively and hire the optimal number of nurses. Another way that health care managers should use to minimize the work to family conflict is perceived organizational support. Administrators, through perceived organizational support not only minimize work and family issues of nurses, but increases their affective commitment as well. Workload is a strong factor that affects affective commitment in nurse staff. Work overload is one of the main predictors of stress at work, and negatively influencing affective commitment. As Greenberg et al (2008) suggest work overload fosters frustration and resentment feelings instead of affective feeling for organization. Administrators, should reschedule working time and working format for nurses. Additionally, number of patient per

nurse should decrease and if personnel cannot handle workload than extra nurses should be hired to share the burden of workload.

Affective commitment is the emotional attachment of nurses to the health organization where they work. As it was mentioned in the beginning of this study commitment in health organizations previously used to be enhanced through continuance commitment (i.e., high salary). However in recent years researchers focused more on the enhancement of affective commitment and normative commitment. In order to increase affective commitment, firstly administrators should manage work and family life issues of their nurses. The solutions and suggestions for how decrease work-family issues was mentioned above. Affective commitment, in this study could be enhanced by increase of perceived organizational support. It is important that administrators demonstrates to nurses respect, value, cares about their well-being, by offering good working conditions and payment options. In order for health organizations to support their employees, administrators should be in interaction with them and understand the needs of nurses. Equally important is the treatment that administrator makes to nurses. If they perceive fair and justice in the decision making and policies procedures than perceived organizational support is affected positively enhancing emotional attachment of nurses. In this study, it was assumed that work overload, work-family conflict and family-work conflict would negatively impact affective commitment and their negative impact would be decreased by perceived organizational support. In this chapter, recommendations and suggestions were provided to health care organizations on how to increase affective commitment among nurse staff by influencing work overload, perceived organizational support and work-family issues. As a final suggestion, it is important that administrators design good working schedules that decrease workload and work-family conflict, and support more their employees by being fair in their decision.

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APPENDICIES

A. QUESIONNAIRE

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırmanın amacı çalışanların hissettikleri iş yükü, iş-aile çatışması ve algıladıkları desteğin kurumlarına olan bağlılıklarını nasıl etkilediğini incelemektedir. Bu kapsamda aşağıdaki ankette sizinle ve çalışma ortamınızla ilgili maddeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen anketi doldurmaya başlamadan önce ölçeklerin başında yer alan açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Anketi eksiksiz doldurmanız ve sorulara içtenlikle cevap vermeniz araştırmamızdan elde edilecek sonuçların sağılıklı olması açısından önemlidir.

Ankette, katılımcılardan kimlik belirtici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Bu çalışmada toplanan veriler tamamen bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacak ve cevaplar sadece araştırmacılar tarafından görülecektir. Katılım tamamıyla gönüllük temelindedir; ancak katılımınız araştırmamız için önemli bir katkı sağlayacaktır. Bu araştırmaya yönelik sorularınızı Dorela Xhako'ya yöneltebilirsiniz.

Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.
Dorela Xhako, Hacettepe Üniveristesi İşletme Bölümü / Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi
// Tel: 0507 860 50 05

Kişisel Bilgiler:

1. **Cinsiyetiniz:**   Erkek ☐   Kadın ☐

2. **Yaşınız:**_____**belirtiniz.**

3. **Medeni Durumunuz:**   Evli ☐   Bekar ☐

4. **Çocuk sayısı:**_____**belirtiniz.**

5. **Eğitim Düzeyiniz:**

   Lise   ☐   Önlisans   ☐

   Lisans   ☐   Lisans Üstü   ☐

6. **Meslekte toplam çalışma süreniz:** _____ **Yıl (veya**_____**Ay).**

7. **Görev yaptığınız kurumdaki toplam hizmet süreniz:**

   1 Yıldan az   ☐   1-3 Yıl arası   ☐   4-6 Yıl arası   ☐

   7-10 Yıl arası ☐   10-14 Yıl arası ☐   15 Yıldan fazla ☐

8. **Çalışma şekliniz nedir?**

Devamlı gündüz ☐   Devamlı gece ☐

Aylık rotasyon ☐   Vardiya ☐

9. Haftalık çalışma süreniz?   40Saat ve altı ☐   41Saat ve üzeri ☐

10. Hafta sonları çalışıyor musunuz?   Evet ☐   Hayır ☐

BÖLÜM II Lütfen her bir ifadeyi çalıştığınız kurumu düşünerek değerlendiriniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı karşılarına işaretleyerek (✔) belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok.					
2. İstesem de, şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.					
3. Bu kurumun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.					
4. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp burada kurduğum kişisel ilişkileri bozmam doğru olmaz.					
5. Şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.					
6. Yeni bir işyerine alışmak benim için zor olurdu.					
7. Bu kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.					
8. Bu kuruma kendimi "duygusal olarak bağlı" hissetmiyorum.					
9. Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.					
10. Başka bir işyerinin buradan daha iyi olacağının garantisi yok, burayı hiç olmazsa biliyorum.					
11. Kurumuma çok şey borçluyum.					
12. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp başka bir yerde sıfırdan başlamak istemezdim.					
13. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.					
14. Kendimi kurumumda "ailenin bir parçası" gibi hissetmiyorum.					
15. Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.					
16. Bu kuruma sadakat göstermenin görevim olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
17. Kurumum maddi olarak zor durumda olsa bile, sonuna kadar kalırdım.					
18. Bu kurumun bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
19. Mevcut iş verenimle kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.					
20. Bu kurumun amaçlarını benimsiyorum.					
21. Bu kurum sayesinde ekmek parası kazanıyorum, karşılığında sadakat göstermeliyim.					
22. Eğer bu kuruma kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.					

