ORGANIZACIJA

Journal of Management, Informatics and Human Resources

Revija za management, informatiko in kadre

ORGANIZACIJA

Organizacija (Journal of Management, Informatics and Human Resources) is an interdisciplinary peer-reviewed journal which is open to contributions of high quality, from any perspective relevant to the organizational phenomena.

The journal is designed to encourage interest in all matters relating to organizational sciences and is intended to appeal to both the academic and professional community. In particular, journal publishes original articles that advance the empirical, theoretical, and methodological understanding of the theories and concepts of management and organization. The journal welcomes contributions from other scientific disciplines that encourage new conceptualizations in organizational theory and management practice.

We welcome different perspectives of analysis, including the organizations of various sizes and from various branches, units that constitute organizations, and the networks in which organizations are embedded.

Topics are drawn, but not limited to the following areas:

- organizational theory, management, development, and organizational behaviour;
- human resources management (such as organization & employee development, leadership, value creation through HRM, workplace phenomena etc.);
- managerial and entrepreneurial aspects of education;
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- enterprise engineering (e.g., organizational design, business process management, enterprise transformation paradigms etc.);
- papers that analyse and seek to improve organizational performance.

Organizacija (Revija za management, informatiko in človeške vire) je interdisciplinarna recenzirana revija, ki objavlja visoko kakovostne prispevke z vseh vidikov, ki so pomembni za organizacijske procese in strukture.

Revija je zasnovana tako, da spodbuja zanimanje za različne vidike v zvezi z organizacijskimi vedami in je namenjena tako akademski kot strokovni skupnosti. Revija objavlja izvirne članke, ki spodbujajo empirično, teoretično in metodološko razumevanje teorij in konceptov managementa in organizacije. Pozdravljamo tudi prispevke iz drugih znanstvenih disciplin, ki spodbujajo nove koncepte v organizacijski teoriji in praksi. Objavljamo članke, ki analizirajo organiziranost z različnih vidikov, so usmerjeni na organizacije različnih velikosti in iz različnih sektorjev, na enote, ki sestavljajo organizacije, in na mreže, v katere so organizacije vpete.

Teme so pokrivajo predvsem naslednja področja:

- organizacijska teorija, upravljanje, razvoj in organizacijsko vedenje;
- management človeških virov (kot so organizacija in razvoj zaposlenih, vodenje, ustvarjanje vrednosti s pomočjo človeških virov, organizacijski pojavi na delovnem mestu itd.);
- vodstveni in podjetniški vidiki izobraževanja;
- poslovni informacijski sistemi (kot so digitalno poslovanje, sistemi za podporo odločanju, poslovna analitika itd.);
- podjetniški inženiring (npr. organizacijsko oblikovanje, upravljanje poslovnih procesov, paradigme preoblikovanja podjetij itd.);
- članki, ki analizirajo organizacijsko uspešnost in prizadevanja za izboljšanje le-te.

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Silence in Aviation: Development and Validation of a Tool to Measure Reasons for Aircraft Maintenance Staff not Reporting

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Background and purpose: Organizational silence, seen as the greatest obstacle to the success of organizations and expressed as a refraining from expressing feelings, and ideas about problems encountered in their organizations, is identified as the avoidance of voluntary reporting in aviation organizations. The main purpose of this research is to identify and develop a tool to measure the various reasons for aviation employees' remaining silent about the unsafe acts and events they witness, and the factors causing them to refrain from adopting safety enhancement proposals.

Methodology: Within the scope of the study, a data collection tool was developed. Explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis of the data obtained from 483 employees was conducted to test the reasons for not reporting voluntarily in aviation.

Results: As a result, it was found that employees did not participate in voluntary reporting due to factors of silence based on relational and prosocial factors, disengagement, quiescence and acquiescence, along with fear and defensiveness.

Conclusion: Accordingly, organizations need to acknowledge and act with the awareness that organizational silence is a common phenomenon. The importance of voluntary reporting should be explained to employees at every opportunity and the number of quality voluntary reports should be increased. However, this should go beyond the simple slogans of 'Safety comes first in this workplace' or 'Safety first' hanging on the wall of every organization.

Keywords: Organizational silence, Reporting, Safety management system, Aircraft maintenance

1 Introduction

Many aviation regulations are in place for the safe operation of air transport activity located at the center of the civil aviation system because air transportation offers many benefits, especially in the economic and socio-cultural areas (IHLG, 2019). However, the expected benefits of air transportation depend on the safe operation of air transportation procedures (Doganis, 2002).

How can aviation safety be improved? There are certainly many different answers to this question, but all of these answers require information that can be used to increase safety. The new generation safety management approaches assert that employees' experience, knowledge, opinions, suggestions, and predictions have to be drawn upon to obtain information towards enhancing safety

(Jausan et al., 2017). To make such an approach work, the voices of employees are necessary (Chen, 2017). It is underlined that if such voices are scarce or absent (Morrison and Milliken, 2000) it would be very difficult to improve safety because safety data and information cannot be obtained (Bienefeld and Grote, 2012). In this case, it is important to identify factors that reduce the voices of employees and even remove them altogether. Managers and civil aviation authorities who are striving to increase aviation safety spend great effort to identify and remove the reasons for organizational silence. For aviation safety, the most important voice for employees is voluntary reporting and, without it, any new generation of safety management approaches is destined to fail (Gerede, 2015a; Jausan et al., 2017)

Despite the fact that organizational or employee silence has recently been among the topics frequently discussed in management literature, the number of studies in which this subject is discussed, within the context of aviation, has unfortunately, been limited. This studies have focused on reasons for flight personnel to remain silent (Bienefeld and Grote,2012), cockpit interpersonal dynamics (Milanovich et al. 1998) and the source of motivation for cabin staff voicing their safety concern (Chen, 2017). While it is thought that employees do remain silent and avoid voluntary reporting by not expressing safety hazards, not providing information about unsafe incidents, and not making risk mitigation proposals that are all essential for an increase of safety, yet there is no a reliable and valid tool in the literature to measure the reasons aviation employees not reporting. Despite the criticality of voluntary reporting on safety performance, little is known about why aviation employees remain silent.

In response to such research gaps, this research is aimed find the reasons behind reporting failure behaviour, which is viewed as organizational silence, of the maintenance personnel of airline companies and the Maintenance, Repair and Overhaul Organizations (MROs) in Turkey and develop a tool to measure that. Voluntary reporting covers factors that may create unsafe conditions, such as hazards and incidents that cause such incidents, their possible consequences, the probability and severity of these consequences, and risk mitigation measures. In this study, organizational silence is defined as remaining silent even though these issues are known, seen or observed.

2 Literature Review

2.1 The Relationship between Safety Management and Voluntary Reporting

The performance-based approach sees and evaluates the world as it is, which is contrary to the traditional safety management approach that views the world as it should be (Reason, 2008). It places people in the center of the system by acknowledging that people and organizations can make errors and violate rules, and that risks cannot be totally eliminated (Karanikas & Chionis, 2019). As stressed by Reason (2008), human errors are inevitable and it is necessary to have systems to counter and capture them by 'voluntary reporting' in a 'just culture' environment. The key to this approach is that the organization proactively enhances its safety performance through real-life conditions by way of organizational learning, and finding and solving implicit organizational problems that arise in its own context (Gerede, 2015b). For this, the organization certainly needs safety data and knowledge from its own context. On the other hand we think that the shift from a culture of compliance based approach to a performance based approach may have some difficulties for some inspectors.

The management tools that apply to the performance-based approach are the State Safety Program (SSP) and the Safety Management System. The ICAO, which published its last comprehensive regulation (Annex-18) in 1984, published Annex-19 concerning 'Safety Management' on November 14, 2013, 29 years later. With Annex-19, the ICAO makes it compulsory for states to implement the SSP, and the aviation organizations to implement the SMS (ICAO, 2013a). It is necessary to have a timely, accurate and rich safety data set so that the SMS can be successfully implemented and safety performance improved (Gerede, 2015a).

The most important source of rich and qualified data that the SMS needs is employees (Liao, 2015). Voluntary reporting is the process by which employees voluntarily report safety hazards, human error and violations, incidents and their causes, and risk mitigating proposals to relevant units of the organization in order to increase safety (ICAO, 2013b). Voluntary reporting is feedback that members of the organization voluntarily provide, without any legal obligation or management pressure (FAA, 2020; SkyBrary, 2020). Mandatory reporting includes unsafe events that are required by the civil aviation authority to be notified compulsorily by service providers. The specific procedure regarding how to report about the who, what, and how questions in mandatory reporting is explained in detail by the ICAO (2013b). Civil aviation authorities, for example, are required to report accidents, near air misses, and fires during flight (Wood, 2003). New generation performance-based safety management tools cannot succeed without safety data and information; in other words, without voluntary reporting. For this reason, the ICAO requires relevant civil aviation authorities to use the voluntary reporting system (ICAO, 2013b). Such data and information provide proactivity in safety management, making it possible to identify specific contextual issues of aviation organization and to make successful predictions about future safety performance (Jausan, et al., 2017). As a result,

voluntary reporting has the potential to produce valuable information to increase safety.

In addition, being informed about incidents that do not produce serious consequences, but which are caused by the presence of safety hazards, can also produce useful information, since factors that are present in the organization regarding such incidents threaten safety, but fail to produce significant results (Liao, 2015). In other words, accidents that produce serious negative consequences and factors that cause unsafe incidents of low importance are, in fact, the same. The only difference being the degree of negativity in the outcome of the event. For this reason, having information about incidents with low-priority consequences is also crucial to the improvement of safety (FAA, 2018).

However, incidents that are thought to have had no serious consequences are not reported (Reason, 1997). Aviation organizations' awareness of accidents, of incidents that threaten safety, and of the factors that cause such incidents, is vital for the prevention of future unsafe events by taking lessons from the past. Such data and information in aviation activities can be obtained through voluntary reporting by employees (ICAO, 2013b).

2.2 Silence and the Concept of Organizational Silence

Silence is defined as the conscious concealment of knowledge, suggestions, thoughts, and anxiety by an individual about his/her job or organization (Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Tangirala and Ramanujam, 2008).

Employees have to make decisions regarding the explaining of their thoughts and concerns about their organization or remaining silent (Kıcır, 2018). However, it is generally observed that employees often keep information that may be valuable to an organization to themselves because they think it is safer for them not to speak, and thus they prefer to remain silent (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). This deprives decision-makers of the organization of this information when making decisions (Morrison, 2011). The phenomenon of silence can occur, not only at an individual level, but also at a group or organizational level. Silence has a contagious nature that starts at the level of individuals and then spreads to the group or organization, ending up with organizational silence (Brinsfield et al., 2009).

However, research has shown that organizational silence can degrade performance, create a potential barrier to development and innovation, and can have negative consequences at the individual/organizational level (Milliken, et al., 2003; Pope, 2019).

Organizations use a number of mechanisms to encourage employees not to remain silent and to have them point out problems or suggest solutions to these problems. This mechanism for safety in aviation organizations is the voluntary reporting system. In other words, voluntary reporting is a written feedback tool that employees use to communicate. Employees in aviation organizations can voluntarily report incidents, unsafe acts, circumstances, conditions and the factors that cause them, and risk mitigation measures to be used to increase safety. However, employees prefer to remain silent by not participating in voluntary reporting, which is an important data source in assuring safety for various reasons and for taking necessary preventive measures (Kongsvik, et al., 2012). In this study, silent behavior is considered as not reporting voluntarily.

2.2.1 Types of employee silent behavior

There are variations in employee silence classifications based on employee behavior (Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Pinder and Harlos, 2001; Dyne et al., 2003). First examined by Pinder and Harlos (2001), employee silence is characterized by four different types of silence behavior (Dyne et al., 2003; Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Brinsfield, 2013), which will be further elaborated on below. On the other hand, Brinsfield (2013) has added a new dimension to previously revealed dimensions of employee silence; relational silence.

Morrison and Milliken (2000) argue that a climate of silence emerges when employees in organizations think that it is not worth the effort to talk about problems. In organizations where a climate of silence is dominant, employees think that their opinions will not be taken into consideration when they express a problem or idea, that their reports will not lead to change, and that the effort they are putting into express their thoughts is wasted; thus, they choose to remain silent (Dyne, et al., 2003). Employees who internalize the assumption that their ideas will not be considered ignore the desire to make a declaration by accepting that they will not be able to change this situation by their own efforts, remain disengaged to making any reports and prefer to accept without objection (Pinder and Harlos, 2001). Therefore, employees remain unconcerned about their organization's problems, which is reflected on the negative outcomes of the organization (Morrison and Milliken, 2000).

Underpinning another type of silent behavior is fear (Brinsfield, 2013). Propounded by Pinder and Harlos (2001) for the first time, this type of silent behavior is defined as employees remaining deliberately silent fearing being made being subject to consequences if they speak out. Based on silence, there is a fear of encountering negative consequences, such as punishment or even dismissal from the workplace (Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Kıcır, 2018). Dyne et al. (2003) argue that such silent behavior results from a wish on the part of employees to protect themselves from any possible harm.

The prosocial silence associated with organizational citizenship behavior is consciously concealed by employees thinking that they will harm their colleagues or

their organizations if they share thoughts, knowledge, and opinions about any issue within the organization (Dyne et al., 2003). In this kind of silence behavior, rather than being afraid of suffering personal harm, the employee is concerned that his/her colleagues may face negative outcomes if s/he speaks. Underlying such concealment by the employee is his/her wish to participate in some sort of co-operation with co-workers and thus, acts altruistically, without expecting anything in return (Dyne et al., 2003). Employees exhibiting this kind of behavior remain silent to protect the interests of their organizations or colleagues.

Employees prefer to remain silent if they think that their relationships will be harmed if they talk (Brinsfield, 2013). The first of such relationships is the one with managers. Employees do not want their relationship with their managers to be harmed, worrying that they will lose managerial support, or that their managers will impose various sanctions on them (Perlow and Williams, 2003). The second type of relationship is the one established with co-workers. When employees do not remain silent and speak out, they are afraid that they will be stigmatized by their co-workers as a whistleblower, troublemaker, spoilsport, killjoy, or complainer. Thinking that such perceptions would harm their relationships with their co-workers, they prefer to remain silent. Employees do not want to destroy good relationships with their colleagues (Milliken et al., 2003). In fact, employees do not talk about issues that have the potential to harm their managers or colleagues or about issues that they would not be pleased to hear themselves (Perlow and Williams, 2003)

3 Method

3.1 Population and Sample

The population of this study is composed of all the technicians, engineers, managers and maintenance planners working in aircraft maintenance organizations and aircraft maintenance units of airlines operating throughout Turkey. The main reason for choosing this study population is that maintenance personnel play a key role in ensuring safety, since the success of aircraft maintenance activities directly affects aviation safety. Another reason is that aircraft maintenance activities are extremely comprehensive, sophisticated and complex. For this reason, there are many data types and much information to be reported. If data and information subject to reporting are not reported due to silence, maintenance activities create a rich source of data for this study.

Convenience and snowball samplings are methods used in the study. In order to ensure the anonymity of the aircraft maintenance staff in the research population, and to encourage them to participate in the survey, no data was collected about the companies they were working for.

3.2 Data Collection

The researchers themselves developed the data collection tool. In order to create the item pool, the related scales were first reviewed. In addition, the views of academicians, recognized experts in organizational behavior and aviation safety, were consulted. As a result, an item pool of 53 items was obtained. After this, expert opinion was sought for content validity. At this stage, assistance was provided by academic staff specialising in organizational behavior, aviation safety and scale development. Between 5 January and 11 March, 2016, a total of seven experts, including three organizational behavior specialists, three aviation safety experts and one measurement and evaluation expert, was consulted through the Expert Opinion Form. For each item on this form, the experts were asked to highlight one of the following options; appropriate (keep in the data collection tool), inappropriate (remove from the data collection tool), and revision necessary (keep in the data collection tool following revision). In the case of choosing the 'inappropriate' option, the experts were asked to state their reason for so doing. The items on which the experts agreed were retained in the data collection tool, those identified for removal were dropped, and those requiring revision were revised accordingly. Finally, a 43-item data collection tool was created. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used for data collection.

To ensure the face validity of the data collection tool, the survey was piloted face-to-face with five aircraft maintenance technicians. Between 17 March and 18 April, 2016, this survey was distributed in person and via email to 1000 people using convenience sampling, with 571 of these responding. As a result, a total of 483 surveys are included in the analysis. To digitize and record the survey data, an EXCEL program was utilised. The data was then transferred into SPSS for Windows 15.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) and LISREL 9.1 (Linear Structural Relations) programs.

4 Results

4.1 Sample Characteristics

Table 1 shows the demographic information of the participants. A total of 483 participants in this study. When the ages of those participating in the study are examined, it can be seen that the ratio of participants in the age group of 35 and above constitutes 31% of the total participants. When the various lengths of the participants' occupational experience are considered, it can be seen that 50% have worked for longer than five years. When the participants' age and professional experience are considered together, participants working in aircraft maintenance can be considered as experienced. It is noteworthy that, considering

their level of education, 72,3% of the participants are educated to at least an undergraduate level.

On the other hand, 174 of the participants are Certifying Staff (CS) maintenance technicians, followed by 109 non-CS maintenance technicians. Regarding their work units, 244 employees are employed in line maintenance and 164 work in base maintenance.

4.2 Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis is defined as the degree to which a data collection tool produces consistent results or achieves the same results under the same conditions (Field, 2009). For this purpose, a reliability analysis was performed according to the answers provided for the 43 Likert type questions in the study. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the whole scale = .96, relational and prosocial silence .91, disengaged silence .81, quiescence and acquiescence silence .84 and fear and defensive silence .80), which was calculated for the sub-dimensions of the survey and for the whole, shows that the results have a high level of reliability. Measurements with high reliability produce observable results that are close to real results (Punch, 2005).

Table 1: Demographic and Occupational Characteristics

Variables	n	%	Variables	n	%
Age			**Gender**		
34 and younger	312	69.6	Female	19	3.9
35-44	83	18.6	Male	459	95
45+	53	10.8	No response	5	1.1
No response	35	7.2	Total	483	100.0
Total	483	100.0			
Level of Education			**Status of Occupation**		
High School	72	14.9	Unemployed	6	1.2
Associate	54	11.2	Employed in Civil Aviation	470	97.4
Bachelor's	295	61.1	No response	7	1.4
Postgraduate	54	11.2	Total	483	100.0
No response	8	1.7			
Total	483	100.0			
Maintenance position			**Maintenance unit**		
CS Maintenance Technician	174	36.0	Line Maintenance	244	50.5
Non-CS Maintenance Technician	109	22.6	Hangar Maintenance	164	33.9
Assistant Technician	101	20.9	Engineering Department	20	4.1
Engineer	28	5.8	Production/ Maintenance Planning	12	2.5
Other*	51	10.6	Other**	28	5.9
No response	20	4.1	No response	15	3.1
Total	483	100.0	Total	483	100.0
Professional experience			**Experience in the current organization**		
5 years or less	231	51.6	5 years or less	318	65.6
5-10 years	99	22.1	5-10 years	71	14.7
10-20 years	66	14.7	10-20 years	38	8.1
20+ years	52	11.6	20+ years	6	1.2
No response	35	0.6	No response	50	10.4
Total	483	100.0	Total	433	100.0

*Component technicians, managers and warehouse staff.

**Workshops and warehouses.

4.3 Factor Analysis

The first analytical goal in the study is to determine the factor structure by performing an exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

4.3.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Before starting an EFA, certain basic concepts need to be questioned in order to be able to minimize problems that may arise and to test the suitability of the data set for the EFA (Field, 2009). As such, a number of key elements that require correct attention are sample size, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and the Bartlett Test, and correlation matrix.

There are various views about an ideal sample size (Hair et al., 2010, Field, 2009). There are 43 items in this study. Considering the most conservative researchers in determining the size of the sample, 430 participants need to be accessed. The fact that we reached 483 participants in our study indicates that our sample size is sufficient.

To determine the adequacy of the data set for an EFA, KMO and Bartlett test analyses were conducted. The KMO test result was found to be 0,923, and KMO>0,90 can be interpreted as the perfect result. The Bartlett test was also significant (Sig. = 0,001 < α = 0,05). The high correlation between the variables and the obtained values indicate that the data set is adequate for a factor analysis.

Different methods are used to determine the number of factors. The most commonly used method is Kaiser criterion. The Eigenvalue is based on continuing with factors greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1970). Another method is the scree plot graph. This graph determines the number of factors more successfully than the Kaiser criterion (Field, 2009; Thompson, 2004).

In order to obtain the best possible factor structure, more than one analysis was performed considering various criteria. Finally, it was decided that the number of factors should be four. This also coincides with the number of factors expected from the theoretical explanation of the data collection tool reported in the relevant literature.

According to the factor analysis, it appears that the items are grouped under four different dimensions. When items are evaluated in terms of not meeting the level of acceptance and factor loadings, certain items are clearly in line with other items and some items cannot meet the acceptance level for the factor load value. According to this, it can be said that these items do not sufficiently contribute to explain the variance of the latent variable (Netemeyer, et al., 2003). Therefore, the mentioned items are excluded from the analysis.

The appropriateness of the data set to the factor analysis needs to be tested after each procedure. For this purpose, KMO and Bartlett tests were performed again. A new factor analysis was performed following the removal of overlapping and low factor loadings. Starting with 43 items, the final version of the data collection tool included a total of 25 items after dropping 18 items based on the factor analyses. Table 2 shows the values of the rotated factor analysis obtained after item removal.

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett Test Results

KMO and Bartlett Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		,922
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-square	5607,065
	Degree of freedom (df)	300
	Significance	,000

Table 3: Total Variance Explained

Factors	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotated Squared Weights Total			Rotation Squared Weights Total		
	Total	Variance %	Cumulative %	Total	Variance %	Cumulative %	Total	Variance %	Cumulative %
1	10.104	40.416	40.416	10.104	40.416	40.416	4.973	19.892	19.892
2	1.955	7.818	48.235	1.955	7.818	48.235	3.892	15.567	35.459
3	1.762	7.049	55.283	1.762	7.049	55.283	3.441	13.764	49.223
4	1.248	4.993	60.276	1.248	4.993	60.276	2.763	11.054	60.276
...	...	...	...						
25	0.172	.689	100.00						

After reducing the number of items, the result of the KMO test was found to be 0,922. Since KMO is>0.90, an excellent result is obtained and each variable in the measure can be predicted perfectly by other variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

According to the factor analysis after subtracting the items that do not meet the overlapping and factor load value, the four factors obtained account for 60,276% of the total variance. In the factor analysis conducted in social sciences, the variance explained may be between 40 and 60% (Hair, et al., 2010). Therefore, a contribution of 60,276% is sufficient in explaining the total variance of these four factors in the study. The high total variance explained suggests that the structure developed on the causes of voluntary reporting is well measured (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Table 4: Rotated Factor Matrix

Items		Rotated Factor Loads			
		Relational and Prosocial Silence	Disengaged Silence	Quiescence and Acquiescence Silence	Fear and Defensive Silence
S12	I do not want to stir up trouble with my co-worker(s) by reporting them	.776			
S27	I do not want to damage my relationships with my co-worker(s) by reporting them	.697			
S11	I am concerned about being cast out by my co-workers	.694			
S43	I do not want to stir up trouble with my manager(s) by reporting them	.681			
S23	I do not want to be stigmatized as the 'complainer' in my company/among my co-workers	.664			
S42	I do not want to reveal my company's faults and cause it to be penalized by the DGCA[1]	.655			
S34	I do not want to damage my relationships with my manager(s) by reporting them	.641			
S24	I do not want to reveal my company's faults and cause it to be penalized by the EASA[2]	.640			
S36	I do not want to reveal my co-workers' faults and cause them to be punished	.634			
S20	I do not want to waste my free time reporting		.716		
S29	I do not want to bother with learning how to report		.682		
S18	I do not think reporting is my job		.679		
S37	I do not want to waste time reporting when I do not have time for my own duties		.651		
S17	I do not think reporting will do me any good		.638		
S21	I do not know how to report		.590		
S35	I think that the issue to be reported has already been reported by someone else		.568		

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[1]Directorate General of Civil Aviation.

[2]European Aviation Safety Agency

Table 4: Rotated Factor Matrix (continues)

S31	I think that previous reports have been covered up			.803	
S30	There has been no feedback on previous reports			.756	
S28	I think our managers do not encourage reporting			.744	
S22	I think our managers urging us to report is only lipservice			.726	
S19	I do not think that our managers like to hear anything negative			.573	
S2	I think the DGCA will punish me				.803
S1	I think my company will punish me				.756
S4	I think that I will face the same problems experienced by my co-workers who have previously reported				.700
S3	I do not think there is any legislation in place to protect me in case of an accident investigation				.651
Mean		2.479	2.162	2.612	2.484
SD		.852	.677	.913	.917

According to the analysis results, it is obvious that all the items meet the acceptance level of the factor load values. Analysis of basic components such as the factorization method was used to reveal factor design, and maximum variability (Varimax) was chosen as an orthogonal rotation method. The most important reason for choosing the orthogonal rotation method is that this method offers the opportunity to easily interpret, describe and report results (Field, 2009, Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hair, et al., 2010).

The first factor corresponds to the dimension of relational and prosocial silence in the organizational silence literature. For this reason, this factor is called 'relational and prosocial silence'. In the study, aircraft maintenance employees not reporting voluntarily, based on relational and prosocial inclination, accounts for 19.8% of total variance. This is the strongest factor among the four factors explaining voluntary reporting. With the highest item load among all items, the item, 'I do not want to stir up trouble with my coworker(s) by reporting them' indicates that employees remain silent because they do not want to harm their relationships within their organization. The employees think that if they talk about a coworker whose behavior is the subject of the report, then the relationship with him/her will be damaged and they may be stigmatized as a snitch that constantly complains and causes harm to colleagues. Employees do not want to end up in such a problematic situation.

With high item loads, the statements, 'I do not want to reveal my company's faults and cause it to be penalized by the DGCA' and, 'I do not want to reveal my co-workers' faults and cause them to be harmed' demonstrate that employees display prosocial behavior and thus feel forced to remain silent. In the light of this finding, it can be concluded that employees do not want to report voluntarily on matters involving their colleagues.

The second factor is labeled 'disengaged silence'. The item, 'I do not want to waste my free time reporting', had the highest load here. Employees do not see reporting as a worthwhile endeavor. In addition, the item, 'I do not think reporting will do me any good', indicates that employees display silent behavior in voluntary reporting. By performing benefit-cost analysis, Premeaux and Bedeian (2001) states that an employee will be silent if s/he thinks s/he cannot benefit by speaking up. When these two items are considered together, it is clear that the employee remains silent because he/she does not care to waste time reporting, thinking that it will not be of any use to him/her.

Since the third factor is similar to the acquiescent silence reported in the relevant organizational silence literature, it is labeled 'quiescence and acquiescence silence.' The items 'I think that previous reports have been covered up' and 'There has been no feedback on previous reports' had the highest loads among the other items. These statements and their values indicate that employees will not report when they think that that reporting matters that they care about and want to be valued will be of no use. When organizations do not act on voluntary reports or do not inform their employees about their responses to the reports, employees are led to believe that reporting will be useless.

Moreover, the employee feels worthless when failing to receive feedback from the company. Consequently, in line with findings reported by Wood (2003), employees who think that their ideas are not valued become less motivated to contribute to the safety performance of their organization by reporting voluntarily.

Finally, the fourth factor in our study corresponds to silence based on fear and defensiveness as reported in the organizational silence literature. The silence factor based on fear and defensiveness, which accounts for 11.0% of total variance, draws attention as the highest item load among all the items included in the measurement tool. Arguably, the most important factor causing silence based on fear and defensiveness is the existence of a weak positive just culture in organizations. Dekker and Breakey (2016) state that such a weak culture negatively affects reporting. This can be explained by the fact that filing a report can result in penalties for the employee, and the employee does not want to suffer such harm (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). If disciplinary system practices in an organization causes such an unfair perception of unfairness, employees' fear and worries concerning reporting will increase and the weak positive just culture will force them into silence. Employees are sometimes afraid that the information contained in a report may be used against them and that they will be penalized. Such penalties include humiliation in front of co-workers, being fined, being dismissed from work, or even losing a professional license. The fact that these survey items received high item loads can be interpreted as an indicator of such employee fears.

Another important finding of this study is that a number of the factors (relational and prosocial silence) proposed in the literature are combined, while some (disengaged silence, quiescence and acquiescence silence, and fear and defensive silence) emerge as separate factors, in harmony with the relevant literature.

4.3.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is employed to test the accuracy of a previously established relationship by the researcher (Netemeyer, et al., 2003). For this purpose, in this study, firstly, a four-factor structure is obtained by EFA. In the second phase, the research aims to test four latent variables; prosocial silence, fear and defensive silence, disengaged silence, and quiescence and acquiescence silence.

4.3.2.1 First-order confirmatory factor analysis

The purpose of the first-order CFA is to test whether the resulting structure of the EFA yields the voluntary reporting variable in aviation. The four-factorial structure

obtained as a result of the EFA was first tested by a first order CFA. In the first-level CFA analysis as shown in Table 5. Good fit index values correspond to a good fit (Thompson, 2004). The goodness of the GF values can be interpreted as being appropriate for the aggregated data on the model being tested for the reasons for failure to report voluntarily.

4.3.2.2 Second-order confirmatory factor analysis

In the first-order CFA, four dimensions came together to form the voluntary reporting variable. However, the 'Failure to Report Voluntarily' variable was not included in this analysis. By adding this variable to the model, the second-order CFA was performed to see whether the four factors (latent variables) obtained after the first-order CFA explained the 'Failure to Report Voluntarily' latent variable.

In the first-order analysis, the four factors that can be seen as relatively independent, but interrelated, bases are components of the 'Failure to Report Voluntarily' latent variable, which is meant to be a higher level structure. One-way linear relationships are defined for latent variables from the variables observed in the first-order analysis. One-way linear relationships are also defined in the direction from the observed variables to the observed variables in the second order analysis. One-way linear relationships demonstrate that latent variables predict observed variables. The results of second-order CFA are shown in Figure 1.

According to the goodness of fit indices obtained after the retest, the four-factorial structure was accepted as adequate to explain the latent variable 'Failure to Report Voluntarily in Aviation'. In other words, the reasons for the lack of voluntary reporting by aircraft maintenance workers were tested by second-order CFA, and it was concluded that the four latent variables together create an absence to report voluntarily in aviation.

At this stage of the analysis, each goodness of fit value will be examined, and the relationship of the four latent variables with the silence in aviation variable will be tested. When the relevant goodness of fit values is analyzed, it clearly corresponds to a good fit (Thompson, 2004).
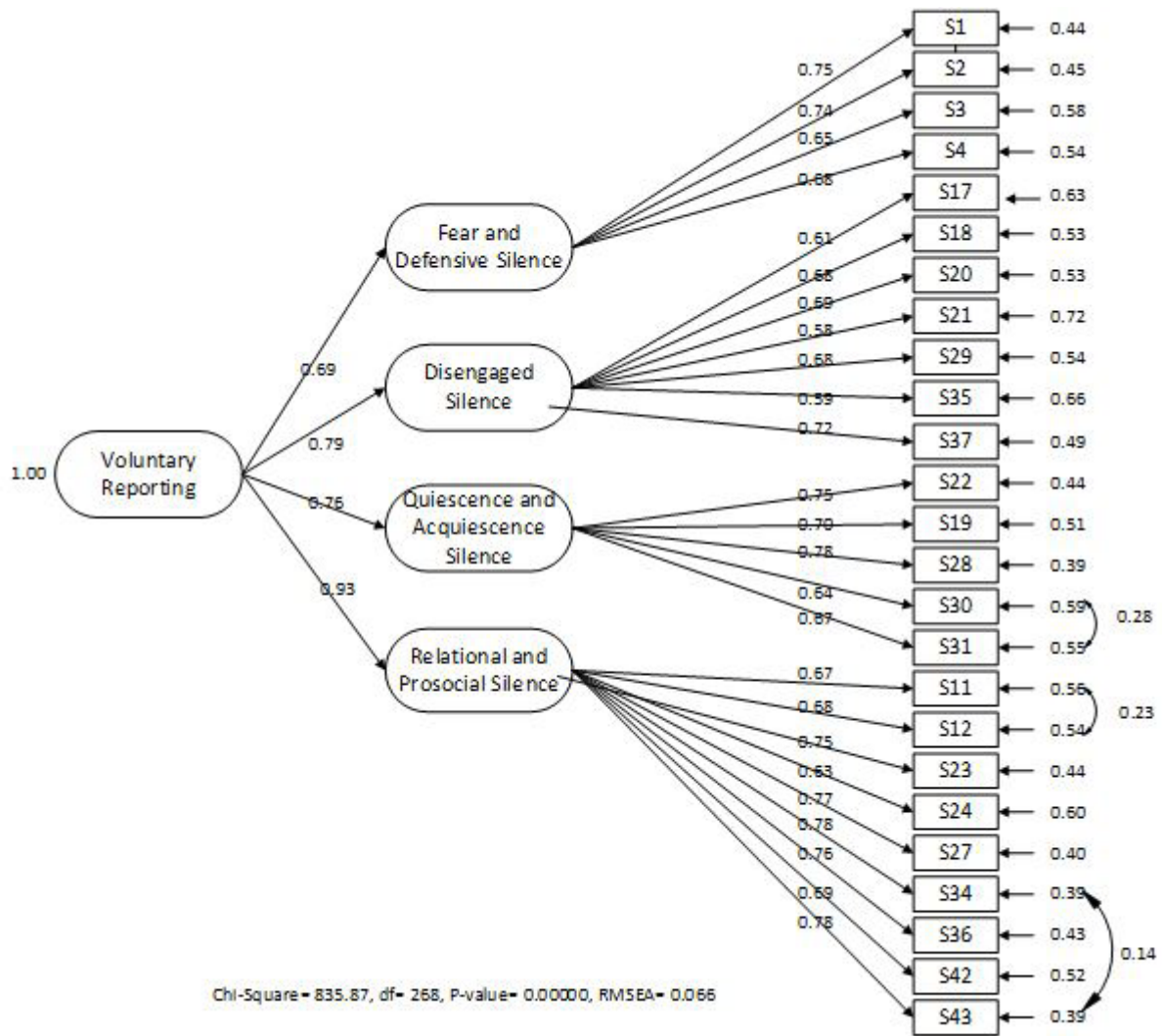
*Figure 1: Second-order Confirmatory Factor Analysis (*The values in the figure are standardized coefficients)

Table 5: Goodness-of-Fit Values Obtained from the First-order and Second-order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model No.	N	Chi-square/ df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	RMR
First-order CFA	483	3.04	0.87	0.86	0.97	0.96	0.06	0.07
Second-order CFA	483	3.11	0.87	0.85	0.97	0.96	0.06	0.06

To sum up, the four-factorial structure, resulting from the EFA, was first tested by first order CFA. Second-order CFA was performed after the first-order analysis and the relationship between the four-factorial latent variable and the 'silence in aviation' latent variable was tested. The second-order factor analysis shows that the four latent components explained the 'failure to report voluntarily' variable on the basis of relational and prosocial silence, disengaged silence, quiescence and acquiescence silence, and fear and defensive silence.

5 Discussion

With the developed data collection tool, the collected data were first subjected to EFA and a four-factorial structure was obtained. The obtained four-factorial structure was tested in a model created by first-order CFA and it was concluded that the 25 observed variables explain the latent variables of relational and prosocial silence, disengaged silence, quiescence and acquiescence silence, and fear and defensive silence. In the second order CFA, voluntary reporting was accepted to be measured with four latent variables, and was assembled into a holistic model. Based on the obtained goodness of fit values, it was concluded that the 'Failure to Report Voluntarily' latent variable was explained by the four latent variables.

According the results of our study, the relational and prosocial silence is the primary factor among the factors that lead to aircraft maintenance employees' exhibiting silence behavior and their lack of voluntary reporting. The fear of harming relationships, the anxiety of becoming a wet blanket in the group, the fear of getting stigmatized as a whistle-blower, the risk of being perceived as a troublemaker and a complainer force employees into silence (Milliken et al., 2003). In addition, it can be argued that, the high femininity and collectivism characteristics of the Turkish culture (Göregenli, 1997) may be playing an important role in such employee silence. In societies where collectivism is dominant, people remain loyal to their communities throughout their lives, and the social relationships have to be good (Hofstede, et al., 2010). Deterioration of relationships is avoided because it causes individuals to feel stressed. Therefore, collectivist traits lead employees to prosocial behaviors by making them care about other people and try to prevent harm to the organization or group they belong, which ultimately keeps them from reporting voluntarily. Notifying authorities about coworker faults through voluntary reporting corresponds to whistleblowing and sycophancy, which are not approved by the larger society (Çakıcı, 2010). Besides, the teamwork required for aircraft maintenance and the fact that these teams are composed of small groups results in revealing which employee knows or reports what, and thus in the event that a worker reports voluntarily, s/he knows that s/he will be easily

figured out as the person doing the reporting. As another characteristic of the Turkish culture, employees view reporting, which is to cause trouble for their organization, as biting the hand that feeds them, something clearly frowned upon by the mainstream society.

In our study, another factor causing employees not to be involved in voluntary reporting is the disengaged silence. It was concluded that, employees display selfish behaviors (Premeaux and Bedeian, 2001), and after doing a benefit-cost analysis between silence and voluntary reporting, if they decide that remaining silent would be more advantageous, they may prefer staying quiet even if the safety is threatened. On the other hand, psychological contract violations and procedural injustice in organizations cause employee disappointment and cynicism. Experiencing such disappointment, employees exhibit cynical behaviors (Özgener, et al., 2008), which leads employees to remain silent based on disengaged. In addition, employees' not knowing how to report, or their lack of motivation to spend time learning how to do it indicates that they are disengaged to reporting.

Another factor negatively affecting employees' voluntary reporting is the acquiescence and quiescence silence. Based on the findings from the present study, which confirm other related research, the reason underlying this silence is the belief held by employees that their opinions do not count and that they cannot make a difference or change anything by reporting (Wood, 2003). According to the Turkish values survey conducted throughout Turkey between 2011 and 2012, Turkish employees believe that they have to follow the orders given by their superiors whether they make sense or not (40% of the participants stated that the instructions must be followed). This rate is 10% higher than the average found for Europe. In other words, the tendency of employees in Turkish society to fulfill orders without question is higher than the European average (Esmer, 2012). These findings indicate that employees in the Turkish society are obedient, that they do not feel the need to make extra effort to make reporting work, and that they accept the situation more easily.

The motivation underlying the quiescent and acquiescent and disengaged silences can be explained by Vroom's Expectation Theory. According to Vroom, if certain behavior helps a person attain desired results, or leads to undesired results but the outcome is predicted to be more positive, s/he tends to exhibit certain behavior with a positive attitude. If employees keep getting positive results when they express their opinions clearly, it seems reasonable to assume that the value they attach to reporting will increase and that they will repeat their reporting behavior. However, if employees face adverse outcomes due to reporting, their reporting behavior may become less frequent. By trying to predict the benefits and losses depending on their reporting, employees carry out a cost-benefit analysis. This analysis could indicate a future benefit or cost involved in

reporting. Therefore, it can be argued that the aforementioned dimensions of silence may be influenced by this analysis (Premeaux and Bedeian, 2001).

The last factor that led to the absence of voluntary reporting in the survey is fear and defensive silence. It has been emphasized in many studies that employees remain silent based on fear and defensiveness (Morrison and Milliken, 2000; Dyne et al., 2003; Brinsfield, 2013). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory (1943) can help to explain the motivation source of fear and defensive silence. According to this theory, the behavior of an individual is directed towards satisfying a need, within an order of hierarchy. One of these is a need for safety. Safety refers to protection from physiological and psychological harm. It is an important necessity to have work and regular income so that people can meet their needs and feel safe. Aircraft maintenance personnel may feel threatened by the risk of losing their jobs or licences. If reporting is likely to produce such consequences, employees who need to feel safe may avoid reporting (Schepers, et al., 2008).

Perhaps counter-intuitively, the factor comprising items with the highest item loads in all factors makes less of a contribution to the total variance than the relational and prosocial silence. One factor that causes this situation could be the collective characteristics of Turkish culture. Combined with its collectivist characteristics (Hofstede, et al., 2010), the individual characteristics of Turkish culture (Göregenli, 1997) may have resulted in this type of more relational and prosocial employee silence. The individual characteristics of this society may mean that, taking into account personal interests, the employee remains silent in order not to strain his/her relationships with co-workers or managers. On the other hand, a majority of previous research indicates that the most important factor leading to a failure to voluntarily report by employees is fear (Jausan et al., 2017; Bienefeld and Grote, 2012; Gerede, 2015b). Our study finds that employees remain silent, based on fear and defensiveness.

6 Conclusion and suggestions

In aviation organizations, employees' preference of reporting critical information about incidents or remaining silent about them can determine the fine line between life and death. Employees' silent behaviors can threaten aviation safety and cause irreparable accidents. Reporting is also the basis of proactivity and without reporting the performance based safety management approach cannot succeed.

Therefore, in order to encourage voluntary reporting that would provide very valuable data for increased aviation safety, identifying why employees remain silent is an urgent research problem. This study aimed at determining the reasons for the behaviors of not voluntarily reporting and remaining silent displayed by the employees working in aircraft maintenance organizations, which are the key hubs of the activities directly affecting aviation safety. To achieve this, we developed a tool to measure reasons aviation employees not reporting and made validity and reliability analysis. The four-factor structure of the failure of aircraft maintenance employees to report based on relational and prosocial, fear and defensive, quiescence and acquiescence, and disengaged silence was found to be structurally valid.

Accordingly, organizations need to acknowledge and act with the awareness that organizational silence is a common phenomenon. The importance of voluntary reporting should be explained to employees at every opportunity and the number of quality voluntary reports should be increased. However, this should go beyond the simple slogans of 'Safety comes first in this workplace' or 'Safety first' hanging on the wall of every organization. Organizations absolutely need to embrace the strong just culture. In the presence of such a positive just culture, when employees want to report, they will be free from any fear of punishment or harm.

Although this study has contributed to the knowledge of organizational silence and voluntary reporting literature, it still has certain limitations. Therefore, further research is recommended to strengthen the findings. In some cases, even if legal mechanisms and voluntary reporting systems created in organizations are sufficient for employees to speak or voluntarily report, employees could prefer to remain silent. It would be interesting to investigate how organizational trust, organizational justice, national culture, organizational culture and laws system effect voluntary reporting. In addition, the tool developed in this study has only confirmed on aircraft maintenance employees and both EFA and CFA is conducted to the same sample. In future studies, confirmation of the tool could be done on other aviation employees rather than only aircraft maintenance employees to strengthen the results. Finally, this research is conducted on MROs operating in Turkey. Further research would be to test the robustness of this tool in other countries.

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Molk v letalstvu: razvoj in validacija orodja za merjenje razlogov, da osebje za vzdrževanje letal ne poroča

Ozadje in namen: Organizacijski molk, ki je često največja ovira za uspeh organizacij, se kaže kot izogibanje izražanja čustev in idej o težavah, s katerimi se srečujejo njihove organizacije. Opredelimo ga lahko kot izogibanje prostovoljnemu poročanju v letalskih organizacijah. Glavni namen te raziskave je opredeliti in razviti orodje za merjenje razlogov, zaradi katerih letalski uslužbenci molčijo o nevarnih dogodkih in dogodkih, ki so jim priča, ter dejavnikih, zaradi katerih se vzdržijo sprejemanja predlogov za izboljšanje varnosti.

Zasnova / metodologija / pristop: V okviru študije je bilo razvito orodje za zbiranje podatkov. Pojasnjevalna in potrditvena faktorska analiza podatkov, pridobljenih od 483 zaposlenih, je bila izvedena za preizkus razlogov za prostovoljno poročanje v letalstvu.

Rezultati: Posledično je bilo ugotovljeno, da zaposleni niso sodelovali pri prostovoljnem poročanju zaradi dejavnikov molka, ki temeljijo na relacijskih in prosocialnih dejavnikih, razdruževanju, mirovanju in popuščanju ter strahu in obrambnosti.

Zaključek: V skladu s tem morajo organizacije priznati in delovati z zavedanjem, da je organizacijski molk pogost pojav. Pomen prostovoljnega poročanja je treba zaposlenim razložiti ob vsaki priložnosti in povečati število kakovostnih prostovoljnih poročil. Vendar bi to moralo presegati preprosta gesla „Varnost je na prvem mestu na delovnem mestu" ali „Varnost najprej", ki visi na steni vsake organizacije.

Ključne besede: Organizacijska tišina, Poročanje, Sistem varnega upravljanja, Vzdrževanje letal

Exploring the Cultural, Managerial and Organizational Implications on Mergers and Acquisitions Outcomes

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Background/Purpose: This work is focused on the variables that influence the outcomes of mergers and acquisitions, by learning from past mistakes, adopt better strategies and make wiser decisions to enhance the outcomes of their mergers and acquisitions. Using a qualitative approach, this research contributes to existing knowledge on mergers and acquisitions performance by exploring the cultural, managerial and organizational factors dimensions through an integrative approach using multiple perspectives.

Methodology: Fifteen interviews were conducted with experienced professionals in multiple areas of mergers and acquisitions. Content analysis was used to interpret the results. This enabled to achieve a more complete set of answers and potential solutions while comparing opinions on the same problems from slightly different angles.

Results: Results show the existence of managerial hubris, emotional attachment and over-optimism in mergers and acquisitions. There was a relative support towards standardizing the process of mergers and acquisitions deals, but respondents advise to keep some creativity and flexibility.

Conclusion: The article concludes by addressing key issues for mergers and acquisitions performance: capabilities and experience; organizational communication; internal coordination; and, key issues for decision-making.

Keywords: Mergers and acquisitions, Synergies, Culture, Strategy, Growth, Performance.

1 Introduction

The mergers and acquisitions failure rate is a matter of concern to academics and practitioners. Some authors point failure rates in the range of 66 to 75 percent (McKinsey & Company, 2010). Other shocking studies, put the failure rate of mergers and acquisitions between 70 and 90 percent (Christensen et al., 2011). The failure rate of mergers and acquisitions changes from study to study. Measuring the outcomes of mergers and acquisitions is hard to do (Beck & Scott Morton, 2020). Both financial indicators and non-measurable abstract variables, such as the achievement of the delineated strategic goals, are important and can be considered when classifying the outcome of a certain deal (Faisal et al., 2016).

There is substantial evidence in McKinsey´s survey that there are new interests and attitudes towards mergers. The respondents showed large interest in using mergers and acquisitions to move beyond the already existing lines of business and into new strategic areas and create research and development portfolios (McKinsey & Compa-

ny, 2010). Mergers and acquisitions will continue to exist and for sure play a significant role in the future (Kuo et al., 2013). Some authors argue that researchers are not looking at the right set of variables and that the importance of non-financial variables is underestimated in theory and research (Gomes et al., 2013). However, as stated by Kiessling, Vlačić and Dabić (2019) mergers and acquisitions' research is mainly focused on the influence of the antecedents of mergers and acquisitions and the "many aspects in the decision-making process of M&A (such as strategy formulation, target identification, due diligence, pricing of the acquisition, postacquisition integration, and subsequent performance)" (p. 1). More specifically, the human dimension is still underexplored, specially the cultural and organizational preparedness (Friedman, Carmeli, Tishler, and Shimizu, 2016; Bereskin et al., 2018).

As such, the objective of this article is to understand which causes are propelling such a high failure rate in mergers and acquisitions and propose solutions on how to enhance their outcomes. To address the research gap previously mentioned, this research will focus on specific antecedents, such as cultural and organizational preparation for mergers and acquisitions. To understand the complexity of the phenomena, we follow a qualitative approach seeking to know, from the decision makers' point of view, how the various factors influencing the success of mergers and acquisitions are considered. This methodological approach is considered the most appropriate to include the decision-maker perspective (Risberg, 2015), and the cultural and organizational dimensions (Smollan & Sayers, 2009).

The article is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses relevant literature. Section 3 presents the methodology and specifies the research model. Section 4 shows the results, which are discussed in section 5. Finally, section 6 presents the theoretical and practical conclusions as well the research limitations and suggestions for future research.

2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 Pre-deal procedures

A better understanding of the reasons behind so many mergers and acquisitions failures is likely to help in conducting better deals and reduce the chances of failing. In the pre-merger/acquisition stage is when the decision to try to merge or acquire is made and with which company the deal should be done. Carefully searching and evaluating potential targets is extremely important; choosing the right target can determine the success of the deal from the very beginning. Taking enough time to deeply understand the target's business and plan accordingly, pays off in minimizing the chances of choosing an unfit company and it will help exploring additional synergy sources (Moreira & Janda, 2017).

Despite the evidence that mergers and acquisitions have played an important role in the past and will continue to rise in number and value over the next years as a new cycle unfolds, the statistics do not show positive numbers regarding merger and acquisition returns (Duan and Jin, 2019). On average the buyer pays the target all the value that is generated with the realization of combinational synergies, this value ranges from 10 to 35 percent of the target´s market value (McKinsey & Company, 2004).

Predicting accurate synergy values is surely crucial to make right decisions, they are important not only to conclude if the deal should go forward or not, but at a more precise level they make an impact when making smaller decisions. With more accurate synergy estimations, better decisions can be made, and failures avoided (Garzella & Fiorentino, 2017; Moreira & Janda, 2017).

Many mergers and acquisitions deals were already condemned from the start as they would not generate enough synergy value to make the deal worth (Duan & Jin, 2019). The first step in initiating a merger or acquisition is to look for a suitable partner. The evaluation of the potential partner should take into account its strengths and weaknesses, investment requirements, quality of the target management and implementation barriers such as cultural differences (Bereskin et al., 2018; Gomes et al., 2013).