23. Mevcut kurumumdan ayrılıp birlikte çalıştığım insanları yarı yolda bırakmak istemem.					
24. Kurumumdan şimdi ayrılsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.					
25. Zaman geçtikçe mevcut kuruumdan ayrılmanın gittikçe zorlaştığını hissediyorum.					

BÖLÜM III Lütfen her bir ifadeyi çalıştığınız kurumu düşünerek değerlendiriniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı karşılarına işaretleyerek (✓) belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. İşimde benden talep edilenler kapasitemin üstünde.					
2. İş yüküm oldukça ağır.					
3. İşim hafta sonları ve akşamları da çalışmamı gerektiriyor.					
4. İş yüküm beni aşıyor.					
5. İşlerimi yetiştirebilmek için özel hayatımdan fedakarlık yapmam gerekiyor.					
6. Normal iş saatleri içinde işlerimi bitirmekte zorlanıyorum.					
7. İşlerimi rahat ve zamanında yetiştirebiliyorum.					
8. Yaptığım iş bilgi ve beceri seviyemin üzerinde.					
9. İş yükümün ve aldığım sorumlulukların altında eziliyorum.					
10. İşim çok ve uzun saatler çalışmamı gerektiriyor.					
11. Şu anda çalıştığım pozisyon çok fazla işle ve kişiyle uğraşmamı gerektiriyor.					

BÖLÜM IV Lütfen her bir ifadeyi çalıştığınız kurumu düşünerek değerlendiriniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı karşılarına işaretleyerek (✓) belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. İşimin gerekleri, ev ve aile hayatıma engel olabiliyor.					
2. İşime ayırmam gereken zaman, aile sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmemi zorlaştırıyor.					
3. Evde yapmak istediklerimi, işimin bana yüklediği sorumluluklardan dolayı bir kenara itmek zorunda kalıyorum.					
4. İşimle ilgili konular yüzünden üzerimde hissettiğim baskı, ailevi sorumluluklarımı yerine getirebilmeme engel oluyor.					
5. İşimle ilgili görevlerden dolayı aile planlarımı değiştirmek zorunda kalıyorum.					
6. Ailemin ve/veya eşimin talep ve beklentileri, benim işle ilgili faaliyetler yapmama engel oluyor.					
7. İşte yapmak istediklerimi, eşimin ve ailemin bana yüklediği sorumluluklardan dolayı yetiştiremiyorum.					
8. Ev hayatım, işimle ilgili; işe zamanında gelmek, günlük işlerimi yapmak, fazla mesaiye kalmak gibi sorumlulukları yerine getirme yeteneğimi engelliyor.					

9. Evdeki işlerime zaman ayırabilmek için işimle ilgili şeyleri bir kenara itmek durumunda kalıyorum.					
10. Aile ile ilgili konular yüzünden üzerimde hissettiğim baskı, işimle ilgili sorumluluklarımı yerine getirebilmemi engelliyor.					

BÖLÜM V **Lütfen her bir ifadeyi çalıştığınız kurumu düşünerek değerlendiriniz.** **Aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı karşılarına işaretleyerek (✓)** **belirtiniz.**	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Kurumum, yaptığım katkıları kendisi için değerli bulur.					
2. Kurumum, yerime daha düşük ücretle çalışacak birini bulsaydı onu işe alırdı.					
3. Kurumum, fazladan gösterdiğim çabalarımı takdir etmez.					
4. Kurumum, hedef ve değerlerimi ciddi şekilde dikkate alır.					
5. Kurumum, yapacağım herhangi bir şikâyetlerimi dikkate almaz.					
6. Kurumum, beni etkileyecek bir karar alması gerektiğinde benim çıkarlarımı umursamaz.					
7. Bir sorunum olduğunda kurumum bana yardım eder.					
8. Kurumum yeteneklerimi en iyi şekilde kullanabilmem için kendini geliştirmeme destek olur.					
9. İşimde en iyisini yapsam dahi kurumum bunun farkına varmayacaktır.					
10. Özel bir ricam olduğunda kurumum bunu yerine getirme konusunda isteklidir.					
11. Kurumum, yaptığım işten genel olarak tatmin olup olmadığımı önemser.					
12. Kurumum eğer fırsat bulursa beni istismar (iyi niyetini kötüye kullanmak) eder.					
13. Kurumum bana çok az ilgi gösterir.					
14. Kurumum fikirlerimi önemser.					
15. Kurumum yaptığım işi mümkün olduğunca ilginç ve zevkli hale getirmek için çaba gösterir.					
16. Kurumum benim işimdeki başarılarımdan her fırsatta gurur duyar.					
17. Kurumum, mutluluğumu gerçekten önemser.					

Ankete katıldığınız için tekrar TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ!
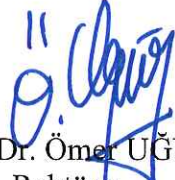
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Enstitünüz İşletme Anabilim Dalı Yönetim Organizasyon ve Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden **Dorela XHAKO**'nun **Yrd. Doç. Dr. Özge TAYFUR EKMEKCİ** danışmanlığında hazırladığı **"The Moderating Effect Of Perceived Organizational Support (Pos) in The Impact of Workload and Work Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment-A Research in Hospital Nurse Staffing"** başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **15 Aralık 2015** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Ömer UĞUR
Rektör a.
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Tarih: 14/02/2017

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DANIŞMAN ONAYI

UYGUNDUR.

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