2.2 Culture assessment

Despite the multiple comments from authors in the field of mergers and acquisitions that culture is a variable with influence on the outcome of deals (Bain & Company, 2013; King et al., 2015), on the other hand, authors and practitioners point fingers towards the negligence organizations demonstrate when they handle cultural problems (Lodorfos and Boateng, 2006; Bain & Company, 2013).

Mergers and acquisitions can promise to deliver a lot of value (Deloitte, 2017). When this happens, the temptation to do the deal regardless of cultural problems can be hard to avoid. There can be several other reasons to why companies engage in mergers and acquisitions, such as the existence of a managerial hubris and the use of mergers and acquisitions as a way to avoid bankruptcy and achieve financial diversification (Barney and Hesterly, 2012).

Organizational culture is a deep and subjective part of an organization that possibly evolved through several years, therefore it is hard to change and the new habits to form (Marks & Mirvis, 1992). The authors highlight the use ceremonies to symbolize the transition into the new phase, these events help employees detaching from the past and embracing change.

Culture is inseparable from any deal because it is embedded in both organizations (Gordon, 1991), so it would be great to overcome the cultural problems barrier and find a way to make the deal happen well by addressing and/or

dodging the cultural problems. It is imperative to conduct further research on cultural problems and the possibility to minimize their negative impact, that is, how to minimize the negative impact of cultural incompatibilities.

2.3 Culture incompatibilities

Organizational culture results from the adaptation towards shared beliefs and expectations, it is particular of one firm and it has both a subjective and objective dimension (Kuo et al., 2013). Cultures are hard to change and combine because they have unique characteristics that relate to the orientations and goals of the previous separate organizations, they can also evolve and consolidate throughout several years (Gordon, 1991). One example is the failed merger between the auto makers Daimler and Chrysler which has increased the awareness towards the importance of cultural compatibility in mergers and acquisitions (Badrtalei and Bates, 2007). On the other hand, some studies with positive results prove that mergers and acquisitions are sources of efficiency and value generation (David, 2014).

A merger or acquisition with a high cultural fit happens when cultures are similar and combine well, there is a reduced need for organizational integration efforts (Bauer & Matzler, 2014). Having a poor cultural fit is bad because the uncertainty that is associated with cultural distances reinforces the need for monitoring and control and can create managerial conflict (Bereskin et al., 2018; Denison & Ko, 2016).

In a Bain & Company survey, the number one cause appointed by executives on why deals fail to deliver the promised value was a cultural clash (Bain & Company, 2013). Despite the evidence supporting the importance of a proper cultural assessment and management, culture is still found to have been neglected in a substantial percentage of deals (Schraeder & Self, 2003).

The results from McKinseys´s study point out that 92 percent of executives believe a better cultural understanding prior to the deal would be beneficial, and 70 percent of them agree too little attention is given to culture (McKinsey & Company, 2010). Several questions can be asked: are companies being just negligent towards the importance of culture or is there also a need for a structural change in the way cultural evaluation is conducted? It can also be argued some companies might lack the expertise to properly conduct a good cultural evaluation, in such case, should they seek help from an external entity?

2.4 Mergers and acquisitions value approaches

The approach towards deals observed during the last decades, referred to by some practitioners as the traditional risk-mitigation approach, is producing too many failures (Christensen et al., 2011; Faisal et al., 2016). There is substantial support towards the idea of a broader approach to value creation, referred to as the value-seeking approach. The numbers indicate an increase in value creation between 30 and 150 percent (McKinsey & Company, 2010).

In a risk avoidance strategy, the managers, the merger and acquisition teams and external consultants focus on preventing bad events from happening. The analysis and decisions are made quickly and one of the usual assumptions that make the deal profitable is the cost savings associated with merging the companies (McKinsey & Company, 2010). These cost savings often involve cutting the less profitable operations and downsize the number of employees, this practice has negative implications towards employee morale and cultural conflicts often emerge (Weber & Fried, 2011).

The returns on the investments made in transformational areas (areas with new markets, new customers and new products) are, on average, much higher than the investments made in core business areas. However, companies invest 70 percent of their innovation investments in core areas in which they achieve average returns of only 10 percent. At the same time, merely 10 percent of the innovation investments are made in transformational areas and these generate average returns of 70 percent (Deloitte, 2017).

People respond differently to the changes being imposed during the integration process, it is up for top management to recognize these discrepancies and try to have some degree of flexibility. There is no such thing as a general integration process, with all its specific steps, that works for every type of deal. The integration should adapt to the type of deal being pursued (Deloitte, 2017).

Communication is also a variable of great importance in mergers and acquisitions, excellent communication throughout the whole process helps overcome uncertainty (Angwin et al., 2014). Failing to properly communicate with key line managers and give them a chance to be involved in the decision-making process can have replications throughout the entire organization (Friedman, et al., 2016). They often are the closest superior for many baseline employees and if they express discontent and uncertainty towards the merger or acquisition it will negatively impact employee morale and performance, these key line managers can also promote a communication climate that facilitates effective integration (Friedman, et al., 2016). Other authors point out that acquirer returns are significantly lower and there is less value creation when in the presence of social ties between senior executives and directors of both companies (Ishii & Xuan, 2014).

2.5 Organization preparation

As defended by some practitioners, transformational deals can generate a lot more value when compared to typical deals (McKinsey & Company, 2010), it is however important to know about how to better adjust companies in mergers and acquisitions to extract more value and avoid risk. It is specifically important to study what practitioners think about generating value and avoiding risk in transformational deals, as this is a topic lacking exploration.

Having a feeling of participation and understanding the reasons behind the need for change is important, even the individuals that express the largest resistance to change are more likely to support the deal (Schraeder & Self, 2003). Getting employees into feeling involved in the merger or acquisition process is vital to make them more cooperative with the organization's strategies and consequent actions, a good way to achieve this is by dividing people into teams and creating a feeling of excitement about the future (Marks & Mirvis, 1992).

Having trust in top management is a key factor into stimulating obedience and positive action in employees towards the deal. A good leader should inspire, be competent and transmit credibility into others. When top management builds a relationship of trust and induces a feeling of security it is much easier to get employees into cooperating with actions that will somehow affect those (Schraeder & Self, 2003). Managers should deal with employee concern issues as fast as possible to destroy the negative rumours, however, it is not advised to make commitments or statements that the company might not keep (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

3 Methodology

3.1 Research model

To address the research objectives an explorative qualitative research was conducted to obtain deeper insights about the causes related with mergers and acquisitions high failure rate and to identify solutions to enhance their outcomes. Furthermore, this research explores specific antecedents, such as cultural and organizational preparation for mergers and acquisitions. We followed a 'systematic combining' approach (c.f. Dubois & Gadde, 2002) by promoting an intertwined application of the different activities in the research process since it is better suited for qualitative research than a "standardized conceptualization of the research process as consisting of a number of planned subsequent 'phases'" (Dubois & Gadde, 2002, p. 555). Table 1 specifies the relationships between the investigation specific objectives and the interview questions, as well the link with relevant literature.

According to Vilelas (2009), the number of interviews is said to be in an acceptable interval when it is located between 15 to 20 interviews. However, we followed Fusch and Ness (2015) and Saunders et al. (2017) recommendations by stopping the interviews when the data saturation was obtained. This means that the last two interviews added no new topics or themes.

Following a purposive sampling (Patton, 2005), a total fifteen interviews were conducted to business consultants randomly selected from a professional database. Each interview was conducted face to face and had an average duration of 73 minutes and was conducted by three researchers. Even though the number of interviews is in the acceptable interval, the results of this research should be taken with caution. Table 2 details the respondents' characteristics. The interview sample was intentional and was selected according to several requirements; such as their expertise and experience and their functions in mergers and acquisitions.

The study aimed to understand the meaning people attribute to this phenomenon more than just interpret it. This is because words, actions and gestures have their own context and therefore they must be interpreted using induction (Vilelas, 2009). In terms of the qualitative analysis technique used for the data interpretation in the interviews, this can be resumed to an analysis of content that tried to relate the semantic and sociologic structures in such a way that the answers are interpreted and put into context with the factors that determine their characteristics, such as the psychosocial variables, cultural context and ways of reproducing the message (Duriau et al., 2007).

In the figure below, the interview "corpus" is shown. This scheme illustrates how the objectives of the research translate into the interview questions. The broad topic of the variables that influence mergers and acquisitions ramifies into the generic categories and later into the subcategories. This ramification is the result of the literature review and can be interpreted as going deeper and deeper into the subject- Figure 1.

The process of clarification, systematization and content expression of the messages was organized in conformity with the three chronologic pillars of Bardin (1977). The interviews were chosen as the preferred method to gather information because even though there is an inherent subjectivity in the information collected by using this method, it allows the collection of information from the very own social actors with the possibility to dynamically adjust the direction of the speech as the interview flows (Vilelas, 2009).

Table 1: Relating the investigation objectives to the interview questions and the theoretical support

Investigation specific objectives	Interview questions	Authors
Study the variables and actions negatively influencing the decisions at the pre-deal stage and achieve a set of recommendations to improve them.	What is failing in the estimation of synergies and what could be done to improve their accuracy? (a clarification what synergy meat was conducted by the interviewer)	Bijlsma-Frankema (2001); Schraeder and Self (2003); Garzella and Fiorentino (2017); Lodorfos and Boateng (2006); McKinsey & Company (2010); Barney & Hesterly (2012); Bain & Company (2013).
Understand how practitioners perceive the importance of culture and if companies are neglecting this variable.	Are companies neglecting the importance of culture and that translates into a bad cultural evaluation or do they also lack internally the capability to evaluate culture?	Schraeder and Self (2003); Lodorfos and Boateng (2006); Badrtalei and Bates (2007); Weber et al. (2009); Sarala (2010); Weber and Fried (2011); Bain & Company (2013)
Comprehend why companies engage in deals between "incompatible" companies. Develop a set of recommendations on how to extract value on this type of deals.	If cultural problems are expected but the deal must go forward, what can be done in terms of integration stage agenda, organizational structure and others to minimize their negative impact?	Bijlsma-Frankema (2001); Schraeder and Self (2003); Lodorfos and Boateng (2006); McKinsey & Company (2010); Barney & Hesterly (2012); Bain & Company (2013).
Understand how practitioners perceive the current state of making mergers and acquisitions, if they think the process is too standardized and if there is benefit on investing more time and resources trying to capture more value.	Is it true that deals would benefit of changing towards a less standardized and more flexible approach as some practitioners point out? If yes, how to optimize time and resources consumption with the need to make a more extensive research and evaluation in the value-seeking approach?	McKinsey & Company (2010); Weber and Fried (2011); Christensen et al. (2011); Bauer and Matzler (2014); Faisal et al. (2016); Deloitte (2017).
Achieve a set of recommendations on how to prevent negative outcomes and how to generate more value through deal-making	How can organizations prepare, and which actions can they develop to more easily integrate in deals and extract maximum value with minimal risk?	McKinsey & Company (2004); McKinsey & Company (2010); Bauer and Matzler (2014).

Table 2: Characterization of the sample of participants in the interviews

Nº	Function	Country	Gender
1	Financial Director	Portugal	Male
2	Head of M&A	Germany	Male
3	Director of M&A	Germany	Female
4	Senior Consultant	Germany	Male
5	Head of Acquisitions	Germany	Male
6	Senior Expert of Field Development M&A	Germany	Male
7	M&A Associate Advisor	Germany	Male
8	M&A Communications Lead	Germany	Female
9	M&A Expert	Portugal	Male
10	M&A Director	Germany	Male
11	M&A Partner	Germany	Female
12	Strategy & Investments Senior Manager	France	Male
13	CEO and Owner	Belgium	Male
14	CEO and M&A Consultant	Germany	Male
15	M&A and Strategy Responsible	Germany	Male
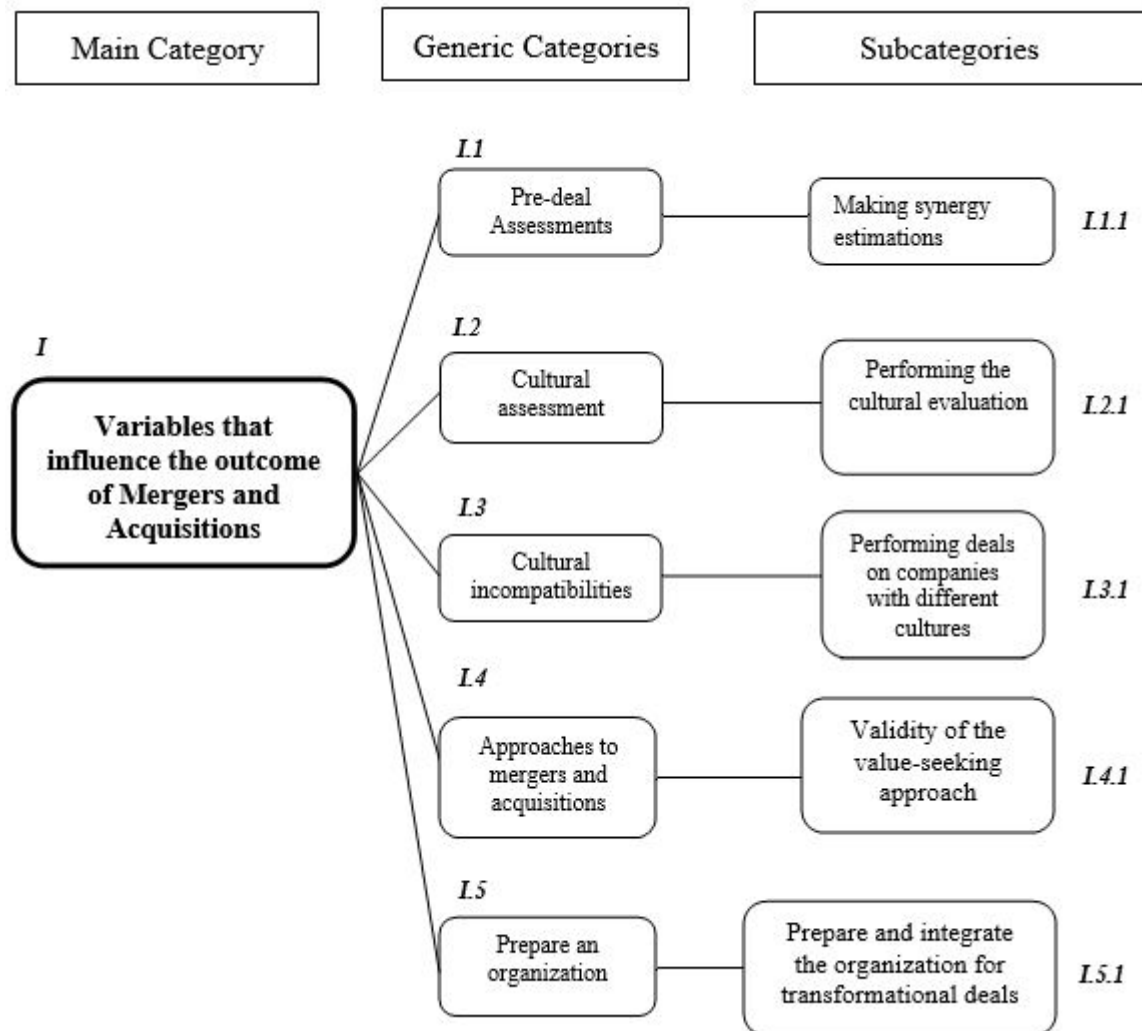
Figure 1: Categorization and codification of the interview "corpus" for qualitative analysis

The semi-structured technique was developed on an organized and standardized set of questions; however, it was implicit that the direction of the conversation would flow naturally, and in some occasions, questions were generated as the interview run and a deeper clarification on a target concept was necessary (e.g. synergy). This spontaneous nature of the interview has contributed for a lot of information that would otherwise be missed or left unclear (Werr & Styhre, 2002).

As defended by Vilelas (2009), this flexible way of conducting the interviews has abolished the need for rigid criteria that would damage the level of detail collected in the investigation. Regarding the disadvantages of having such flexibility is that the results were not standardized and there was a high degree of difficulty and required time when it came to organize, compare and reach conclusions on the results.

4 Results

4.1 Pre-deal assessments: synergy estimations

Five respondents pointed indirectly to a managerial hubris as a cause for the inaccuracy of the synergy estimations. This managerial hubris might be particularly strong in SME´s because leaders have always used their intuition to reach their success. As observed in the literature review, it can also interest management to grow through mergers and acquisitions to receive bonuses and to gain reputation. However, some respondents mentioned the lack of technical capabilities of companies to correctly estimate synergies.

Several respondents also mentioned the emotional attachment of people for the realization of the deal to why companies over-estimate synergies. These people can be quite emotionally driven and even be willing to manipulate numbers in order to promote a positive decision of the board of directors towards the realization of the deal.

Another mentioned factor that adds to the over-estimation of synergies is that in the most exciting deals, there is many times a lot of competition to acquire the business, a conservative bidding proposal based on conservative synergy estimations is unlikely to win against the competitors.

In a general way, over-optimism can be appointed as a reason to why estimations end up being short of what was expected. But as six respondents directly mentioned, synergies can be difficult to estimate, and people often work with imperfect data. When trying to extract information from the target or a potential partner companies face several obstacles. The information they are seeking can also be confidential, one of the respondents pointed to confidentiality as a reason to why he often is confronted with difficulties in calculating synergies.

Two respondents pointed fingers at banks and how

Table 3: Characterization of the sample of participants in the interviews

Content Analysis		
Nº	Text	Category
1	I have a very well-formed opinion about this… I think that there is clearly Hubris and it is constant in this type of businesses. This hubris happens very often on the buyer side.	**I.1.1**
3	When they want to buy a company, they make high estimations, because they are excited and want to buy it.	**I.1.1**
5	Probably also that the people who are making the acquisitions are too aggressive (…), and over-optimistic.	**I.1.1**
9	The main factor that influences this gap is the excess of optimism from the buyer´s side and overconfidence in the capacities to execute.	**I.1.1**
14	Mergers and acquisitions are many times driven by heart and not by facts, I would say.	**I.1.1**

they operate with rules of thumbs, others mentioned that companies are not really worried into making these estimations and they are just used to justify what they have already emotionally decided. One of the critiques respondents gave to banks is that they have expertise in finance,

and it is something they are really good at; but they lack the operational expertise to be able to accurately estimate synergies. In question four some respondents also touched the point of the current practice of banks as being the result of an adaptation towards efficiency and that this is unlikely

Table 4: Evidence for the difficulty in making accurate synergy estimations

Nº	Text	Category
3	What we try to do is to quantify these synergies bottom-up. Yes, they are still much based on assumptions, but we do try to quantify each synergy as much as possible and always ask how high is the likelihood that this is going to happen.	**I.1.1**
5	I think it is difficult to estimate the synergies; really, these are cost savings and specially going forward. Most of the time you are working with imperfect data, so you need to make some assumptions.	**I.1.1**
6	When it comes to acquire something and realizing what it is. Again, there are a lot of unknowns and it all has to do with the amount of data available at the time of this decision to move into this asset.	**I.1.1**
10	I don´t think you can improve the estimations. What you can do is to prepare a wider arrange of variants. In many cases you get a wrong estimation because you didn´t know things in advance.	**I.1.1**
12	As an M&A director you often need to get permission to discuss the details with the operational people, because that is confidential information. You cannot ask for bottom-up analysis, so then you have to do top-down analysis and rely on statistics.	**I.1.1**

to change because this is the result of many decades of experience and a deviation from current practices is likely to induce more mistakes and increase the risk of not realizing deals.

Three respondents mentioned the importance of making bottom-up synergy estimations as opposed to top-down synergy estimations. In bottom-up synergies estimations, companies calculate the impact change will have on the micro and detailed aspects of the business and then arrive at the final result by multiplying that for the scale that synergy is repeated. According to respondents, making top-down synergy estimations is more abstract and opens room for biased perspectives with lack of reality.

A fact that is appointed by some respondents and that is later indirectly confirmed by an analysis of the responses and how the work of the respondents is performed is that many times the team that is responsible for making the deal happen is different from the team that is responsible for the integration of the company and all the strategic aspects.

One of aspects that make companies not achieve the results they predicted is that they also fail to account for revenue dis-synergies. These revenue dis-synergies can happen for the very fact the deal is realized, one of the respondents gave the example that a company acquired another and achieved a big market share in the region. As a consequence, one of the previous clients decided to break the contract because the monopolization of the market from this company was making it concerned about being overly-dependent on the firm.

Table 5: Evidence for the preference for making bottom-up synergy estimations

Nº	Text	Category
3	Indeed, I think that many companies don´t do it in this diligent way. Often times, the synergy targets have been made by investment bankers, advisors or by the top management in a top-down manner.	I.1.1
9	The difference in knowledge between sectors makes all the difference when it comes to the capacity to make calculations. When we are dealing with a horizontal acquisition, then things are much easier, and the estimations must be done in a bottom-up manner.	I.1.1
12	You cannot ask for bottom-up analysis, so then you have to do top-down analysis and rely on statistics. (referring to that as a less accurate method)	I.1.1

Some appointed solutions include having an experienced and neutral team that has minimal emotional attachment to the realization of the deal. When there is enough time and resources, to calculate synergies in multiple ways and compare those perspectives to check for asymmetries. Using available databases of past synergies that were achieved in similar circumstances also provide another way to check if the estimations are realistic.

Holding people accountable for the achievement of predicted synergies and incentivize them with money to achieve the expected results is another appointed way to force people into making accurate predictions and achieving them. Other referred path to improve the accuracy of estimations include having a solid plan B in case something goes wrong, so that it minimizes the negative impact of a deviation from the expected results.

Table 6: Problems related with synergy estimations

Nº	Text	Category
4	Mergers often fail because it is very difficult to execute, the reason could be anything, and there could be cultural clashes, delay in the implementation or improper execution on the operational part of the advisors or even the target company.	I.1.1
7	The full process of M&A takes a long time. A long time after the acquisition is done, a new team which is responsible for executing the integration takes place and I think it is because these teams are separated. (referring to what is failing in synergies estimations)	I.1.1
10	In many cases you get a wrong estimation because you didn´t know things in advance. If you are more conservative you can reduce the failure rate, on the other hand it also lowers your chances of closing the deal because your offer is lower than competitors.	I.1.1
12	There is also an effect of not being able to predict the future. In a company, when you do a strategic plan, you do a lot of mistakes because macro-economic effects are not predictable.	I.1.1

4.2 Cultural assessment: importance, problems and solutions

This question has received very wide and conflicting answers. Six respondents strongly defended the importance of culture, sometimes pointing fingers and blaming the negligence companies have when it comes to cultural variables. Three respondents showed no agreement to the statement that culture is important, several others were in a neutral opinion zone or gave no comments on the topic.

Some of the practitioners who agree with the importance of culture mention that there can be substantial differences between companies of the same country and that these are the ones that are more likely to go "under the radar". Defendants of the importance of culture also point

Table 7: Appointed solutions to improve synergy estimations

Nº	Text	Category
1	I think that for this, clearly is to have independent teams. I believe that they are often despised by the business owners, the business leaders are not "dumb" but they have a lot of incompetence's.	**I.1.1**
3	It´s important to have a check for example from the board of management or in our case the M&A department that are not emotionally involved in the deal and takes a really realistic view to cross-check if this makes sense.	**I.1.1**
6	You can´t just have "plan A", you need to have plan A, B, C…	**I.1.1**
7	You also have to do really profound work and from my personal view, bankers don´t do this. If management can´t do this, they should employ experts. To make it better I would say to hire consultants.	**I.1.1**
15	During the due diligence process, you can adjust your synergy expectations. If you after all see they have very different infrastructures, then you should include a discount on your synergy expectations.	**I.1.1**

that there is too much optimism when it comes to culture and that people make the wrong judgment when they think that if companies operate in the same business area they may be compatible culturally.

When it comes to integrate companies, two respondents mentioned that internal teams are biased and adopt own firm culture and over-estimate how the other firm will perceive operating under a different culture.

A possible connection between the levels of agreement towards the importance of culture was found when analyzing this statement. Almost all the respondents who showed disagreement towards the importance of culture, do not work in direct contact with the integration stage where culture supposedly creates problems.

Respondents mentioned that companies can lack that capability to evaluate culture and three mentioned that hiring consultants is a good alternative, when necessary. However, the costs of making the deal happen will increase, and they advised to reflect if after adding those predicted costs the deal is still profitable. One of the respondents said that it is hard to know exactly who is on the other company, they can be manipulative and deceiving and you only really know them afterwards, said the respondent recalling past events.

Some respondents pointed as a possible way to improve cultural evaluation to take cultural research seriously and include a cultural due diligence in the timeline. Three practitioners mentioned the importance of getting involved, it can be visiting warehouses, offices, communicating and getting to know the people of the other company. Surveys to evaluate satisfaction were also appointed twice as a possible solution.

4.3 Cultural incompatibilities: performing deals on companies with different cultures

As one of the respondents noted, it depends on the level cultural incompatibilities are observed. According to him, these cultural incompatibilities can happen at numerous levels such as top-management or operational/employee level. He advises to evaluate which are those incompatibilities exactly and which impact will they have, because each level requires a specific set of actions and depending on the type of company and deal being pursued their impact can vary.

Table 8: Opinion of respondents on the importance of culture

Nº	Text	Category
2	I agree that companies are neglecting the importance of culture. (…). I would not say that they do lack the capability to evaluate culture.	I.2.1
3	At Bayer we are involved in many, many deals. I personally sold and acquired businesses worldwide and I haven´t come across with cultural issues so much.	I.2.1
4	The key point is that the buyer should know that the cultures differ and imposing the culture on theirs can destroy value. That is the key point. Culture should be a part of the strategic evaluation,	I.2.1
7	Top management consists of highly educated and experienced people, they are also globalized, and they can deal with integrating the company well.	I.2.1
8	For us culture is always a field that we analyze to see if there is cultural fit, which is key.	I.2.1
9	I think it is something that can go unnoticed and there is overconfidence, optimism and underestimating in the ability of someone in the target company to do things.	I.2.1
10	There is little opportunity to adapt to other culture needs. There is bad preparation. You also should not underestimate culture in deals between neighbouring countries.	I.2.1
11	I think many buyers who are looking for targets fail to evaluate culture, and this is maybe twofold.	I.2.1
13	I think both are true, on one hand companies often neglect culture and the psychological side of a deal is also the cultural side.	I.2.1
14	In my point of view, culture is not the reason. I can´t say that these cultural variables are important.	I.2.1

Table 9: Opinions on how to improve cultural evaluation/planning

Nº	Text	Category
5	I think this is one of the most difficult things to do, I don´t think that anything within reason can be done. It´s my opinion.	I.2.1
9	Everything that has to do with getting to know the target company's people is essential, management meetings, shop visits, factories, warehouses or whatever is extremely useful.	I.2.1
13	I would say that certainly yes; by being aware of culture and by investigating, asking questions and feeling the culture. This is not exact science of course.	I.2.1
15	During the due diligence process, you can adjust your synergy expectations. If you after all see they have very different infrastructures, then you should include a discount on your synergy expectations.	I.2.1

Five respondents directly mentioned that the level of integration can be set to minimize those incompatibilities. The more culturally distant they are, the less integrated/ more independent companies should be. One of the respondents also added that besides this level of integration, one should think about how well the target is running alone and in case it is a "well-oiled" company to check if an intervention is going to destroy that working efficiency. Do not integrate them, play with the level of integration (depends on how distant culturally they are and how well-oiled they are you should not destroy a well-oiled company. Two respondents mentioned that awareness is key to be ready to act.

Firing the target employees, especially the top-management was a frequent topic to be touched by the respondents. Around four practitioners advised to deal with people in a very precise and well thought manner. The leaders of the target company can be quite resistant to the change and they have a lot of power to negatively influence the outcome of the deal. What can be done, according to the answers is to deal with these people very carefully, and if they are causing problems to fire them.

As observed in the literature review it was proposed by some authors that making a commitment to retain people is beneficial to the outcomes of deals because people get less anxious. However, one of the respondents who have

experience in the topic said that from her experience the several times that commitment was done, that she saw it negatively influencing the profitability of the deal, sometimes in severe way. One of the respondents mentioned the importance of thinking about the long-term value-erosion of dealing with conflicting cultures. He defended that the negative effects might perpetuate for longer than expected, and he advised that when in doubt that it is better to find someone else.

4.4 Approaches to mergers and acquisitions: standardization and viability of a value-seeking approach

The answers for this question were more abstract and complex than other questions, their opinions also referred to specific contexts. When carefully analyzing the possibly conflicting answers, it is visible that they are directed at

Table 10: Appointed solutions on how to perform deals in culturally incompatible companies

Nº	Text	Category
1	I think that, in addition to the prior evaluation that there should be (...), it is fundamental to have in the central decision-making team people who understand the culture of the other company (...). And then it is the adaptation of internal procedures so that they do not collide with that culture. For example, a Portuguese company cannot reach Spain and expect the workers to accept it at eight in the morning.	I.3.1
5	Sometimes it makes sense to impose your culture as the leading culture and sometimes they should be independent and without a full integration, it´s about the level of integration.	I.3.1
7	In a recent deal, a German company has made a promotional video for the employees about the future of the company. I can say that for the lower-skilled employees this has been really helpful, they were very excited.	I.3.1
8	Leadership is extremely important in such a case, if you get the leaders of the acquired company behind you and be promoters of the change, then you´ve done a great thing already.	I.3.1
9	There are internal integration actions that can be launched where the resources of the two companies are combined and where one does not only seek to produce something together, but to create team spirit and integration.	I.3.1
10	First of all, you talked about integration. But that is not the only way you can create value; the other way would be to keep them separated.	I.3.1
15	This kind of situation would be very unlikely to happen. If it´s a geographic thing, then keep them independent as the time gap between companies would also make it difficult for integration.	I.3.1

specific contexts that can complement and fit each other without necessarily conflict. Four respondents said that standardization exists and that it is essential on an operational level; several others indirectly defended standardization.

What four practitioners argued against standardization can be interpreted as a critique to standardizing the reasons for mergers and acquisitions. And that over-standardization, when paired with a lack of creativity, can be a value-destroying combination.

Three participants referred that the counter-side of implementing a less standardized approach that tries to seek and capture value on deeper levels is that it increases the risk of the deal not happening. One respondent mentioned: having more time to do such things would certainly add value; however, no one is interested in giving the target

more time to create problems. Some respondents highlighted the importance of time and that the less standardized you are, the more time you will require and depending on the context it can destroy more value than what it adds.

Even though their answers were sometimes abstract and hard to compare, it can be said that they agree on the fact that standardization with a touch of flexibility is key. Some areas only benefit of a high standardization such as the legal area, depending on the context, adding a bit of time and flexibility can be beneficial. One of the respondents mentioned that such an approach could work if the team was entrepreneurial and experienced enough to think outside the box and in an efficient manner.

Table 11: Opinions on the standardization of mergers and acquisitions

Nº	Text	Category
1	I think there is parameterization. It has some disadvantages, but it is also important.	**I.4.1**
4	No, it´s not too standardized. What fails is the reason to do the deal, if I can produce something myself why should I purchase a company?	**I.4.1**
6	You can possibly extract guidelines, but remember you need to accustom things to work on the situations you are presented with.	**I.4.1**
7	Process standardization in my personal view needs to exist as much as possible, and it is good. It lowers the risk and reduces the time and effort.	**I.4.1**
9	The biggest driver is the level at which the management team thinks outside the box. This will determine how the company looks at the approaches.	**I.4.1**
15	I don´t think that merger and acquisition transactions are standardized. It´s probably only M&A theoretical people that say such a thing. On one hand, standardization is helpful.	**I.4.1**

Table 12: Opinions on being creative and flexible in the process

Nº	Text	Category
1	I think what is important is to maintain creativity, in a given scenario, to imagine and create something with more value.	**I.4.1**
6	You need to formulate and adapt to the situation based on the criteria and the principles that you are faced with. So yes, you need to be flexible without a doubt.	**I.4.1**
9	I think the main variable is the degree of entrepreneurship of the management team and the company. This will determine the risk aversion that happens in these more transformational acquisitions.	**I.4.1**

4.5 Preparing an organization to perform mergers and acquisitions

One of the most cited solutions that can help companies prepare for transformational deals, as pointed by five respondents, is having a proactive, multifaceted and experienced team that can make the deal-making process more entrepreneurial while having enough expertise to know what they are doing. Team experience will reduce the risk of failure due to lack of process regulations. One of the respondents also noted that it is not uncommon that the people involved in the process are working with different IT systems and according to him; it would improve coordination if people were all working with the same system.

Communicating more and in a clear manner, was referred by three respondents as a way to make a good preparation for an upcoming deal. One of the respondents added, in case you are trying to sell our business, you should take care of all the marketing to be as visible as possible and increase the number of interested companies. There are important things, such as having a nice and professional website page that enables you to pass the image of being a modern and professional company, something you should want to achieve if you are trying to sell your business. Two respondents pointed to the importance of fixing internal problems before engaging in any deal. First, they say, you should optimize what you have and make sure it is running in an efficient and stable way. Two practitioners pointed to the importance of prioritizing the upcoming merger or acquisition event, to define a timeline and allocate the resources necessary to make a smooth transaction. About making a more extensive research and looking for deeper sources of value, one of the respondents mentioned that it should not be more complex than a regular deal; it is just a matter of evaluating and preparing with more time and having attention to details.

Two respondents advised to have more transparency in the process. And one respondent mentioned the importance of adjusting the dynamics of both companies so that the target knows it is a two-sided process. Regarding other aspects that could be improved, one respondent also mentioned to define leadership more clearly; the idea is to always have a board or a committee that is ready to take care and supervise the deal. Two respondents mentioned that it is a human thing that people don't like unexpected change, especially when it is not in their interests. Therefore, they can try to resist changing. What one practitioner advised is

to educate people on these issues and to pay them well to keep them satisfied and motivated via the achievement of financial bonuses. One respondent commented on the fact that trying to extract deep synergies from attractive deals has its disadvantages when compared with easier deals. Easier deals can also create value by having less competition and being less time and resources consuming. Another responded commented that in mergers and acquisitions if one side wins a lot the other side must be losing.

5 Discussion

5.1 Pre-deal Assessments: synergy estimations

In the estimation of synergies, this study found proof that there is indeed a presence of a managerial hubris and an over-optimism involving the realization of deals, this

Table 13: Opinions on how to prepare an organization to perform mergers and acquisitions

Nº	Text	Category
7	If you are acquiring to make a completely new company, with a new branding, do it step by step. Do it gradually, it is quite important. You need enough time to get everybody used to the idea and deploy the resources.	**I.5.1**
9	What I would say in a simplistic way is that the more knowledge you have about the industry and the more referrals you collect from the target company, the lower the associated risk because the greater the understanding and the ability to choose what you really want.	**I.5.1**
10	You can prepare your organization, (...) having people with experience that can react to that specific situation.	**I.5.1**
15	A board or an integration committee that is installed to control the process. This is normal in large M&A deals. Feedback from employees is also crucial and that goes back to the cultural question, when things are not going as expected.	**I.5.1**

goes in conformity with the statements of Barney and Hesterly (2012). As the authors mention, too often people are emotionally attached to the deal and think with their heart instead of reason. In an interview, one transaction consultant with many years of experience pointed a figure regarding this topic, according to him; this happens more than a half the cases a transaction in done on an SME.

It was also pointed that synergies estimations can be hard to estimate, and that it is no problem of the companies and managers themselves. One interviewed director pointed to his experience as he felt many times frustrated after not being able to get essential confidential information from the target. The data itself can be imperfect, no one can calculate everything to the most minuscule of details, even the most well-made synergies estimations are just estimations and there are many non-financial variables involved, these results are in conformity with the arguments of Gomes et al. (2013).

The importance of making bottom-up synergy predictions instead of top-down estimations was highlighted a couple of times. Whenever it is possible and advisable, companies should perform bottom-up analysis. This finding is in conformity with the previous literature such as the arguments of McKinsey & Company (2010), however expands existing knowledge by alerting to avoid over-opti-

mistic involving decision making as suggested by Garzella and Fiorentino (2017).

5.2 Cultural assessment: importance, problems and solutions

Regarding the cultural variable, the interview responses were contradictory. Some people defended strongly the importance of culture, while others even mentioned that during their decades of experience they never observed the effects of culture to be a significant problem. Most of the reviewed literature defends the importance of culture although with divergent result (Schraeder and Self, 2003; Lodorfos and Boateng, 2006; Badrtalei and Bates, 2007; Weber et al., 2009; Sarala, 2010; Weber and Fried, 2011; Bain & Company, 2013). The results of this study bring additional information on this issue, by identifying that culture is effectively important. The belief of some of the interviewed professionals that think otherwise only prove the existence of cultural negligence, which is defended by some authors as a cause for the failure of mergers and acquisitions (Schraeder and Self, 2003; McKinsey & Company, 2010). The majority of interviewed people who disagreed with the importance of culture work at the pre-

stage and due-diligence phases and hold positions in banks or large corporations with highly specialized deal-making functions and have no responsibility in integrating organizations, this might be a factor contributing for their view on the importance of culture.

5.3 Cultural incompatibilities: performing deals on companies with different cultures

The obtained results are in conformity with the arguments of the authors studied in the literature review. When dealing with deals that are predicting large financial benefits, but companies have cultural incompatibilities, one of the mentioned solutions was to play with the level of integration; to keep the companies independent if it doesn´t generate much damage to the capability to reap the synergies. This complements the argument of Schraeder and Self (2003) on the importance of developing a well-supported plan as well as the argument of Barney and Hesterly (2012) that managers should balance the interests of employees, managers, shareholders and stakeholders of both companies in a neutral way and while avoiding conflicts of interest.

Another finding consistent with the literature review was on the benefits of communication; to try getting connected with the leaders of the target company to plan things together and to involve employees as well. According to the authors in the literature as well as the respondents, this communication and participation creates team-spirit and reduces the resistance to change by changing the perception of people that the ones behind the deal are on their side (Schraeder & Self, 2003). Gundry and Rousseau (1994), also mentioned the importance of having integration activities. Communication is also important in the perspective of Marks and Mirvis (1992), their argument is that uncertainties destabilize employee performance, good and clear communication certainly helps reduce uncertainties.

Some respondents mentioned that when dealing with distant cultures, managers should not immediately impose one over the other. Managers should instead develop integration activities that slowly build a team-play spirit between the two sides and after that the speed and degree of cultural change can be molded to avoid major conflicts. As Gordon (1991) mentions cultures are abstract and hard to change. This article expands previous knowledge about cultural and human factors on mergers and acquisitions (Bereskin et al., 2018; Denison and Ko, 2016) by identifying the managerial hubris as a key factors that creates an over-optimism in decision making.

5.4 Approaches to mergers and acquisitions: standardization and viability of a value-seeking approach

The value-seeking approach concept as proposed by McKinsey & Company (2010), did not receive much approval from the respondents. However, respondents agreed that keeping creativity and flexibility in some areas is vital, therefore giving partial support to a possible change in the way mergers and acquisitions are conducted. The consensus among respondents is that standardization leads to a faster and more efficient process, but when things are running too automatically, some variables are not observed and are left untreated because people are working with guidelines. Trying to search and explore deeper synergies could indeed add value for the deal, but it is also not in the interest of the buying company to, in many cases, give the target more time to cause problems.

Some respondents said that the theoretical reasoning behind the value seeking approach is correct and makes sense, but that too often there are very tight time constraints as well as other variables such as the negative perks of giving the target more time that make this more extensive approach not look as good. Therefore the concept for this new approach of McKinsey & Company (2010) can work out if the proper conditions are in place and more research needs to be conducted.

5.5 Preparing an organization to perform mergers and acquisitions

Having experienced and proactive teams with a well-defined leadership was one of the mentioned topics by respondents to prepare organizations to better perform deals, this is in accordance with the view of McKinsey & Company (2010). Another mentioned action to make sure an organization is prepared to perform mergers and acquisitions is to make sure that the company is running smoothly and efficiently before engaging in a merger or acquisition deal, this finding is consistent with previous research (c.f. Kiessling, Vlačić, and Dabić, 2019).

The importance of have a good amount and quality of communication for the success of mergers and acquisitions was appointed by the respondents, this opinion is in line with what was observed in the literature review (Wiltermuth and Neale, 2011; Faisal et al., 2016). As mentioned by Konstantopoulos et al. (2009), when there is lack of communication, it creates feelings of insecurity and allows negative rumors to spread. On this vein, this research extends previous research (e.g. Friedman, et al., 2016) by providing a more deep detail of the communication climate that must be developed to prepare the organization for mergers and acquisitions. This article also expands ex-

isting knowledge about mergers and acquisitions synergies (Moreira & Janda, 2017) by including the cultural dimension besides the financial one.

6 Conclusion

This investigation reinforces the arguments of some previous authors and brings light into several topics of mergers and acquisitions. Regarding synergy estimations, the managerial hubris and over-optimism need to receive more attention from managers and organizations. This study reinforces the argument for the presence of a managerial hubris that has been indicated by Barney and Hesterly (2012). Multiple respondents referred to this variable as being a negative impediment for the neutral and efficient realization of deals. In the future, the field needs regulate itself by making sure professionals are not emotionally biased in the deals. The process of decision-making needs to avoid rules of thumbs and engage in more rational data calculations by adopting clear and standardized methods. Another proposed solution achieved in this work is to make people accountable for their mistakes as well as their achievements, by adopting this reward system people will be more careful to check if they are building their arguments without emotional bias.

The cultural variable received controversial and conflicting answers, overall, professionals gave both positive and negative answers regarding the importance of culture. This conclusion means that there is a misalignment between the beliefs of practitioners regarding the importance of culture, which obviously will influence how they handle the variable when they are performing deals. The results also conflict with the authors studied the literature review, since most of them defended the importance of culture. If culture is important, this study brings evidence and reinforces the argument of authors blaming cultural negligence as a contributor for failure in mergers and acquisitions. If culture is important after all, a solution needs to start by raising the awareness of professionals for its importance, this can be done by performing more studies to prove why and how culture can influence the outcomes of mergers and acquisitions.

When dealing with culturally distant companies, this study also makes several suggestions, it might be advisable for firms to not impose culture and try to excite the leader of the target to avoid having conflicts and do things in a friendly way instead. Employee integration actions help as well, when there are cultural conflicts and employees from both companies need to work collectively, companies can progressively develop projects that slowly integrate employees and build the team spirit.

The value seeking approach is a relatively new concept in the field of mergers and acquisitions. This study brings light into what practitioners think of adopting such an approach and how they perceive the current state of the sector. Standardization on mergers and acquisitions received support from most respondents, however, they also advise to keep some level of creativity and flexibility. Another contribution to the field of mergers and acquisitions is how practitioners perceive the need to change the way mergers and acquisition are conducted, there were divided answers, some practitioners believe that the process can be improved and others don´t.

For managers and entrepreneurs without much experience that want to be prepared to engage in a merger or an acquisition, this investigation suggests several actions. Firstly, firms can start by defining the leadership very well and include people with experience in mergers and acquisitions in the team. Leaders also need to consider the importance of communication from the very beginning, an increase in quantity and quality of the information being communicated can have positive results in many levels. It can be internal and lead to an increase in internal coordination, or it can be external and lead to an increase of the awareness in the context of the deal and enable firms to make better decisions.

Considering the nature of the current research, as well as the topic being investigated, it is imperative to reflect on several limitations. Performing a broad and holistic study is very hard given the limited resources available to perform this investigation. Therefore, the achieved conclusions need to be taken with caution as the study is not broad enough to induce in undeniable conclusions. It also needs to be well-thought-out that the achieved conclusions might be true only for the context upon which they were extracted. Therefore, this research is restricted regarding both contextualization and sample size. Another limitation was that some of the respondents favored to not disclose their identity or to not allow the interview to be recorded, which affected the detail of the information. In any case, the ones who opted for anonymity all agreed to disclose their identities for the evaluation committee in case there is scrutiny over the validity of their interviews.

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Kulturni, vodstveni in organizacijski dejavniki vpliva na rezultate prevzemov in združitev

Ozadje / namen: Raziskava se osredotoča na spremenljivke, ki vplivajo na rezultate združitev in prevzemov, iz-hajajoč iz analize preteklih napak, da bi managerji lahko izluščili boljše strategije in sprejemali modrejše odločitve za izboljšanje rezultatov združitev in prevzemov. Študija prispeva k obstoječemu znanju o uspešnosti združitev in prevzemov z raziskovanjem razsežnosti kulturnih, vodstvenih in organizacijskih dejavnikov s pomočjo integrativnega pristopa z več perspektivami.
Metodologija: Opravljenih je bilo petnajst intervjujev z izkušenimi strokovnjaki na več področjih združitev in prev-zemov. Za interpretacijo rezultatov smo uporabili vsebinsko analizo. To je omogočilo celovitejši nabor odgovorov in možnih rešitev, ob primerjanju mnenj o istih problemih, obravnavanih z nekoliko različnih zornih kotov.
Rezultati: Študija kaže na vpliv vodstvene ogroženosti, čustvene navezanosti in preveč optimizma pri združitvah in prevzemih. Pokazala se je zmerna podpora standardizaciji postopkov združitev in prevzemov, vendar anketiranci svetujejo, da ne pozabimo na kreativnost in prilagodljivost.
Zaključek: Članek zaključuje s strnitvijo ključnih vprašanj glede uspešnosti združitev in prevzemov: zmogljivosti in izkušnje, organizacijska komunikacija, notranje usklajevanje in ključni dejavniki pri odločanju.

Ključne besede: Združitve in prevzemi, Sinergije, Kultura, Strategija, Rast, Izvedba.

Organisational Culture and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: The Dark Side of Organisational Politics

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Background and Purpose: Organisational politics can have a substantial negative effect on employees' performance, however many organisations still do not pay attention to this organisational behaviour. In our study, we aim to examine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour through how employees perceive political behaviour within organisations.
Methods: Convenience sampling technique has been employed, quantitative data were collected from 532 employees in the Jordan banking industry via online surveys. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed to test the hypotheses of the study.
Results: Analyses showed that organisational culture within the banking industry has an effect on how employees perceive political behaviour. A negative perception of political behaviour by employees, in turn, has a negative influence on employees' citizenship behaviour. These findings answer previous calls to investigate the destructive effect of organisational politics on employee outcomes.
Conclusion: Organisations should pay more attention to the destructive effect of organisational politics and try to minimise such behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour, in contrast, benefits organisational performance, and the enhancement of this is recommended through the implementation of more effective policies and strategies.

Keywords: Organisational culture; Perceived organisational politics; Organisation citizenship behaviour.

1 Introduction

The success of any organisation essentially depends on the performance of its employees, in that they make an effort beyond what is expected of them in the workplace (Lee et al., 2018). This is especially true at present, given the dramatic changes in the economic environment, constant improvements in technology, and the extent of heated competition in the marketplace. Excellent performance on the part of employees is ideally voluntary and is not included in their officially contracted tasks. This phenomenon is called organisational citizenship behaviour

(OCB; Khan et al., 2019). Organ (1997, p.91) has defined OCB as 'employee behaviour that is relatively discretionary and contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance'. Management inside organisations typically welcomes this kind of altruistic behaviour because that it to organisational effectiveness. This is especially true in the service industry, where organisations need to deal with unexpected daily challenges and employees often have to exert more effort or take on extra-role responsibilities (activities performed by employees that are not included in their job description; Takeuchi et al., 2015). OCB studies

have tended to focus on the most effective antecedents of OCB: leader-member exchange (LMX) (Newman et al., 2017), prosocial values (Cheung et al., 2018), and impression management and organisational concern motives (Takeuchi et al., 2015). Recently, considerable attention has been paid to the influence of organisational politics and how employees perceive this (Yang, 2017; Zhang et al., 2019).

Organisational politics (OP) has been referred to as 'individual or group behaviour that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in a technical sense, illegitimate - sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise' (Mintzberg, 1983, p.172). These behaviours can generate a struggle between individuals within an organisation, often leading to perceptions by employees that their colleagues are motivated by self-interest (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2017). Therefore, many employees consider organisation politics to be unhealthy, unprofessional behaviour (Malik et al., 2019). However, these behaviours are sometimes necessary for employees to be rewarded or promoted within the organisation, which in turn affects OCB (Vigoda-Gadot & Beeri, 2011). Similarly, Abbas and Raja (2014) claimed that Organisational Politics is essential for an organisation's growth.

There is considerable controversy regarding the effects of OP and whether they are fundamentally positive or negative. Shoe et al. (2013), for example, stated that OP effects differ from one culture to another and that OP might be 'cultural-dependent'. This is because 'culture' entails the traditions and norms of any organisation, including basic assumptions that encourage or discourage employees to participate in OCB (Pohl et al., 2019).

Moreover, it appears that organisational politics can affect OCB, as they can prompt more effort in the workplace. This link is critical, and may be behind the inconsistent results in previous studies (Hsiung et al., 2012). However, we can conceptually trace the connection between the cultural dimensions of Hofstede (2001) and OP, as the former can make an excellent environment for employees engaging in such political behaviours. The positive outcome of self-serving behaviour (OP) makes employees exert extra effort in the workplace, as they attain rewards and recognition within an organisation by engaging in such behaviour (Khan et al., 2019). To the best of our knowledge, organisational politics has never been examined in the banking industry in Jordan. The cultural context of Jordan, as in any other country may play a key role in shaping the composition of both public and private organisations. The tribal system in Jordan is the dominant system in the Parliament, and this may have echoes within private organisations as well (Clark, 2012),

To address these gaps, the present study aims to answer the following question: do cultural dimensions make an

essential contribution to OCB through POP? To the best of our knowledge, Hofstede's cultural dimensions have not been explored in relation to Jordan banking industry. Furthermore, previous studies on OCB have broadly been conducted in both western and eastern contexts (Meynhardt et al., 2020; Miao et al., 2018). Therefore, it is very important to examine this relationship in a different context (e.g., Jordan) to further clarify the relationship between these cultural dimensions and OCB. Much existing research on OCB has been aimed at psychological empowerment (Abdulrab et al., 2018). Psychological empowerment has also been considered a mediator through which other variables have an effect on OCB. However, findings have been inconsistent regarding this mediator, leading to a call for the consideration of other mediators (Taylor, 2013). Therefore, the present study considered organisational politics as a mediator between the cultural dimension and OCB. This study theorises that OP acts as a mediating variable between organisational culture and OCB.

The present study draws upon social exchange theory. The fundamental premise for this is that individuals' feeling towards any relationship rely mainly on the outcome of that relationship. Where organisations and their employees enter into a reciprocal relationship, the organisation needs high performance and loyalty from employees, while the latter desire both tangible and intangible benefits. From the perspective of the social exchange theory, individuals tend to engage in political behaviour to gain the benefits of such behaviour, putting in more effort to obtain better outcomes (Chernyak-Hai & Rabenu, 2018). The main objective for the present study is to build a model and find an empirical and conceptual linkage between the organisational culture dimension and OCB through the mediating effect of organisational politics.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is a broad conceptual landscape. However, organisational culture can range from well-known traditions and norms to sophisticated workplace practices. The culture of any organisation depends upon the philosophy that the organisation adopts, and both of these affect employees' behaviour unconsciously (Kawiana et al., 2018).

Hofstede (2001) proposed several cultural dimensions - power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and short-term vs. long-term orientation - to describe organisational culture. Power distance is the extent to which power is distributed among individuals within an organisation (Hofstede, 2001). Uncertainty avoidance is 'the extent to which the members

of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations' (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011, p.12). Collectivism is the extent to which people prioritise group cohesiveness (Tusar et al., 2016). Masculinity-femininity is concerned with culture rather than gender, in that a 'masculine' culture pays attention to performance and outcomes, while a 'feminine' culture values the process. Cultures with a short-term orientation operate with a focus on achieving quick results. Long-term cultures, in contrast, focus on balanced development, paying more attention to future results (Bukowski & Rudnicki, 2019).

Hofstede Insights (2020) measured the scores for Jordan on each of these dimensions. On the dimension of power distance, Jordan scored 70, meaning that there is an unequal distribution of power among organisational members. Jordan scored 65 in uncertainty avoidance, meaning that 65% of Jordanian people feel threatened by the unknown. This may be due to the political situation that exists in the area. Jordan scored 30 in individualism, indicating that Jordanian people prioritise their family, their extended family, and the society around them. Along the same lines, Jordan scored 45 in masculinity, therefore, it is considered to be relatively feminine. Finally, Jordan scored 16 in long-term orientation, indicating that Jordanians tend to look for the achievement of quick results.

In this paper, we examine these cultural dimensions in the context of the Jordanian banking industry.

2.2 Organisational Politics (OP)

As with organisational culture, organisational politics can be defined in a number of ways. However, there are two main perspectives. To emphasise this point, Block (1988, p. 5) stated: 'If I told you were a very political person, you would take it either as an insult or at best as a mixed blessing'. From the first point of view, political behaviour relates to the broad domain of interpersonal relationships (Aybar & Marsap, 2018). This means that the political behaviour of employees depends on the situations that they might face within an organisation. For instance, as Fedor et al. (2008) argue, 'The contribution of positive politics to the predication of employees' reaction' means that organisational politics has positive and negative outcomes at each level (i.e., individual, group, and organisation). In the same vein, Drory and Vigoda-Gadot (2011) stress the positive aspects of organisational politics, particularly if one of the employees is acknowledged by his or her team members as being an excellent employee who wants to get promoted. Some aspects of good political behaviour require substantial interpersonal skill.

On the other hand, Kacmar and Baron (1999, p.4) define organisational politics as the '…actions by individuals which are directed toward the goal of furthering their own self-interest without regard for the well-being of others

or their organisation'. In this interpretation, the activities of employees springing from their own self-interest are considered organisational politics in the workplace (Vigoda-Gadot & Talmud, 2011; Zhang et al. 2019). Similarly, Landells and Albrecht (2017) have stated that examples of organisational politics include ignoring and neglecting the hierarchy in order to obtain promotions, lobbying managers in one's own self-interest, and obtaining specific tools through inappropriate means. All of these behaviours lead to the subversion of justice and fairness within the organisation, since all employees do not have the same political abilities.

2.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Organisational citizenship behaviour was identified by Khan et al. (2019) as essential behaviour for functioning organisations. Organisations cannot rely solely on regular behaviours. The need for innovation and constant change rely on behaviours beyond what is written in job descriptions. The need for such extraordinary behaviour is essential, not just for innovation but also for survival (Pohl et al., 2019). OCB can play another role inside organisations: it can actually accommodate social interaction inside an organisation by working as a support system for cooperation in the event of contingencies or when seeking change (Haque et al., 2019). OCB reduces conflict and encourages teamwork, thereby increasing organisational effectiveness and productivity (Devece et al., 2016).

According to Organ (1997), the dimensions of OCB are altruism, courtesy, cheerleading, peacekeeping, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Civic virtue and conscientiousness are key to mutual assistance and teamwork in the workplace, improving organisational performance. Similarly, the cheerleading, peacekeeping, and sportsmanship dimensions reflect the nature of the relationship among employees. At the same time, altruism and courtesy help prevent any miscommunication and reduce conflict (Arıkoğlu et al., 2019). As Lee and Allen (2002, p.132) state: 'central to all definitions, however, is the idea that OCBs are employee behaviours that, although not critical to the task or job, serve to facilitate organisational functioning'.

3 Development of Hypothesis

If all policies were applied to everyone within an organisation, and individuals were treated fairly, it would be difficult to observe political behaviour. According to Landells and Albrecht (2017), the political behaviour of individuals within an organisation changes according to the management philosophy. This makes organisations un-

predictable. Consequently, tangible and intangible reward distribution is based on the strength of the relationship with management.

Leslie and Gelfand (2012) suggested two main propositions based on Hofstede's culture theory. The first proposition states that OP is socially and culturally embedded, because individuals within organisations have to deal with each other on a daily basis. This leads us to the second proposition, that organisational culture influences OP. In their meta-analysis, Watkin et al. (2014) used a sample of 292 participants to examine the link between perception of uncertainty and OP. They identified a weak correlation between high power distance cultures and OP. These authors found that despite the fact that individuals generally react negatively to OP, people vary in how they perceive OP according to their culture (Lesli & Gelfand, 2012; Slawinski et al., 2019).

Organisations with higher power distance generally accept the chain of command and unequal distributions of power. On the other hand, organisations with low power distance support the concept of empowerment. Under these circumstances, employees do not feel the burden of rules and regulations, which encourages them to engage in political behaviour (Elbana, 2016). In the same way, masculine organisations are directed towards achievement and competition, therefore there is a higher chance that members of an organisation will act politically in the workplace, due to the heated competition and having to accomplish the required tasks in one way or another (Kawiana et al., 2018). Similarly, a person in an individualistic culture stands for 'I' more than 'We'. Employees perceive that people engage in political behaviour when they work hard in their own self-interest. Conversely, in a collectivist culture, employees are very cooperative with each other, tending to support and help their colleagues or subordinates. People do not prioritise their own self-interest in the workplace, so there is little opportunity for political behaviour (Bukowski & Rudnicki, 2019). Based on this, we hypothesise that:

H1: Cultural dimensions have a significant relationship with organisational politics.

H1a: Power distance has a significant relationship with organisational politics.

H1b: Masculinity has a significant relationship with organisational politics.

H1c: Uncertainty avoidance has a significant relationship with organisational politics.

H1d: Collectivism has a significant relationship with organisational politics.

Previous studies on OP have examined it in terms of negative organisational outcomes such as stress levels (Yang, 2019), work tension (Meisler & Vigoda-Gadot, 2014), and employee turnover (Rizwan et al., 2019). High OP is associated with negative behaviour on the part of employees within the workplace (e.g., employee absenteeism, intention to quit, and employee resentment). Moreover, several studies have found a strong connection between OP and negative employee outcomes such as absenteeism, intention to leave, and employee turnover (Hsiung et al., 2012; Yang, 2019). Furthermore, employee with high political behaviour can be harmful and have a negative effect on group unity within an organisation, potentially encouraging employees to work in their own personal interest (Rizwan et al., 2019). Hence, it is expected that a high level of perceived OP will have a negative influence on OCB.

A growing body of literature on how employees perceive political behaviour does indeed demonstrate a negative association with OCB (Lau et al., 2017).

On the other hand, few studies claimed that organizational politics accompanied with positive outcomes. Solís and Monroy (2015), for example, argue that individuals within organisations might engage in political behaviour and produce a positive organisational outcome if OP is the best way to get things done. Along the same lines, Fedor et al. (2008, p.78) state: 'what may make political (i.e., non-normative, self-serving) behaviours positive is the extent to which these self-serving behaviours are considered as legitimate or consistent with goals that enhance organisational effectiveness.' However, despite this argument regarding the possible positive influence of OP on OCB, the majority of the literature has examined the dark side of political behaviour (for example Khan et al., 2019; Malik et al., 2019).

Based on the research reviewed above, we expect OP to have a direct negative effect on OCB. Thus, we hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 2: Organisational politics has a negative influence on OCB.

Previous studies have examined the influence of factors mediating between organisational culture and OCB. Farzaneh et al. (2014), for example, found that empowerment, trust, organisational support, and organisational justice mediate the relationship between organisational culture and OCB. Procedural justice and employee commitment have also been found to be mediating factors between organisational culture and OCB (Chun et al., 2013). To the best of the researchers' knowledge, the relationship between Hofstede's cultural dimensions and POP has not been explored in detail in the literature

As discussed above, organisations with low power distance tend to empower their employees. This increases the opportunities for them to engage in political behaviour (Elbana, 2016). This engagement in such behaviour will affects employees OCB (Lau et al., 2017). In the same way, Malik et al. (2019) proposed that individualistic organisations that support 'I' more than 'We' - in other words 'competition' - have employees who might act politically in order to achieve some personal goal. This leads us to

believe that employee perceptions of political behaviour may affect OCB. Therefore, we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 3: Perceived organisational politics mediates the relationship between organisational cultural dimensions and OCB.

4 Methods

4.1 Participant and Data Collection Procedure

The present study was conducted in the banking industry in Amman, Jordan. Banking industry in Jordan includes 25 banks (16 national and 9 foreign). The research team obtained a permission to disrepute the survey in 15 banks (all located in the capital city Amman). Accordingly, participants were senior-level employees at 15 banks. These participants worked in different departments (e.g., clearing, risk management, sales and marketing, loans and credit). Those employees were chosen based upon convenience sampling. This sampling method is considered suitable for exploratory studies as there are no intention to achieve generalization or representativeness (Cohen et al., 2017). This study is exploratory as it aims to explore the relationship between organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour through how employees perceive political behaviour within organisations. Subsequently, convenience sampling was recognized to be proper for this purpose of this study. The research team contacted the Human Resources department at each bank to obtain a list of employee contacts. We sent an email with a URL survey link to a total of 720 employees, attaching a letter that assured confidentiality. The HR department in each bank also sent an email to encourage employees to respond to the survey. Data was collected in the period between October 2019 and December 2019. The survey was comprised of three parts (see Appendix for details). The first part addressed organisational culture, the second addressed perceived organisational politics (POP), and the final part addressed organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

The response rate was 76% (543 respondents). Of these responses, 532 were usable for further analysis. The respondents' average age was 31.4 years. Of the 532 usable responses, 62% came from male employees. The organisational tenure of the respondents was 4.4 years on average. In terms of educational level, 79% held a Bachelor's degree, 15% held a Master's degree, and 6% held a PhD.

4.2 Measures

The questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic and back-translated to English. Hence translation and back-translation were undertaken (Brislin, 1980). The present study used a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5.

4.2.1 Organisational Culture

In terms of organisational culture, we used measures suggested by Hofstede (2001). For this construct, 16 items were used with four different subscales: 1) Power distance ($\alpha = 0.91$), 2) uncertainty avoidance ($\alpha = 0.94$), 3) collectivism ($\alpha = 0.93$), and 4) masculinity vs. femininity ($\alpha = 0.92$). The reliability of the 18 items was 0.81. Examples of the items were: 'My manager makes most decisions without consulting subordinates', 'I would be willing to consider taking a new and comparable job if it were offered today or tomorrow', and 'I would not get the proper opportunity if I left my current organisation'.

4.2.2 Organisational Politics (OP)

The present study has adopted a shorter version of the scale created by Kacmar and Ferris (1991) and further developed by Kacmar and Carlson (1997). This scale has five items that measure the perception of employees towards OP. Examples of the items include: 'Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead around here' and 'There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them.' The reliability coefficient was 0.90.

4.2.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

We used eight items to measure OCB with a scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002). Examples of the items are: 'Attends functions that are not required but that help the organisational image' 'Helps others who have been absent' and 'Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)'. The reliability for this scale was 0.88.

5 Data Analysis

A two-step approach was employed to analyse the data: 1) a measurement model to ensure the validity of the research instrument, and 2) a structural path analysis.

5.1 Measurement Model

Two validity tests were conducted to evaluate the measurement model in terms of 1) convergent validity and 2) discriminant validity.

5.1.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is usually established by assessing the loadings of the measurements used, the composite reliability, and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2013). As indicated in Table 1, the loadings of each construct's items were all above 0.708, the composite reliability of all constructs exceeded 0.7, and the AVE values of all constructs were higher than the recommended coefficient of 0.5. The cross-loading of all construct indicators was evaluated. Table 1 shows that the loadings of each construct's indicators were substantially higher than their cross-loadings with other constructs, confirming the discriminant validity of the dataset (as per Wang et al., 2015). Additionally, the internal consistency of all constructs was measured using Cronbach's Alpha (α). As demonstrated in Table 1, Cronbach's Alpha for all constructs was above 0.7, showing that the constructs are internally consistent.

5.1.2 Discriminant Validity

Fornell-Larcker's (1981) criterion was used to assess discriminant validity. To confirm discriminant validity, the squared root of the AVE value for each construct must be higher than the construct's correlations with other constructs. As can be seen in Table 2, the square root of the AVE value for each construct is significantly higher than the construct's correlation with any other construct, indicating discriminant validity.

Table 1: Convergent Validity "Cross Loading"

| Construct | CR | AVE | Item | Cross-loading Construct | | | | | |
				COL	MAS	OCB	POP	POW	UA
Power Distance (POW)	0.94	0.80	POW1	**0.90**	0.36	0.34	0.55	-0.03	0.39
			POW2	**0.91**	0.32	0.43	0.56	0.07	0.39
			POW3	**0.88**	0.29	0.32	0.53	0.17	0.41
			POW4	**0.88**	0.28	0.30	0.56	0.16	0.43
Masculinity (MAS)	0.96	0.88	MAS1	0.34	**0.90**	0.29	0.40	0.17	0.34
			MAS2	0.32	**0.97**	0.31	0.40	0.16	0.39
			MAS3	0.38	**0.92**	0.34	0.44	0.21	0.38
			MAS4	0.29	**0.95**	0.32	0.39	0.18	0.41
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	0.92	0.60	OCB1	0.45	0.25	**0.81**	0.45	0.06	0.37
			OCB2	0.42	0.25	**0.83**	0.44	0.09	0.4
			OCB3	0.28	0.28	**0.79**	0.35	0.07	0.21
			OCB4	0.3	0.23	**0.73**	0.28	0.07	0.29
			OCB5	0.24	0.27	**0.76**	0.26	0.1	0.31
			OCB6	0.20	0.32	**0.74**	0.27	0.1	0.21
			OCB7	0.23	0.21	**0.76**	0.27	0.12	0.3
			OCB8	0.24	0.29	**0.77**	0.31	0.12	0.22
Organisational Politics (OP)	0.94	0.78	OP1	0.48	0.37	0.42	**0.87**	0.11	0.58
			OP2	0.55	0.35	0.40	**0.87**	0.15	0.61
			OP3	0.57	0.39	0.37	**0.92**	0.04	0.54
			OP4	0.51	0.37	0.42	**0.87**	0.01	0.46
			OP5	0.65	0.43	0.36	**0.87**	-0.04	0.49

Table 1: Convergent Validity "Cross Loading" (continues)

Collectivism (COL)	**0.97**	**0.90**	COL1	0.09	0.19	0.08	0.06	**0.96**	0.28
			COL2	0.09	0.14	0.11	0.04	**0.94**	0.26
			COL3	0.11	0.17	0.09	0.06	**0.95**	0.3
			COL4	0.1	0.20	0.14	0.06	**0.95**	0.25
Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)	**0.95**	**0.84**	UA1	0.41	0.39	0.38	0.55	0.37	**0.93**
			UA2	0.39	0.37	0.39	0.53	0.31	**0.95**
			UA3	0.46	0.33	0.29	0.604	0.08	**0.88**
			UA4	0.38	0.37	0.34	0.51	0.31	**0.91**

CR: Composite Reliability, AVE: Average Variance Extracted
* Questionnaire items are presented in the Appendix

Table 2: Discriminant Validity

Construct	AVE	Correlation (*square root of AVE for each construct)					
		MAS	POW	OCB	POP	COL	UA
MAS	0.88	**0.93***					
POW	0.80	0.36	**0.89***				
OCB	0.60	0.34	0.40	**0.77***			
POP	0.78	0.44	0.62	-0.46	**0.88***		
COL	0.90	0.19	0.10	0.11	-0.06	**0.94***	
UA	0.84	0.40	0.45	0.38	0.61	0.29	**0.91***

5.2 Structural Model

This stage was performed using the SmartPlus3 software package. Before proceeding to examine the proposed paths, the fit indices of the research model were examined. Three indices were used to measure goodness of fit, including the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), and the exact model fit (bootstrapped based on statistical inference). The results indicate that the values of NFI = 0.9422 (> 0.9) ̦ SRMR = 0.037 (< 0.08) and the dULS < bootstrapped HI 95% of dULS and dG < bootstrapped HI 95% of dG. These results are all within the values recommended by Ramayah et al. (2017). It can be concluded that the data fits the research model. As demonstrated in Figure 1, the four dimensions of organisational culture explained 55% (R^2 = 0.55) of the variance in perceived organisational politics (OP). Additionally, OP explained 20.1% (R^2 = 0.201) of the variance in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). In terms of the path analysis, power distance (POW) had the strongest significant positive effect on OP (β = 0.399, t = 30.7),

while masculinity (MAS) had the weakest significant positive effect on OP (β = 0.159, t = 12). Uncertainty avoidance (UA) had a significant positive effect on OP (β = 0.396, t = 26.3). The only significant negative effect on OP came from collectivism (COL) (β = - 0.123, t = 13). Finally, POP had a significant negative effect on the organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (β = - 0.448, t = 42.1).

5.3 Mediation Analysis

A Sobel (1982) test was performed to examine whether POP mediates the relationship between organisational culture dimensions and OCB. As shown in Table 3, the findings of the Sobel test indicate that all effects of organisational culture dimensions on OCB are mediated by POP. In other words, POP carries the effects of the organisational culture dimensions on OCB to a significant degree.
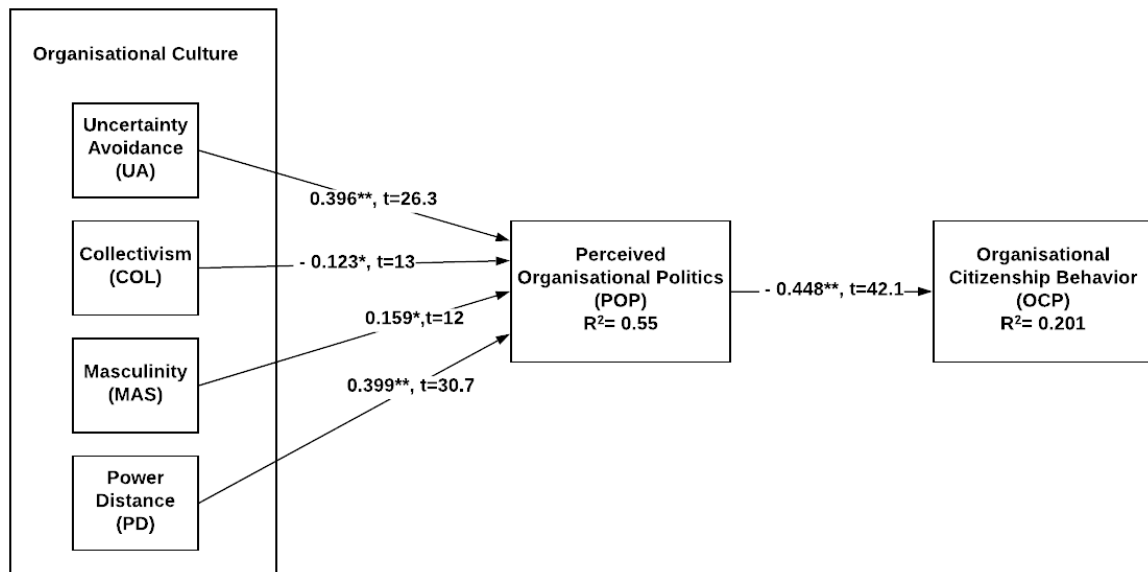
Figure 1: Structural Model (Path Analysis)

Table 3: Mediation Test

Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	t-statistic	P-value
UA	POP	OCB	5.7	<0.0001
COL	POP	OCB	4.4	<0.0001
MAS	POP	OCB	4.9	<0.0001
PD	POP	OCB	5.3	<0.0001

6   Discussion

6.1   Theoretical implications

This study contributes to existing research on how organization politics leads employees to have lower OCB (Khan et al., 2019). It examines how organisational culture affects organisational citizenship through perceived organisational politics, given that previous studies regarding organisational culture and OCB have shown inconsistent and unsatisfying results (Hsiung et al., 2012). Three major hypotheses were formulated to examine the relationship among variables. All of the hypotheses were supported by the results of the structural modelling, as shown above, which provides more validation and expands the scope of research on this topic.

In contrast with the organisational culture relationships investigated in previous studies (Watkin et al., 2014; Elbana, 2016), the present study considered OP as a mediator variable, answering calls for this in previous research (e.g.

Taylor, 2013). In the current study, we provide a mediating model based on OP and link these dimensions together for the first time.

As shown in Figure 1, the findings demonstrate a positive relationship between Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions and OP. Of these dimensions, power distance had the strongest effect on OP, consistent with the results of previous studies (Elbana, 2016). Uncertainty avoidance also demonstrated a positive effect on OP, consistent with the results of Slawinski et al. (2019). Masculinity had the weakest effect on OP, supporting the result in Hofstede Insight (2020) that Jordanian society tends to be more feminine. Collectivism had a negative relationship with OP, which can be explained by the tendency of employees in Jordan to encourage relationships in which every individual in a group takes responsibility for their colleagues (Hofstede Insight, 2020). In sum, the study found that organisational culture does have an impact on OP. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, this is the first time that the relationship has been examined in Jordan, providing insight into these phenomena within a new cultural context.

As shown in Figure 1, POP has a negative effect on OCB. This finding is consistent with previous studies (e.g. Abbas et al., 2014; Malik et al., 2019). This provides further validation of the findings, responding to calls to examine this relationship in different contexts, with a larger sample size, and a research design that covers more than one organisation (De Clerq et al., 2017). This finding gives an indication of the damaging impact of POP on favourable work outcomes in terms of OCB within organisations.

Finally, previous studies have shown inconsistency in terms of how organisational culture can impact OCB (Hsiung et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2017). The present study gives us increased insight into the relationship between organisational culture and OCB and forms a foundation for potential future research. This study could be replicated in organisations in neighbouring Arab countries in an attempt to find out more about how values might differ from one culture to another.

6.2 Practical implications

This study has important implications for our understanding of how employees behave within a certain cultural setting, making it useful in a work context. Understanding employee behaviour in terms of cultural dimensions may provide more guidance on how to encourage certain behaviours on the part of employees, for example by using more appropriate and effective policies and strategies. The cultural dimensions we examined had important implications for organisations to consider when managing employees in Jordan. For example, the dimensions of uncertainty avoidance and power distance were found to be of greater importance than the others in terms of how Jordanian employees perceive OP. Managers need to be aware of how to direct their strategies to improve the behaviour of their employees and enhance effectiveness in general (Pohl et al., 2019). The results of the study showed a negative relationship between POP and OCB. Consequently, management within an organisation should pay attention to the destructive effect that OP has on employees and attempt to reduce such behaviour within organisations.

6.3 Limitations

There are several limitations to this research. First of all, the present study is a cross-sectional study, which weakens the evidence of any relationship between the variables considered in the study. Therefore, we suggest that future research use a longitudinal design in order to capture the whole picture of such relationships. Furthermore, we have targeted a particular Jordanian industry, limiting the study to Jordanian employees in the banking sector. These employees are from the same area (Amman) and share similar circumstances and a similar work culture.

This means that the generalisability of the findings may be limited. Therefore, further research is recommended in a different industry. It would also be beneficial to conduct more research using the same variables in a neighbouring country to provide more validation for the model. Finally, further research is suggested using dependent variables other than organisational citizenship behaviour (e.g. employee creativity).

7 Conclusion

The key question in the present study was as follows: do cultural dimensions make an essential contribution to OCB through affecting POP? In answering this question, the study has responded to calls to examine the relationship between POP and OCB in different contexts, as well as to consider POP as a mediating variable. The relationships associated with organisational culture were tested, with four dimensions examined to find out more about the impact of organisational culture on the way in which employees perceive organisational politics. The results showed that some dimensions, such as uncertainty avoidance and power distance, had a stronger effect on how employees perceive organisational polities than other dimensions. Collectivism demonstrated a negative relationship with OP, as people in Jordan tend to work in groups and take responsibilities for their colleagues in the workplace. This helps us to determine which factors really matter when it comes to dealing with organisational politics.

The study examined how perceived organisational politics can mediate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour, with OP found to have a negative effect on OCB. This paper provides further insight into the dark side of organisational politics, calling upon future researchers to investigate the destructive effect of OP on other contextual variables.

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Organizacijska kultura in obnašanje v dobrobit organizacija: temna stran organizacijske politike

Ozadje in namen: Organizacijska politika lahko bistveno negativno vpliva na uspešnost zaposlenih, vendar številne organizacije še vedno niso pozorne na to možnost organizacijskega vedenja. V naši študiji želimo raziskati razmerje med organizacijsko kulturo in obnašanjem v dobrobit organizacije upoštevajoč, kako zaposleni dojemajo politično vedenje v organizacijah.

Metode: Uporabljena je bila tehnika enostavnega vzorčenja, kvantitativni podatki so bili zbrani od 532 zaposlenih v jordanski bančni industriji s pomočjo spletnih anket. Za preizkušanje hipotez študije smo uporabili modeliranje strukturnih enačb (SEM).

Rezultati: Organizacijska kultura v bančništvu vpliva na to, kako zaposleni dojemajo politično vedenje. Negativno dojemanje političnega vedenja zaposlenih pa negativno vpliva na vedenje zaposlenih v dobrobit organizacije. Naše ugotovitve so odgovor na zaključke in predloge drugih raziskav, ki pozivajo, da se bolje prouči škodljive vplive organizacijske politike na rezultate zaposlenih.

Zaključek: Organizacije bi morale biti bolj pozorne na škodljive učinke organizacijske politike in poskušati takšno vedenje čim bolj zmanjšati. V nasprotju s tem, vedenje v dobrobit organizaciji koristi organizacijski uspešnosti, zato ga je treba izboljšati z izvajanjem učinkovitejših politik in strategij.

Ključne besede: Organizacijska kultura; Zaznana organizacijska politika; Obnašanje v dobrobit organizacije.

Appendix: List of Measurement Items

Organizational Culture
1-   POW: Power Distance
POW1: My manager makes most decisions without consulting subordinates.
POW2: My manager uses authority and power when dealing with subordinates
POW3: My Manager rarely ask for the opinions of employees.
POW4: I should not disagree with management decisions.

2- UA: Uncertainty Avoidance
UN1: It is important for me to have job requirements and instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I am expected to do.
UN2: I am willing to consider taking a new and comparable job if it is offered today or tomorrow.
UN3: Rules and regularities are important because they inform me about what the organization expects of me.
UN4: I would not get the proper opportunity, if I left my current organization.

3- MAS: Masculinity
MAS1: Meetings are usually run more effectively when they are chaired by a man.
MAS2: It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women to have a professional career.
MAS3: Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.
MAS4: Solving organizational problems usually requires an active, forcible approach which is typical of men.

4- COL: Collectivism
COL1: Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.
COL2: Group success is more important than individual success.
COL3: Being accepted by the members of your workgroup is very important.
COL4: I pursue my goals after considering the welfare of the group.

Organisational Politics
OP1: People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.
OP2: Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead around here.
OP3: There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them.
OP4: - Good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with superiors.
OP5: Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization.

Organisational Citizenship Behavior
OCB1: - I help others who have been absent.
OCB2: I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.
OCB3: I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
OCB4: I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
OCB5: I Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
OCB6: Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
OCB7: I assist others with their duties.
OCB8: Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.

Job Burnout and Counterproductive Work Behaviour of the Jordanian Bank Employees

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Background/Purpose: This study investigated the relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) among 307 employees drawn from various banks within Jordan. This study also examined the levels of job burnout and CWB with regard to gender, age, marital status, and education.

Methodology: For data collection, the convenience sampling method is utilized to survey frontline bank employees. The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory scale, which assesses exhaustion, disengagement, and the CWB scale from the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ), were used for data collection. The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science 25.0.

Results: The study results suggest that there is a significant positive relationship between job burnout two dimensions and CWB. The research also shows that age, education, and marital status affect both job burnout and CWB. Nevertheless, gender was found to have a significant effect only on the disengagement dimension of job burnout. Further, the study implies that exhaustion and disengagement are vital predictors influencing CWB.

Conclusion: With regard to the results, the phenomena of job burnout provide the means that can provoke deviant behavior in the workplace.

Keywords: Job burnout, Exhaustion, Counterproductive work behavior, Bank employees, OLBI

1 Introduction

Banking industries have undergone a number of dramatic changes in management and structure over the last few years, such as introducing new technology and methods of structuring the process, which affected the working conditions and the employees' daily lives. The financial industry now is more customer-oriented, offering convenience, quality of service, and creative service. Bank workers perform an essential role in providing high service quality. These advancements generate a great deal of stress for those who work in the banking sector (Giorgi et al., 2017). The banking sector jobs have been highly valued out from a social, financial, and economic viewpoint. In recent years, nonetheless, this situation has changed drastically for many reasons; for example, the size of these financial institutions has shrunk, resulting in massive layoffs, increased pressure, increased demand and competition in daily work, or consumer hostility towards employees who are blamed for selling financial products that lead to large losses (Amigo et al., 2014). These changes created an environment of sensitivity among the bank's staff, which sharpened their work context, and individually reinforced the tendency to feel overwhelmed, and thus, counterproductive work behavior.

Originally, job burnout was conceived as being primarily related to professions of the human service (e.g., physicians, nurses, and teachers), as they are presumed to be most vulnerable to emotional stimuli because their roles require a great deal of interaction with people. Nevertheless, more recent research has shown that job burnout

is not constrained undecidedly to these occupations but also expanded to other professions (e.g., managers, bank employees, and HR workers) (Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach, 2006; Prusik & Szulawski, 2019).

Job burnout is described here as a consequence of constant exposure to work-related stress caused by high job requirements and insufficient job resources and consists of two fundamental dimensions exhaustion and disengagement from work (Demerouti et al., 2014). Exhaustion is described as a response to the intense physical, affective, and cognitive strain due to increased exposure to specific demands at work. Disengagement involves distancing oneself from work and developing a negative attitude regarding the work context due to the inadequacy in the job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job burnout has been associated with various adverse individual and organizational outcomes. For instance, burnout employees have a higher intention to leave their jobs (Maslach et al., 2001; Vaamonde et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2020), absenteeism (Dyrbye et al., 2019; Lubbadeh, 2020), job attitudes (Laschinger & Fida, 2014), lower task and contextual job performance (Bakker et al., 2004; Demerouti et al., 2014), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Ugwu et al., 2017; Makhdoom et al., 2019). Job burnout dimensions were also linked with numerous health and mental problems such as headaches, cardiovascular problems, insomnia, and depression (Armon, 2009; Leiter et al., 2013).

Accordingly, job burnout may influence the organizational outcomes negatively by counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) - refers to "voluntary behavior that harms the well-being of the organization." (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69). Damaging an organization's property, withdrawal, gossiping, complaining, insulting others, harassing behaviors, and theft are examples of CWB. These behaviors are damaging to the organization either by impacting its activity or assets directly or negatively influencing the employees in ways that decrease their efficacy. Counterproductive work behaviors have substantial financial consequences for the organizations; according to Bennett and Robinson (2000), 33% to 75% of all U.S. employees have been involved in different forms of Workplace deviance behaviors. Additionally, the predicted cost of CWB for organizations exceeds $1 trillion distributed on deviation behaviors such as theft, violence in the workplace, and fraudulent activities (Banks et al., 2012; Smoktunowicz et al., 2015). CWB is not only costly for the organizations, but further has various adverse outcomes for employees. For example, employees who are a victim of CWB (e.g., bullying and harassment) can lead to reduced job satisfaction, prolonged stress, and quitting intentions, among others (Berry et al., 2012). Considering such high costs, both for organizations and workers, it is crucial for company leaders to consider and anticipate who is most likely to participate in such behavior (Cohen, 2016).

In light of this, the main objectives of the present study are to investigate the relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) among bank employees by analyzing their opinions. The research also explored several determinants, such as gender, age, marital status, and education, and their influences on the relationship between job burnout and CWB. This study presents research contributions in various fundamental ways. First, this investigation continues previous research on the relationship between job burnout and CWB. Second, despite the presence of vast literature on job burnout and CWB, these relationships have not been examined much in the banking sector. Therefore, examining these relationships may increase managerial awareness of the causes of job burnout, CWB, and its negative impact on organizations and individuals, as well as to advance prevention and protection strategies. Third, in the study, job burnout and CWB were studied in the Jordanian setting, which is rarely examined. It is necessary to investigate job burnout and CWB in different contexts to see whether the indicators of this behavior act in other societies differently. Finally, the current study by examining job burnout and its relationship to the CWB of the front office officers in Jordan's banking sector contributes to the field of HRM.

The rest of the article is displayed as follows. Chapter 2 outlines the literature review, whereas Chapter 3 describes the research hypothesis. In Chapter 4, the study methodology is specified, while Chapter 5 displays the study results—finally, Chapter 6 closing the paper with a Conclusion, contribution, and possible future research studies.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical overview

CWB is an essential subject to study because it carries negative implications and consequences for organizations and employees themselves (Banks et al., 2012). For example, deviant work behaviors destabilize the organization's internal performance and create high costs due to lost productivity. These behaviors may also directly affect employee performance evaluation and career development (De Clercq et al., 2019). CWB is composed of intentional behavior displayed by employees intended to harm organizations and their stakeholders (e.g., customers, co-workers, and supervisors) (Spector & Fox, 2005). Sackett and DeVore (2002) describe CWB as deliberate behavior by an organization member, which the organization deems to be contrary to its legitimate interests. CWB has been abstracted in several ways, such as aggression (Spector et al., 2006) and workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Deviance is a distinct form of CWB; Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined it as "voluntary behavior that vi-

olates significant organizational norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both."(p 556). Bennett and Robinson (2000) distinguished between two types of deviance, organizational deviance directed at the organization (e.g., withholding effort) while the other interpersonal deviance is directed at individuals working in the organization (e.g., behaving indecently toward co-workers).

The stressor-emotion model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) may be used to illustrate the process that contributes to CWB. The model suggests that stressful work conditions may provoke the employees' negative feelings and their perception of limited control over the situation, which in turn contributes to CWB. According to their model, CWB reflects the employees' responses to a stressful work environment as a way to deal with the impediment arising from work. In support of this line of thinking, using the bank employees as a case (Cruz-Santiago et al., 2020) affirmed that employees working in the banking sector experience stress, overburdened, work routine, and disappointment with their work creating emotional, and physical strain which can lead to job burnout. In fact, there is much literature indicating how stressful and challenging is that working in the banking sector can be. For example, working in the banking sector has the distinction of being one of the most challenging and demanding business environments, with excessive work-load, ambiguity, unattainable job resources, and constant contact with clients (Giorgi et al., 2017; Rehman et al., 2015; Socorro et al., 2016). These make the banking sector workers more susceptible to job burnout's adverse influence and, by extension, CWB.

The Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al., 2001) can illustrate how job burnout can lead to CWB. The (JD-R) model assumes that job characteristics can be classified into two classes (job demands and job resources) associated with job burnout dimensions exhaustion and disengagement. Job demands refer to work factors such as (physical work-load, time pressure, and recipient interaction) that require constant energy from the employee; hence, if the job demands are remarkably high or inadequately designed could point to the exhaustion dimension. Conversely, job resources associate with factors such as (rewards, safety at work, career opportunities, and support), which are required to deal with job demands, the absence of job resources could point to job burnout's disengagement dimension (Demerouti et al., 2001, 2005). Based on the JD-R model, we reason that high job requirements accompanied by a scarcity of work resources can strengthen the employees' exhaustion and disengagement, which produces the necessary levels of fatigue and withdrawal for CWB to develop.

2.2 Job Burnout and CWB

The intriguing relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been explored in various occupational groups, and different explanations for the relationship were advanced. For example, Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2006) found that emotionally exhausted employees become less satisfied with their jobs and become less devoted to the organization, which leads to deviant behaviors. However, the researchers only investigated the relationship between emotional exhaustion and workplace deviance. In comparison, Liang and Hsieh (2007) investigated the relationship between job burnout and workplace deviance behavior (as part of the work performance) of 303 Taiwanese flight attendants. The authors hypothesized a positive relationship between the job burnout dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment) and workplace deviance. The study found that only job burnout dimensions depersonalization was a significant predictor of deviant behavior in the workplace. That being said, the researchers observed no meaningful relationship between the other two dimensions of job burnout and the employees' deviant behavior. The authors argued that a lack of emotional resources and high emotional demands at work could lead to emotional exhaustion then depersonalization, which may lead to deviant behavior in the workplace. In a comparable study that examined the relationship between job burnout and CWB (Bolton et al., 2011) found that employees who reported being depersonalized were more prone to display CWB. However, they explained that exhausting the employee's emotional resources could lead to an increase in his sense of depersonalization, which in turn leads to an increased probability of the employee to participate in behaviors that harm the organization.

Banks et al. (2012) explore the relationship between emotional exhaustion and CWB targeted at the individual (CWB-I) and the organization (CWB-O) among a sample of bank employees working in South Korea. The study reported a significant positive relationship between emotional exhaustion and CWB through a decline in the employees' commitment toward the organization. The authors note that employees' attitudes and expectations directly impact their behaviors rather than job stressors and personal strains. Employees become emotionally exhausted, their exchange with the organization becomes less favorable, and they are more likely to lower their overall levels of commitment, which can increase CWB. Moreover, Uchenna (2013) examined the significance of perceived organizational support, job burnout, and age on counterproductive work activity between employees employed in the hospitality and healthcare sectors. The study found that there was a significant negative relationship between perceived organizational support and CWB. The study

also conveyed that employees who reported job burnout demonstrated a higher tendency to participate in counter-productive work behavior than employees who did not report job burnout. The study as well found that age has no significant influence on displaying CWB between employees. The results indicate that employees were more willing to display harmful behaviors if they realized that the support they received from the organization was limited. In contrast, when the employees perceive that the organization's support is favorable and discretionary, they were less prone to engage in CWBs (Uchenna, 2013).

In their study, Smoktunowicz et al. (2015) examined the relationship between job burnout two dimensions (exhaustion and disengagement) and CWB among 607 police officers using the job demands, control, support model, and the conservation of resources model (COR). The study found that job burnout moderates the relationship between job demands and CWB. However, they explained that the relationship between job burnout and deviant behavior might be based on the chain reactions from job demands to CWBs. High job demands in the workplace may limit the employees' job resources and lead to exhaustion and disengagement from work. In response, the employees may channel their work hours to CWBs rather than behaviors that follow the organization's interest in maintaining their resources.

With respect to healthcare professionals, Ugwu et al. (2017) investigated the relationship between job burnout and CWB among 401 nurses working in several hospitals in Nigeria. The uniqueness of this study is that it found a relationship between the three job burnout dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) and counterproductive work behavior. The authors concluded that stressful work environments with long hours of work could deplete nurses' emotional resources and lead them to experience disconnection from their work and patients, thus increasing CWB opportunities. In their research, Shkoler and Tziner (2017) found in a sample drawing from different sectors that burning out employees engage in more misbehavior (WMBs) as coping mechanisms for developing a sense of emotional stability subjugating negative feelings at work. More recently, Lebrón et al. (2018) found that employees who described being emotionally exhausted were more likely to display organizational deviance behavior. According to the authors, emotionally depleted employees may think that they do not receive adequate compensation for their work. As a consequence, they may try to rectify the situation by engaging in organizational deviations.

In a related study that investigated the relationship between job burnout and different forms of CWB (withdrawal, abuse, and sabotage), Makhdoom, Atta, and Malik (2019) found that reduced personal accomplishment and depersonalization significantly predict withdrawal and

sabotage. However, the researchers found that emotional exhaustion was not a significant predictor of sabotage and withdrawal. The researcher justifies these results based on the suggestion of Maslach et al. (2001) that emotional exhaustion is more related to the social conflict that might result in abuse instead of the lack of resources that might result in sabotaging the organization's assets.

The majority of the previous studies that investigated the relationship between job burnout and CWB focused on different occupations. Nevertheless, studies among bank employees are limited in general and, expressly, in the Jordanian context.

Job burnout and CWB dramatically influence the type of work in which the employee is involved. The relationship between job burnout and CWB is substantial. Overall, job burnout can lead to a higher tendency by the employees to engage in CWBs.

3 Research hypotheses

According to the hypothetical ground, the following research hypotheses were formulated. Hypothesis H1 was formed according to the Job Demand Resources Framework (JD-R) (Demerouti et al., 2001), in which high job requirements followed by lack of labor resources can lead to intense employees' exhaustion and disengagement from work, which could create the necessary environment for CWB to develop.

• H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behavior among Jordanian bank employees.

Hypotheses H2, H3, H4, H5 were formed based on the findings of Amigo et al. (2014), who stated that age and gender are essential influencer factors in job burnout and the results of Tarcan et al. (2017) who affirmed that education, marital status, and occupation affect job burnout. The results of Cruz-Santiago et al. (2020) showed that gender affects job burnout. According to Bolton et al. (2011), gender and age are significant factors regarding CWB. Ugwu et al. (2017) summarized that gender and age are influencing predictors of CWB. The findings of De Clercq et al. (2019) who reported that female employees are less likely to engage in CWB than their male counterparts.

• H2: There will be a statistically significant influence of gender on job burnout and CWB.
• H3: There will be a statistically significant influence of age on job burnout and CWB.
• H4: There will be a statistically significant influence of marital status on job burnout and CWB.
• H5: There will be a statistically significant influence of education on job burnout and CWB.

4 Methodology

4.1 Participants and Procedures

Participants in the study consisted of frontline bank employees working in different commercial banks operating in Jordan. Participants were confined to front office employees of the banks that interact instantly with customers in their jobs. Therefore, the sample includes employees who were in the front office, in charge of customer services, sales, and money exchange services (tellers). Banks were chosen based on two criteria, the first of which is the number of employees (more than 100 employees); accordingly, 17 banks were targeted in the Kingdom of Jordan. The second criterion was the bank's approval of distributing the questionnaire among the employees; thus, seven of the 17 banks agreed to participate in the field survey. This study used a convenience sampling technique to collect the data. Therefore, the final sample for the data analysis featured 307 bank employees (n=307).

Participants in the study were invited through bank representatives or by e-mail, or by visiting different bank branches. The data have been finalized without missing data incidence. A link to an online survey was provided to the prospective study participants in several commercial banks operating in Jordan (including Jordanian and foreign commercial banks).

The survey consisted of the demographics (gender, age, gender, age, marital status, and educational levels), job burnout, and CWB (IWQP). Bank employees expressed their consent to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire. The research was voluntary, and participants were not offered compensations. Data were collected as part of an ongoing Ph.D. dissertation at the University of Pécs. The data were collected during the emergency state in Jordan related to (COVID-19) and took around three weeks from the beginning of May until the beginning of June 2020.

The study sample was approximately equal concerning gender 157 (51.1%) of whom were male, and 150 (48.3%) of whom were female, while 131 (42.7%) were single, 145 (47.2%) were married, and only 31 (10.1%) were divorced. The minimum working experience in the current bank was 1, with a maximum of 25 years (M=6.5, SD=4.8). All of the participants in the study were well educated; 14 (4.6%) of the respondents are holding a diploma degree, 204 (66.4%) with a bachelor's degree, and 75 (24.4%) of the participants holding a master's degree. Additionally, there were 14 (4.6%) employees with a Ph.D. Concerning the age groups, 184 (59.9%) of the participants were in the age group 20-34 (young), 96 (31.3%) were in the age group 35-49 (middle-aged), and 27 (8.8%) were aging (50 and older).

4.2 Measures

In order to assess job burnout and counterproductive work behavior, pre-existing, and validated measures were used. The survey also comprised questions about demographics (gender, age, marital status, and educational levels).

Job burnout was assessed using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) English version (Demerouti et al., 2003, 2010). The instrument consists of two subscales, exhaustion and disengagement; each subscale consists of four questions worded positively and four questions worded negatively. Exhaustion was measured with eight items (e.g., after working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities), reversed items (e.g., There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work). Disengagement was measured with eight items (e.g., I find my work to be a positive challenge), reversed items (e.g., Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically). Response to the 16 items instrument is provided using a four-point scale, ranging from 1 to 4 (Strongly agree to strongly disagree).

The construct convergent validity of the (OLBI) has been confirmed in previous validation studies in various countries and professions (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005; Al-Asadi et al., 2018). These investigations certainly proved that the structure of two factors (exhaustion and disengagement) as the underlying factors fits better with different occupational groups' data than alternative factor structures. The variables' internal consistencies were satisfactory for exhaustion (Cronbach's alpha =0.731) and disengagement (Cronbach's alpha =0.730). For computing the average score for each of the two subscales, the negative items were reversed when necessary so that the higher score indicates more exhaustion or disengagement. In further analysis, we used the average scores.

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB)- was measured via a five-item scale developed by (Koopmans, 2015; Koopmans et al., 2016) (The Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWQP)) English version. The five-item scale measures counterproductive work behavior aimed at the personal and the organizational levels (e.g., I focused on the negative aspects of situation at work instead of the positive aspects). The scale had a recall period of 3 months, and participants answered each item on a five-point scale (0 = never, 1= seldom, 2=sometimes, 3= quite often, 4= often). The construct validity and reliability of the (IWQP) were also established in earlier validation studies in various countries and professions (Koopmans et al., 2016; Jakada et al., 2020). The internal consistency of the CWB was excellent (Cronbach's alpha =0.85). The means of the counterproductive work behavior scale can be calculated by summing the scores on the scale items and dividing the total by the number of items in the scale,

higher scores indicating higher counterproductive work behavior (Koopmans, 2015). We used the average scores of the scale in the analysis. The scale items for all variables are presented in the Appendix.

4.3 Data analysis

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (IBM-SPSS) version 25.0. The data obtained from the questionnaires were first transformed to excel and codded, then transformed into the SPSS program; significance tests of the difference between the means of the groups and the necessary descriptive statistics were performed to verify alignment with the study's aims. Additionally, the Pearson correlation (r) test was used to ascertain the correlation between studied constructs. The parametric t-test was used to test hypothesis H2 regarding the influence of gender on job burnout and CWB levels. The parametric one-way ANOVA and the Bonferroni post hoc test was used to test hypothesis H3 – H5 about the influence of age, marital status, and education on job burnout and CWB levels. A hierarchal regression (with gender, age, marital status, and education entered as control varia-

bles) was used to test hypothesis H1 about the relationship between job burnout and CWB.

5 Results

A preliminary examination was carried to assure no violation of the assumption of normality; the study variables were normally distributed according to the examination of histograms and Skewness and kurtosis values falling within the acceptable range of ±1.0. Also, no potential multivariate outliers were identified based on the analysis of the Mahalanobis distances.

Table 1 presents a summary of descriptive statistics for the variables and their correlations. The level of exhaustion was (2.60), disengagement (2.62), and counterproductive work behavior (1.97) across the sample. All constructs were positively intercorrelated (job burnout and CWB). It is observed that there a significant positive correlation between the two dimensions of job burnout. The two job burnout dimensions: exhaustion and disengagement, were significantly and positively correlated with the bank employees' counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Table 1: The Summary of Descriptive Statistics & Correlations, N=307

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
1. Exhaustion	2.60	0.52	1		
2. Disengagement	2.62	0.57	0.731**	1	
3. CWB	1.97	1.01	0.473**	0.456**	1

Note: N=307, ** p < 0.01 (two-tailed)

Table 2: Job burnout and counterproductive work behavior according to gender

Job burnout and CWB	Gender	n	M	SD	t	p
Exhaustion	Male	157	2.54	0.49	-1.937	0.54
	Female	150	2.66	0.58		
Disengagement	Male	157	2.55	0.50	-2.043	0.043*
	Female	150	2.68	0.60		
CWB	Male	157	1.978	0.91	0.020	0.984
	Female	150	1.976	1.09		

Note: N=307. Gender was coded 0=male, 1=female. *p <0.05 (two-tailed).

Table 2 shows the comparison of job burnout and counterproductive work behavior based on gender. The disengagement dimension of job burnout had a significant difference between males and females employees. In terms of disengagement, the average burnout scores for female bank workers were more prominent than those of their male peers. Moreover, the average score of females was higher than their male peers in counterproductive behavior. However, gender differences in counterproductive behavior scores were not statistically significant. Therefore, we concluded that while gender influences burnout levels, it does not substantially influence counterproductive work behavior levels. Based on the results, H2: There will be a statistically significant influence of gender on job burnout, and CWB can only be partially confirmed.

Table 3 presents the comparison of job burnout and counterproductive work behavior by age. Although exhaustion dimension scores differ significantly depending on age, in contrast, disengagement scores were not significantly affected by age. The exhaustion score among the aging group was higher than the score for the young and middle-aged groups. We also note that the exhaustion scores increases with the increase in the age group. Similarly to the Exhaustion score results, the counterproductive work behavior scores were statistically significant, and the CWB scores among the aging group were higher than the score of the other two groups. The post hoc test indicates, the aging group (50 years and older) showed higher exhaustion than the young age and the middle age groups. Concerning CWB, the aging group showed higher CWB than the young and the middle age groups. We have accordingly reasoned that age is an essential factor that influenced both exhaustion and CWB. Based on the results, the hypothesis H3: that there will be a statistically significant influence of age on job burnout and CWB, can only be partially confirmed.

Table 3: Job burnout and counterproductive work behavior based on age

Job burnout and CWB	Age	n	Mean	SD	F	p
Exhaustion	20-34 years	184	2.55	0.51	4.412	0.013*
	35-49 years	96	2.60	0.51		
	50 years and older	27	2.88	0.60		
Disengagement	20-34 years	184	2.57	0.56	2.854	0.059
	35-49 years	96	2.65	0.56		
	50 years and older	27	2.83	0.65		
CWB	20-34 years	184	1.93	1.04	6.712	0.001*
	35-49 years	96	1.88	0.89		
	50 years and older	27	1.97	1.08		

Note: Age was coded 0= 20-34 years, 1=35-49 years, 2= 50 years and older. *p <0.05

Table 4: Job burnout and counterproductive work behavior based on marital status

Job burnout and CWB	Marital status	n	M	SD	F	p
Exhaustion	Single	131	2.50	0.532	6.029	0.003*
	Married	145	2.63	0.531		
	Divorced	31	2.85	0.571		
Disengagement	Single	131	2.55	0.513	3.004	0.051
	Married	145	2.64	0.559		
	Divorced	31	2.81	0.680		
CWB	Single	131	1.89	0.982	7.513	0.001*
	Married	145	1.91	0.981		
	Divorced	31	2.62	0.992		

Note: Marital status was coded 0= Single, 1= Married, 2= Divorced. *p <0.05.

A comparison of job burnout and counterproductive behavior based on marital status are presented in Table 4. There was a significant variation between marital status and the exhaustion dimension, while the disengagement scores did not significantly differ according to marital status. Job burnout scores among divorced employees were higher than those for single and married employees concerning burnout's exhaustion dimension. Similarly, the differences in the counterproductive work behavior scores according to marital status were also statistically significant, and the CWB scores among divorced employees were higher than the scores for their co-workers. The post hoc test indicates that divorced employees score higher on the exhaustion scale than single employees. With respect to counterproductive work behavior, divorced employees score higher on the CWB than married and unmarried employees. Thus, we can infer that marital status was a significant variable as it influenced exhaustion and CWB. H4: stating that there will be a statistically significant influence of marital status on job burnout, and CWB has been partially confirmed.

The results of the comparison of job burnout and counterproductive work behavior, according to educational levels, are displayed in Table 5. The findings indicate that the level of education significantly influences job burnout and CWB. Job burnout scores of bank employees with a Ph.D. degree were higher than the other employees. Notably, we can see that as the educational attainment increased, the scores of exhaustion and disengagement also increased. According to education levels, the differences in exhaustion and disengagement were statistically significant. There were also substantial differences in CWB scores for educational status. The post hoc analysis results showed that employees with bachelor's degrees were less affected by exhaustion than the employees with master's and Ph.D. degrees. Also, employees with bachelor's degrees exhibit less disengagement than the employees with master's and Ph.D. degrees. Concerning the CWB, employees with Ph.D. degrees display more deviant behavior at work than the employees with bachelor's and master's degrees. Therefore, hypothesis H4 that there will be a statistically significant influence of education on job burnout and CWB is fully supported.

Table 5: Job burnout and counterproductive work behavior based on educational levels

Job burnout and CWB	Diploma (n=14)		Bachelor degree (n=204)		Master degree (n=75)		PhD degree (n=14)		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Exhaustion	2.56	0.43	2.51	0.52	2.77	0.52	3.03	0.69	7.756	0.000*
Disengagement	2.53	0.62	2.54	0.50	2.77	0.61	3.00	0.68	5.402	0.001*
CWB	2.24	1.02	1.82	0.96	2.16	0.99	2.95	0.89	7.695	0.000*

Note. Educational levels was coded 0= Diploma, 1= Bachelor, 2= Master, PhD=3, *p <0.05.

The hierarchical regression model was used, where the dependent variable was CWB, while the explanatory variables included in the model were job burnout dimensions (exhaustion, disengagement). In the analyses, control variables, including gender, age, marital status, and education, were inscribed in Step 1. The two dimensions of job burnout were entered at Step 2 together rather than entered step by step. The results are presented in Table 6. The regression results showed that the overall regression model significantly predicted CWB, [F (6,300) = 17.181, p < 0.001], and that over 26% of the variance of a dependent variable is explained by the regression model (R square = 0.263). The values of the variance inflation factor (VIF) were below 2, and the tolerance values were above 0.10, which indicates that there was no concern regarding the multicollinearity in the regression model (Kleinbaum et al., 1988).

In the first step, the sociodemographic variables: gender, age, marital status, and education have entered; the variables jointly accounted for 5.6% variance in CWB with only marital status ($\beta = 0.140$, $p < 0.05$) and education ($\beta = 0.185$, $p < 0.001$) emerged as a significant predictor of CWB. After controlling the sociodemographic variables and introducing exhaustion and disengagement into the regression equation (step 2), the amount of variance explained increased significantly [R squared change =0.207, p < 0.001]. Results also reveal that the impact of exhaustion on the employees' CWB is, as expected, positive. The higher the exhaustion, the higher on average, the employees' CWB; the impact is significant ($\beta = 0.278$, $p < 0.001$). The disengagement dimension of job burnout also proved to have a significant and positive impact on employees' CWB ($\beta = 0.236$, $p < 0.01$); employees who perceive a higher level of disengagement are more likely to engage in CWB behavior at work. Overall, hypothesis H1, which stated that there is a statistically significant relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behavior among Jordanian bank employees, was supported.

Table 6: Hierarchical Regression Analysis results

	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE	t	B	SE	t
Constant	1.467	0.150	9.802***	-0.621	0.263	-2.357***
Sociodemographic						
1. Gender	-0.014	.112	-.127	-.125	0.100	-1.244
2. Age	-0.028	.111	-.249	0.003	0.099	0.030
3. Marital status	0.216	.104	2.085*	.093	0.093	0.999
4. Education	0.298	.099	3.024**	0.111	0.090	1.240
Main effects						
5. Exhaustion				0.513	0.136	3.759***
6. Disengagement				0.426	0.131	3.243**
F	4.442** (4,302)			17.818***(6,300)		
F change	4.442 ** (4,302)			42.150***(2,300)		
R2	0.056**			0.263***		
ΔR2	0.056**			0.207***		
Adj. R2	0.043**			0.248***		

Note. N=307, *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001.

6 Discussion and conclusion

This current study investigating the relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behavior in Jordan's banking sector is of considerable significance because, firstly, the banking sector is one of the most significant sectors in Jordan and contributes largely to its economy. Moreover, the number of studies that investigated the relationship between job burnout and CWB with respect to bank employees is limited, where the majority focused on human service employees.

To begin with, the study results indicate that bank employees are suffering from job burnout and high levels of counterproductive work behavior. We also notice that job burnout and CWB are influenced by age, marital status, and education levels, but CWB is not significantly affected by gender.

The study shows that there are significant gender differences in job burnout (disengagement) levels. Female employees experience higher disengagement levels than their male co-workers, as reported in previous studies (Lackritz, 2004; Amigo et al., 2014; Tarcan et al., 2017). One explanation that can be devoted to this result is that in Jordanian society, women are still performing the majority of housework in addition to their job requirements, which may direct to an increased sense of job burnout. In comparison, no significant gender-based differences in

CWB levels, which indicate that bank employees engage in counterproductive work behaviors regardless of gender, which consists of (Baysal et al., 2020), who stated that the gender variable does not create a variation in CWB. Unlike the results of the present study (Ugwu et al., 2017) reported that gender negatively predicts CWB and the outcomes of (De Clercq et al., 2019), who noted that male employees are more prone to take part in CWB than their female co-workers.

Concerning age, the results show that exhaustion levels significantly vary according to age. With respect to exhaustion, employees in the aging group (50 years and older) experience more exhaustion than the other two groups; this finding corroborates similar results from prior studies (Ahola et al., 2006; Lindblom et al., 2006; Llorent & Ruiz-Calzado, 2016; Rožman et al., 2019). This may be because older employees face higher job demands and responsibilities; also, boredom can play a considerable role over time. Similarly, the CWB scores were significantly vary based on age; older employees are more likely to participate in CWB than the other two age groups. This is inconsistent with the results of (Peng, 2012; Ugwu et al., 2017), which observed that older employees are less likely to engage in CWB.

In contrast, (González-Navarro et al., 2018; Ying & Cohen, 2018) found no differences in CWB based on age; young and old employees display equal chances to en-

gage in deviant behavior. This might be because most of the training programs usually target younger employees, making the older employees feel that the organization neglects them. Besides, the banking sector framework has experienced profound shifts (e.g., online banking), which led to intensifying the competition between young and older employees. Another possible explanation is that when approaching retirement age, employees begin to develop a feeling that there is nothing to lose compared to younger employees and the difficulty in finding jobs.

The present study also highlights significant marital status differences in the exhaustion dimension of job burnout; single employees' manifest lower levels of exhaustion than divorced co-workers, which consistent with the results of (Ahola et al., 2006) and partially with the results of (Llorent & Ruiz-Calzado, 2016) who observed that only depersonalization levels differ significantly according to marital status. Contrary to the current study results (Wu et al., 2019; Mahmoudi et al., 2020) reported that marital status does not affect job burnout. Also, CWB scores significantly differ based on marital status; divorced employees are more likely to display deviant behavior than those married and single co-workers. This is incompatible with (Baysal et al., 2020), who stated that the marital status variable does not create a variation in CWB.

With respect to education level, we found that education levels significantly influence job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. The results show that as educational achievement advances, so does job burnout and CWB. Therefore future studies on the relationship should consider the educations levels of the employees.

The hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that job burnout has a significant positive impact on CWB among the frontline employees in the Jordanian banking industry. More specifically, the results show that the two job burnout dimensions, exhaustion, and disengagement, contribute significantly and positively to CWB among the employees. Job burnout dimensions alone responsible for at least 20.7% of the variation in CWB of the bank employees.

The result of the current study supported with previous findings of (Ugwu et al., 2017), who reported a positive relationship between job burnout and CWB among nurses, (Banks et al., 2012) also found a positive association between job burnout and CWB among bank employees, (Cohen & Diamant, 2017; Makhdoom et al., 2019) among teachers and (Liang & Hsieh, 2007; Shkoler & Tziner, 2017; Lebrón et al., 2018) across occupations. The results partially supported the findings (Liang & Hsieh, 2007; Bolton et al., 2011), who reported a positive relationship between only depersonalization and CWB. One explanation for the positive relationship may be related to the fact that bank employees in Jordan experience stress as a result of long working hours, extensive contact with various types of clients, high job demands, and competition

between the employees. Also, the employee's salary and the annual evaluation depend on the monthly target, a state that can overburden and consume them (Particularly for customer service employees, tellers, and branch managers). Therefore, the stress-inducing work environment can extend the means to evoke the feeling of exhaustion and disengagement and, thus, lead to deviant work behaviors.

Additionally, the exhaustion caused by employees' excessive work-load can drive them to feel indifferent about their customers and work. Exhaustion and disengagement can increase the chances of deviant work behavior, for example, complaining about work tasks, creating problems, talking about work inside and outside the workplace, and concentrating on cynical aspects of work, especially in the recent period where the banking sector was among the sectors that continued to operate during the quarantine period and the spread of coronavirus in Jordan. The study results indicate that the relationship between job burnout and work outcomes (CWB) should be taken into more consideration by the banking industry.

Accordingly, our study has several implications. Banks that wish their workers not to participate in deviant behavior should ensure that employees' work demands do not overstretch and deplete their resources. The bank management, along with the human resources department, could utilize burnout intervention strategies concentrated on changing the organization (Organizational-level intervention) (Lubbadeh, 2020), which focuses on reducing the mismatch between the employees and the organization (e.g., overload, fairness, role ambiguity) and stressor at the workplace, or individual-level strategies that improve the employees' ability to manage and cope with the workplace stressor. For example, strategies geared towards developing the employees' psychological capital (PsyCap) and emotional intelligence can provide the employees with the necessary skills to cope with work stress and abilities to effectively manage their emotions and behaviors (Dartey-baah et al., 2020). Human resource managers in banks should also perform and design practical training and coaching procedures to promote employees' mental and physical health; in addition, organizing more out of work activities (e.g., sporting events, annual party) to increase the employee's feelings of belonging to the organization.

The present investigation has some limitations that should be recognized. All study participants were employees of commercial banks in Jordan, and the study did not include employees of Islamic banks. Data have been collected mainly by self-reporting instruments that could induce common method bias. Furthermore, data were collected during the outbreak of the Coronavirus (COVID-19) and State of emergency in Jordan, which could have influenced the participants' responses because they were those who continued their work during this period.

Further studies are needed to explore better the relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work

behavior. It would be interesting to carry on a comparative examination between the employees working in commercial and Islamic banks or comparison at the international level. A longitudinal design study for future research would contribute to explaining the relationships between job burnout and CWB. Future research should also compare the link using different burnout inventory, such as MBI-GS and the Burnout Measure (BM.). Future research should also examine the result of the study after the end of the pandemic.

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Izgorelost na delu in kontraproduktivno delovno vedenje zaposlenih v jordanski banki

Ozadje / namen: Raziskali smo razmerje med izgorelostjo na delovnem mestu in kontraproduktivnim delovnim vedenjem (CWB) med 307 zaposlenimi iz različnih bank v Jordaniji. Proučili smo tudi stopnje izgorelosti in CWB glede na spol, starost, zakonski stan in izobrazbo.

Metodologija: Za zbiranje podatkov smo uporabili metoda priročnega vzorčenja za anketiranje zaposlenih v prvih bankah. Za zbiranje podatkov so uporabili lestvico Oldenburg (OLBI), ki ocenjuje izčrpanost in izključenost, in lestvico CWB iz vprašalnika za individualno delovno uspešnost (IWPQ). Podatki so bili analizirani z uporabo paketa SPSS 25.0.

Rezultati: Študija je pokazala, da obstaja pomembna pozitivna povezava med dvema dimenzijama izgorelosti dela in CWB. Raziskava tudi kaže, da starost, izobrazba in zakonski stan vplivajo tako na izgorelost službe kot na CWB. Pokazalo pa se je, da spol pomembno vpliva le na dimenzijo »ne-angažiranost« na delovnem mestu. Poleg tega študija kaže, da sta izčrpanost in neangažiranost ključna napovednika, ki vplivata na CWB.

Zaključek: Glede na naše rezultate, pojav izgorelosti na delovnem mestu lahko povzroči deviantno vedenje na delovnem mestu.

Ključne besede: Izgorelost na delu, izčrpanost, Kontraproduktivno delovno vedenje, Zaposleni v bankah, OLBI.

Appendix A. List of Measurement Items: Supply Chain Dynamic Capabilities

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI)
Disengagement items
D1: "I always find new and interesting aspects in my work."
D2: "I find my work to be a positive challenge."
D3: "This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing."
D4: "I feel more and more engaged in my work."
Disengagement reversed items
DR1: "It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way."
DR2: "Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically."
DR3: "Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work."
DR4: "Sometimes, I feel sickened by my work tasks."
Exhaustion items
EX1: "I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well."
EX2: "After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities."
EX3: "Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well."
EX4: "When I work, I usually feel energized."
Exhaustion reversed items
EXR1: "There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work."
EXR2: "After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better."
EXR3: "During my work, I often feel emotionally drained."
EXR4: "After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary."
Counterproductive work behavior scale (CWB).
CWB1: "I complained about minor work-related issues at work."
CWB2: "I made problems at work bigger than they were."
CWB3: "I focused on the negative aspects of situation at work instead of the positive aspects."
CWB4: "I talked to colleagues about the negative aspects of my work."
CWB5: "I talked to people outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work."

The Role of Transformational Entrepreneurship, Readiness to Change and Counterproductive Work Behavior in Enhancing Employee Performance

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Background and Purpose: The company sustainability balancing economic with social impact to coexist whilst the transformation entrepreneurship create the coexist. The purpose of this research is to better understand the consequences of transformational entrepreneurship, in terms of increasing organizational readiness for change, minimizing counterproductive work behavior and enhancing employee performance. In addition, this paper aims to comprehend the extent to which organizational readiness for change and counterproductive work behavior affect employee performance.

Methodology: The data were collected via a survey of 257 branches of a state-owned bank. The structural equation model (SEM) was used to test the proposed model.

Findings: Transformational entrepreneurship positively and significantly affect organizational readiness for change and employee performance, and negatively and significantly affect counterproductive work behavior. Moreover, the result demonstrated a significantly positive effect of organizational readiness for change on employee performance, and demonstrated a significantly negative effect of counterproductive work behavior on employee performance.

Conclusion: Point of this study is the effectiveness of transformational entrepreneurship in directly affecting employees' performance. However, the effect transformational entrepreneurship has on readiness for change and counterproductive work behavior adds its impact on employees' performance and based on the direct effect, readiness for comes up much more impactful than the other two. It implies how volatile and dynamics the work (internal and external) situations that having employees ready for change can help them cope with such volatility and dynamics to reach better performance.

Keywords: Employee performance, Counterproductive work behavior, Readiness for change, Transformational entrepreneurship

1 Introduction

A research by Deutsche Bank shows that companies with high ratings for environmental, social, and governance (ESG) factors lead the market in the medium (three to five years) and long (five to ten years) term (Bonini & Swartz, 2014). According to McKinsey Global Survey, almost six in ten respondents say that their organizations put more emphasis on sustainability than they did two years ago (McKinsey, 2017). These facts indicate the business' attention has shifted toward sustainable environment. In other words, companies now cannot just aim at economic results; they also have to simultaneously consider social impacts. Such co-existence leads us to the concept of transformational entrepreneurship. Transformational entrepreneurs continuously seek and develop innovative solutions not only for the wealth of their company, but also for the well-being of the society. They understand

that their company's success cannot be separated from the growth of the society. Society who are well taken care of will have resources to sustain the company's future development. Transformational entrepreneurs recognize the reciprocal and mutual benefit nature of company-society relationship.

This recognition however will bear consequences, mainly that the company itself must be ready for a change; a change that brings an economic, shorter-term perspective into a socio-economic, longer-term perspective of managing the business. Related to Lewin's (1951) unfreezing, such readiness indicates employees' "beliefs, attitudes and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organization's capacity to successfully make those changes" (Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder, 1993, p. 681). In other words, readiness for change is all about employees' conviction on the necessity of change and their company's ability to implement it. Despite the importance of understanding the nature of transformational entrepreneurship-readiness for change connection, little attention has been paid to empirically examine it. For that reason, this study aims at investigating such connection.

Nonetheless, the above consequence may not be well accepted by all employees in the organization. Some may see it as an injustice. Those who have consistently delivered economic results may feel that part of their (future) performance is unfairly taken. Employees who have been credited with high performance in the past may not have as high performance in the future. This decreased performance certainly affect their financials. For these employees and some more others, such financials are their (only) personal goal working in the organization. Shifting to accommodate both economic results and social impacts may be seen as an obstacle to achieve their goal; the goal they have steadily achieved in the past. This potential inability is an instrumental factor for them. Referring to Klandermans (1997; 2002), perceived injustice and instrumentality are two primary components of collective protest. Kelloway, Francis, Prosser and Cameron (2010) suggested that counterproductive work behavior depicted such protest. In other words, practices of transformational entrepreneurship could lead employees to engage in counterproductive work behavior. Unfortunately, previous researches have lacked of interest in investigating that plausible connection, and, therefore, empirically examining this connection becomes the objective of this study.

Practices of transformational entrepreneurship and being ready for a possible change all aims at improving employees' performance, which in turn increasing organization's performance. Pradhan and Jena (2017) categorized employees' performance into task performance (performance related to job description and/or employment contract), adaptive performance (performance related to dynamic work situation, such as technological changes),

and contextual performance (performance related to maintaining and developing prosocial or helping behavior). To the best of the authors' knowledge, no empirical study has been conducted to examine the effect of transformational entrepreneurship on employees' performance. Meanwhile, Weeks, Roberts, Chonko and Jones (2004) demonstrated a positive and significant association between organizational readiness for change and job performance in sales organizations. Job performance examined in this study was essentially task performance. No studies have been found that connect organizational readiness for change and adaptive performance, as well as contextual performance. Consequently, this study investigates the effect of each transformational entrepreneurship and organizational readiness for change on employees' performance, in terms of task, adaptive and contextual performances.

On the other hand, as an indicative of protests, counterproductive work behavior may result in lower employees' performance. Sackett (2002) identified some findings with regard to this effect on big three data sets. The first one was the US Army Selection and Classification Project (called Project A), which he found a low relationship between counterproductive work behavior (-.19) and task performance (-,17), in terms of core technical and general soldiering proficiencies, but a much higher relationship (-.59) between counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance, in terms of citizenship behavior. In the second data set was from Hunt's (1996). This data set demonstrates a similar relationship (-.67) between counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance, in terms of citizenship behavior. From the third data set (Viswesvaran, Schmidt and Ones' (1999) meta-analysis), he found a much higher relationship (-.54) between counterproductive work behavior and task performance, in terms of job knowledge, quantity of output and quality of output, but a consistent relationship (-.57) between counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance, in terms of citizenship behavior. Furthermore, Greenidge, Devonish and Alleyne (2015) found rather high correlations (-.36 and .40) between counterproductive work behavior (toward the organization and toward the individuals) and contextual performance. Previous research however has not provided result for counterproductive work behavior-adaptive performance relationship. This study therefore empirically examines the effect of counterproductive work behavior on adaptive performance, as well as on task and contextual performances.

This study is conducted in a state-owned bank in Indonesia. Banks have been known to serve a wide range of people and thus to provide economic and social benefits to people. Therefore, ESG factors are not new to them and the shift to include such factors is inevitable. However, the pull for achieving higher financial performance is not getting weaker as the competition in banking industry

is tighter. In other words, banks are at a cross road: keep pumping higher financial performance or compromise financial performance to accommodate social impacts. This position implies a need for practicing transformational entrepreneurship to simultaneously achieve economic results and social impact, and it brings up a need for readiness to change and a risk for encountering counterproductive work behavior. Banks are therefore considered an appropriate context for this study. Accordingly, this study attempts to answer these research questions:

RQ1. How does transformational entrepreneurship affect the organizational readiness for change?

RQ2. How does transformational entrepreneurship affect the employee performance?

RQ3. How does transformational entrepreneurship affect the counterproductive work behavior?

2 Sustainability and Transformational Entrepreneurship

Environmental Performance Index (EPI) (2020) recently releases global metrics for the environment. Among many findings, one is the most important for businesses, that is, "the pursuit of economic prosperity – manifested in industrialization and urbanization – often means more pollution and other strains on ecosystem vitality" (EPI, 2020, p. 1). In other words, there seems to be a contradiction between economic or financial prosperity and social welfare. If economy prospers, social will suffer, and vice versa. The ultimate impact of this contradiction is continual reduction to quality of all life, including human life. This continuous quality degradation will decrease human productivity, that in turn will inhibit the companies to grow. In other words, the pursuit of economic prosperity will likely have a boomerang effect when social welfare is ignored. The prosperity the companies try hard to generate may therefore be short-lived.

To create a long-term success, companies must build their business around environment and social considerations. Starik & Rands (1995) called this effort and all other efforts to survive by developing their ability to exist and flourish in a long term as a sustainability. Weber (2017) found a positive relationship between financial performance and sustainability performance. With a more balance between both performances, company's success can be cascaded to the prosperity of the society (Maas, Jones & Lockyer, 2019). A prosper society will be potential consumers to back the company's growth. So, a prosper society could further prosper the companies, and economic prosperity does not have to be in contrast with social welfare.

Entrepreneurship has been known to lead the companies to the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Entrepreneurship,

however, has also been known to be related more to businesses. Scholars then developed a concept of social entrepreneurship. It was Robert Owen, a philanthropic businessman, who first introduced social entrepreneurship in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries when he paid more attention to employees' welfare, in terms of their working, education and cultural lives (Shaw & Carter, 2007). In a later development, social entrepreneurship has broadened its focus toward "work of community, voluntary and public organizations, as well as private firms working for social rather than for-profit objectives" (Shaw & Carter, 2007, p. 419). Consequently, "its impact has been limited to date as its solutions are rarely devised with scalability and true economic sustainability in mind" (Marmer, 2012, p. 2). In other words, social entrepreneurship does not deal with transformation of a profit-motive institution (e.g. the company) to also include social perspective in its objectives.

Transformational entrepreneurship came into consideration when there is a need for individuals, communities and institutions to interact and collaborate for taking advantage of the existing opportunities and reaching a broader scale (Maas et al., 2019; Schoar, 2010). Transformational entrepreneurship develops entrepreneurial activities that bring major changes in market and industry as well as in social and cultural life (Marmer, 2012). Mass and Paul (2019) further delineated that transformational entrepreneurship puts more emphasis on stimulating socio-development in a dynamic manner, while Schoar (2010) envisioned transformational entrepreneurship to create large, vibrant business that grow much beyond the scope of an individual's subsistence needs and provide jobs and income for others. Past literature found that transformational entrepreneurship is characterized by high quality human capital, high willingness to take risk, and high responsiveness to environment (Mass & Paul, 2019; Herrera & Lora, 2005; Schoar, 2010). Without qualified people and consideration of external conditions, risking to take advantage of the opportunities will not be worth.

3 Consequences of Transformational Entrepreneurship

What differentiates transformational entrepreneurship from entrepreneurship is the scope. Transformational entrepreneurship broadens the scope of entrepreneurship from businesses to communities and societies so that provides the opportunities for companies to create social impacts. Realizing these opportunities may, however, require employees to master a different skill set. Before conforming to this requirement or expectation, employees must accept it. Holt, Armenakis, Harris and Feild (2007), conforming and accepting are two stages of change, where

conforming is the adoption and accepting is the readiness. In other words, for companies to implement transformational entrepreneurship, their employees must be ready to master the new skill set. This new skill set is a change for them. Part of readiness is upper management's communication to employees explaining why and how such new skill set will improve their subsequent performance. Another part of readiness concerns with company's willingness to invest time, effort and money to upgrade employees' skill set. Therefore, readiness for change involves commitment for both sides: on employees' side, they have to be committed to learn and master the new skill set, and on companies' side, they have to be committed to invest in employees' training. Correspondingly, we can conclude that:

H1: Transformational entrepreneurship positively affects organizational readiness for change

As previously indicated, the introduction of transformation entrepreneurship is not merely to create social impacts. It is farther than that; it is to generate sustainable success for companies, which means sustainable success for employees as well. In other words, the introduction of transformation entrepreneurship is actually to improve employees' performance, that is not only task performance, but also adaptive performance and contextual performance (Pradhan and Jena, 2017). Task performance will be enhanced because employees are able to perform above and beyond what are required by job description, adaptive performance will be better because employees are able to cope with the shift toward generating both economic prosperity and social welfare, and contextual performance will be increased because employees are able to demonstrate prosocial behavior when solving new problems and overcoming new challenges. Subsequently, we propose the hypothesis below:

H2: Transformational entrepreneurship positively affects employees' performance.

Companies' practice of transformational entrepreneurship may not however be well accepted by employees. They may see this practice as unfair because they have been resulting good economic performance for a number years, and suddenly they have to shift gear to also create social impacts. As a consequence, they have to spend time and effort to upgrade their skills. Not all employees are willing to spend that much time and effort, and not all employees are capable of upgrading their skills. Their work life that has so far been routine and predictable, now it seems uncertain and unclear. Employees who have sufficiently performed in the past, may not be able to reach that point in the future. It is like their future, predicted performance is taken away from them. This possible lowered performance could affect their take home income. So, practicing transformational entrepreneurship can be seen as a stumbling block to realize employees promised wealthy future and such inability becomes instrumental for their life. Klan-

dermans (1997; 2002) argued that (perceived) injustice and instrumentality are core elements of collective protest, and this protest is an indicative of counterproductive work behavior (Kelloway, et al., 2010). For those reasons, the following hypothesis is presented:

H3: Transformational entrepreneurship negatively affects counterproductive work behavior.

4 Readiness for Change, Counterproductive Work Behavior and Employee Performance

A well-known scholar in change, Kurt Lewin (1947), introduced three stages of change. They are unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Lewin classified change itself as moving, so before change is conducted, people must go to unfreezing stage. This is the stage where readiness is developed by shifting the mindsets and generating motivations to change (Weiner, 2009). Weiner further argued that readiness for change involves change commitment and change efficacy, which essentially relate to willingness and ability to implement change. Moreover, readiness for change concerns with benefits of change (Prochaska, Velicer, Rossi, Goldstein, Marcus, Rajiowski, Eiore, Harlow, Redding, Rosenbloom and Rossi, 1994), risks of failing to change (Armenakis et al., 1993; Beer, 1980; Spector, 1989), or externally forced changes (Pettigrew, 1987). If benefits are high and risks are low, readiness are more likely. But, for externally forced changes, readiness may not be a choice because if organizations and their employees are not ready, they may be extinct. Armenakis et al. (1993) further argued that, ultimately, readiness was all about behavior. People's beliefs, attitudes and attentions may have accepted change, but they do not show it in their behavior, they are not considered ready for change. It is with this behavior people implement change.

In addition, Weeks, Roberts, Chonko and Jones (2004) found that when organizations are ready to implement change, their employees are likely to show better performance. Helmy, Adawiyah and Setyawati (2020) also found that the workplace friendship has a significant influence on innovative service behavior. This is due to the fact that these employees are well prepared by their organizations to deal with change, are ensured the benefits and risks of change, and are confident their organization will help and assist them in overcoming challenges and obstacles that can impede their performance. In other words, organizations' readiness for changes is believed to support their employees to implement change that eventually lead to their increased performance. Consequently, we formulate the following hypothesis:

H4: Organizational readiness for change positively affects employee performance.

On the other hand, as discussed previously, not all employees are happy and satisfied with the policies and decisions of the organization, especially when a possible change is involved because change can put them in an unfair and unfortunate position. They can express their unhappiness and dissatisfaction by protesting in the form of behaving counterproductively to attract attention to the policy and decision makers with the hope that unfavorable policies and decisions will be revised and redressed. This counterproductive behavior includes keep complaining on seemingly unimportant matters, make a problem bigger than it should be, and focus on negative aspects of works, which ultimately drag employees away from their targets or objectives. Instead of paying attention to how to carry out their job above and beyond what are required by job description, to create both economic prosperity and social welfare, and to solve new problems and overcome new challenges, they intentionally slow down the work or even sabotage it. Employees who demonstrate counterproductive work behavior will likely not achieve their targets. Furthermore, Sackett (2002) found that counterproductive work behavior might result in lower employees' performance. He, for instance, found negative relationships between counterproductive work behavior and task and contextual performances in three occasions. Greenidge, Devonish and Alleyne (2014) found a similar correlation between counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance. Because of that, we hypothesize as follows:

H5: Counterproductive work behavior negatively affects employee performance.
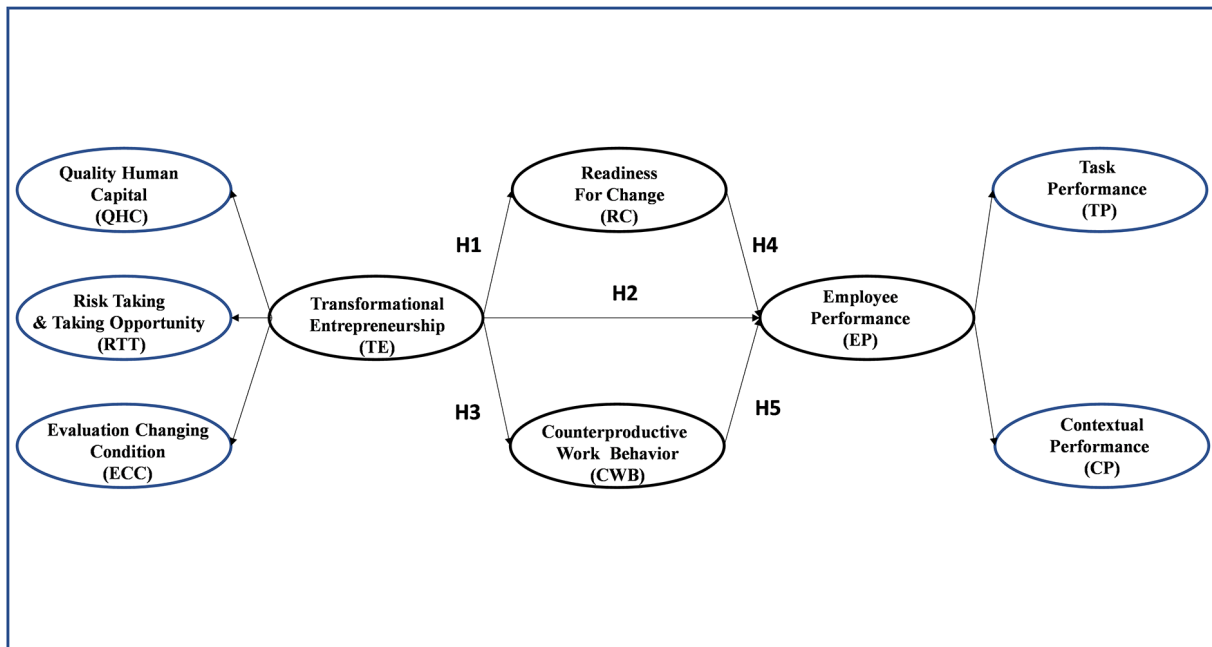

Figure 1: Research Model

5 Methods

5.1 Measures

Measure for each variable was adapted from literature of respective variable. Measure for transformational entrepreneurship variable was adapted from Maas et al., (2019), Marmer (2012), Schoar (2010), and Virmani and Lepineux (2016). Measure for readiness for change variable was adapted from Armenakis et al., (1993). Measure for counterproductive work behavior variable was adapted from Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Buuren, van der Beek, and de Vet (2014). Measure for employee performance variable was adapted from Pradhan and Jena (2017). Response for each item was measured using a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree".

The constructs employed in this study consist of: Transformation Entrepreneurship (TE), Readiness for Change (RC), Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) and Employee Performance (EP). The dimensions of each constructs are: Transformation Entrepreneurship (TE) consist of: a. Human Capital Quality (HCQ), b. Risk Taking & Taking Opportunity (RTT) and c. Evaluating Changing Condition (ECC) whilst the dimensions of Employee Performance (EP) consist of: a. Task Performance (TP), b. Contextual Performance (CP) and c. Adaptive Perfor-

mance AP).

Readiness for change and Counterproductive Work Behavior variables were categorized as First Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) since they were measured directly from indicators (without any dimension). Whilst Transformational Entrepreneurship and Employee Performance variables were categorized as Second Order CFAs since they each had dimensions. The detail relationship of constructs, dimensions and items measured in this study may be seen in Appendix.1

5.2 Sample and Data Collection

Data were collected through online survey to 468 branches (four people from each branch: one branch head and his or her three direct managers). So, in total, there were 468 branch heads and 1,404 branch managers we invited to participate in the survey. We followed up the online survey with phone calls and emails as reminders for them give their response. From total population of 468 branches, we received responses from 330 branches (1.582 samples), but 73 of those branches were incomplete. So, only 257 branches were counted for this study, comprised of 890 respondents (257 branch heads and 633 managers), indicating of 56 percent effective response rate. The respondent profile may be seen in Table 1 and 2 .

If we compared the demographic characteristics of branch head respondents to that of population, they are not much different. The majority of both is between 30 to 40 years old, male, holding a bachelor degree, married, having 3 to 5 dependents, and having 11 to 25 years of

Table 1: Respondents and Population Profile

Characteristic	Branch Manager		Total Population Branch Manager	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1. Ages of respondents				
<30 years	0	0.00	0	0%
30-40 years	114	44.36	144	44%
>40-50 years	101	39.30	124	38%
>50 years	42	16.34	62	19%
2. Gender of respondents				
Male	247	96.11	317	96%
Female	10	3.89	13	4%
3. Education of respondents				
Senior High School or below	0	0.00	0	0%
Bachellorate	2	0.78	2	1%
Bachelor Degree	213	82.88	276	84%
Master Degree or above	42	16.34	52	16%
4. Status				
Single	8	3.11	9	3%
Ever been married	2	0.78	2	1%
Married	247	96.11	319	97%
5. The number of dependents				
0-2 people	97	37.74	112	34%
3-5 people	156	60.70	212	64%
>5 people	4	1.56	6	2%

Table 1: Respondents and Population Profile (continues)

6. Work Experience				
0-5 years	1	0.39	1	0%
6-10 years	39	15.18	49	15%
11-15 years	68	26.46	85	26%
16-20 years	64	24.90	80	24%
21-25 years	51	19.84	68	21%
26-30 years	18	7.00	24	7%
>30 years	16	6.23	23	7%
Total	**257**		**330**	

Table 2: Respondents and Population Profile

Characteristic	Branch Manager		Total Population Branch Manager	
	Number	**Percentage**	**Number**	**Percentage**
1. Ages of respondents				
<30 years	0	0.00	4	0%
30-40 years	46	17.90	481	38%
>40-50 years	189	73.54	428	34%
>50 years	22	8.56	339	27%
2. Gender of respondents				
Male	521	82.31	1.016	81%
Female	111	17.54	236	19%
3. Education of respondents				
Senior High School or below	3	0.47	20	2%
Bachellorate	218	34.44	52	4%
Bachelor Degree	246	38.86	1,126	90%
Master Degree or above	166	26.22	54	4%
4. Status				
Single	19	3.00	42	3%
Ever been married	17	2.69	19	2%
Married	597	94.31	1,191	95%
5. The number of dependents				
0-2 people	285	45.02	553	44%
3-5 people	337	53.24	669	53%
>5 people	11	1.74	30	2%
6. Work Experience				
0-5 years	3	0.47	11	1%

Table 2: Respondents and Population Profile (continues)

6-10 years	153	24.17	285	23%
11-15 years	100	15.80	193	15%
16-20 years	170	26.86	341	27%
21-25 years	108	17.06	210	17%
26-30 years	61	9.64	127	10%
>30 years	38	6.00	85	7%
Total	**633**		**1,252**	

working experience. In essence, branch head respondents represent the population.

The same is true for branch manager respondents. The majority of respondents and population is between 30 to 40 years old, male, holding a bachelor degree, married, having 3 to 5 dependents, and having 16 to 20 years of working experience. In essence, branch manager respondents represent the population.

6 Analyses and Results

Data collected from the online survey were analyzed in two steps. The first is measurement model analysis, in which validity and reliability of each measure was tested. The second is structural model analysis, in which the research model was examined using structural equation model (SEM). The detail of each step is elaborated below.

6.1 Measurement Model Analysis

Measurement model analysis is to ensure the validity and reliability of all measurements (indicators, dimensions and variables). This study uses standardized factor loading (SFL) as a threshold for validity, where a good validity had SFL ≥ 0.50 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham, 2014). Measurement with SFL <0.50 is considered as invalid and will be dropped and will not be used in measurement models. This study uses construct reliability (CR) and variance extracted (VE) to indicate measurement reliability. A good reliability is where CR ≥ 0.70 and VE ≥ 0.50.

SFL of all measurements were in the range of 0.69-1.00, except for adaptive performance (-0.08). Hence, our measurement model was valid except for adaptive performance dimension in employee performance (EP_AP) since its SFL was < 0.5 and for that reason adaptive performance was dropped from measurement model. To evaluate discriminant validity, we analyzed the relationship between square correlation and AVE. As shown in Table 3, AVE for all variables (diagonal and italics) are higher than the corresponding correlations between those variables, suggesting that there is no issue of discriminant validity in our measurement model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). CR of all measurements were in the range of 0.86-1.00,

Table 3: Discriminant Validity

	Readiness for Change	Employees' Performance	Counterproductive Work Behavior	Transformational Entrepreneurship
Transformational Entrepreneurship	0.0324	0.2809	0.0676	*0.69*
Counterproductive Work Behavior	0,16	0.2916	*1*	
Employees' Performance	0.05476	*0.83*		
Readiness for Change	*1*			

whilst VE were in range of 0.68-1.00. Therefore, all measurements were reliable.

Latent variable score (LVS) is calculated to simplify models based on the item parceling concept (Bandalos, 2002; Jöreskog, 2000; Jöreskog, Sorbom and Walentin, 2006; Rhemtulla, 2016). LVS transforms the Second Order to First Order CFAs. In this study, the dimensions will transform to the First Order CFAs. Item parceling was needed because the measurement model initially had 88 indicators, which required five times the number of indicator (440 branches) (Bentler and Chou, 1987), while participated branches was only 257. By item parceling, the number indicators were reduced to seven indicators, and the actual sample was then way above the requirement (257 > 35). Item parceling yielded a more stable estimation of parameters for a small sample (Bandalos, 2002) and improved the model's fit.

6.2 Structural Model Analysis

We performed structural model analysis using LISREL 8.8. We first evaluated goodness-of-fit indices (GOFIs)—Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Confirmatory Fit Index (CFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) and Goodness of Fit Index (GFI). Table 4 provides the result of overall fit evaluation. All six GOFIs show good fit. The structural model's overall fit is hence good.

We then conducted path analysis. Figure 2 and Table 5 show the results of hypotheses testing. Hypotheses are supported when t-value $\geq$ 1.96 or $\leq$ -1.96. As can be seen, all hypotheses are accepted. Support for H1 (coefficient = 0.17, t-value $\geq$ 1.96, p < 0.05) means transformational entrepreneurship positively affects organizational readiness for change. This support indicates that employees accept the fact that implementing transformational entrepreneurship requires then to master a new, different skill set. It also demonstrates employees' commitment to learn such skill set. On the other hand, the organization where they work

Table 4: Goodness of Fit Indices (GOFI)

GOFI	Criteria for Good Fit	Value
RMSEA	≤ 0,08	0.0
NNFI	≥ 0.90	1.00
CFI	≥ 0.90	1.00
IFI	≥ 0.90	1.00
RFI	≥ 0.90	0.98
SRMR	≤ 0,05	0.013
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.99
Norm χ²	≤ 3	0.88

must be willing and committed to invest time, effort and money to upgrade their skills.

Support for H2 (coefficient = 0.36, t-value $\geq$ 1.96, p <0.05) means transformational entrepreneurship positively affects employees' performance. This support indicates that transformational entrepreneurship indeed leads the employees to better performance, particularly task and contextual performances. Task performance is better as employees perform above and beyond what are required by job description, and contextual performance is better as employees demonstrate prosocial behavior when solving new problems and overcoming new challenges. Such an increase in performance may be due the direction of transformation entrepreneurship to generate social impacts, which are mostly above and beyond what are required by

job description, as well as new problems and challenges for employees.

Support for H3 (coefficient = -0.26, t-value $\leq$ -1.96, p < 0.05) means transformational entrepreneurship negatively affects counterproductive work behavior. This support shows that transformational entrepreneurship may not however be well accepted by employees, especially those who have been resulting good economic performance for a number of years. These employees suddenly have to shift gear to also create social impacts, and, thus have to spend time and effort to upgrade their skills. They may not be capable of upgrading their skills as well. Their work life may no longer be routine and predictable like before; it not may become uncertain and unclear. With this new area of performance, employees' past good performance may not

matter at present. They may therefore feel like their future, predicted performance based on their past performance, as well as their future take home income, are taken away from them. In other words, transformational entrepreneurship may be seen as a stumbling block for employees to realize their wealthy future. For that reason, employees may silently and collectively protest to the organization they work for (Klandermans, 1997; 2002) in the form of counterproductive work behavior (Kelloway, et al., 2010).

Support for H4 (coefficient = 0.60, t-value ≥ 1.96, p < 0.05) means organizational readiness for change positively affects employees' performance. This support shows that organizational readiness for change leads the employees to

better performance as well, particularly task and contextual performances. It also indicates that employees consider change are beneficial for them and the risks associated with it are acceptable (Armenakis et al., 1993; Beer, 1980; Prochaska, et al., 1994; Spector, 1989), so they are committed to it by improving their efficacy to execute change that lead to better performance. Such commitment may be due to the fact that employees are confident their organization will help and assist them in overcoming challenges and obstacles related to change that can impede their performance. In addition, the finding of this study is consistent with what Weeks et al. (2004) found that when organ-
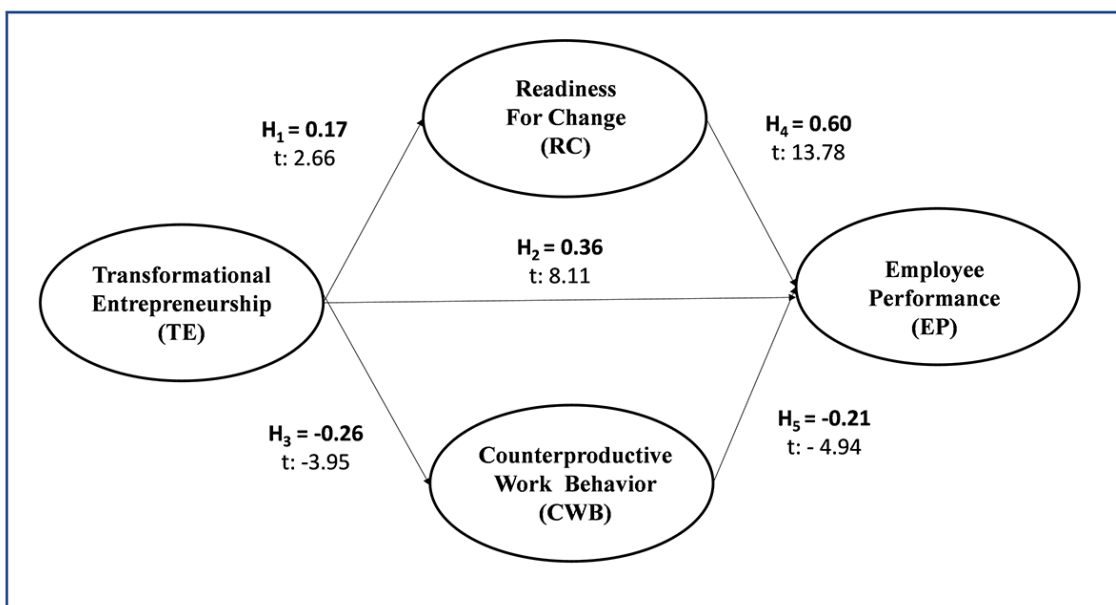

Figure 2: Path Diagram

Table 5: Hypotheses Result

Hypothesis	t-Value	Coefficient	Remark	Summary
H1: Transformational entrepreneurship positively	2.66	0.17	Significant Positive	H1 Accepted
H2: Transformational entrepreneurship positively	8.11	0.36	Significant Positive	H2 Accepted
H3: Transformational entrepreneurship negatively affects counterproductive work behavior	-3.95	-0.26	Significant Negative	H3 Accepted
H4: Organizational readiness for change positively	13.78	0.60	Significant Positive	H4 Accepted
H5: Counterproductive work behavior negatively	-4.94	-0.21	Significant Negative	H5 Accepted

Chi-Square = 8.88, df = 10, p-value=0.54380, RMSEA = 0.00

izations are ready to implement change, their employees are likely to show better performance.

Support for H4 (coefficient = 0.60, t-value ≥ 1.96, p < 0.05) means organizational readiness for change positively affects employees' performance. This support shows that organizational readiness for change leads the employees to better performance as well, particularly task and contextual performances. It also indicates that employees consider change are beneficial for them and the risks associated with it are acceptable (Armenakis et al., 1993; Beer, 1980; Prochaska, et al., 1994; Spector, 1989), so they are committed to it by improving their efficacy to execute change that lead to better performance. Such commitment may be due to the fact that employees are confident their organization will help and assist them in overcoming challenges and obstacles related to change that can impede their performance. In addition, the finding of this study is consistent with what Weeks et al. (2004) found that when organizations are ready to implement change, their employees are likely to show better performance.

Support for H5 (coefficient = -0,21, t-value □ -1.96, p < 0.05) means counterproductive work behavior negatively affects employees' performance. This support indicates that counterproductive work behavior leads the employees to worst performance, particularly task and contextual performances. Furthermore, it indicates that unhappy and dissatisfied employees who exhibit their protests toward their disagreements on change in such form as complaining on seemingly unimportant matters, making a problem bigger than it should be, and focusing on negative aspects of works may not carry out their job above and beyond what are required by job description, create both economic prosperity and social welfare, and solve new problems and overcome new challenges. Instead, they may intentionally slow down the work or even sabotage it. The finding of this study is also consistent with Sackett (2002) who found that counterproductive work behavior might result in lower employees' task and contextual performances, and with Greenidge et al. (2015) who found that counterproductive work behavior might lead to decreased contextual performance.

7 Conclusion, Implications and Future Studies

There are several interesting conclusion drawn from the above findings. The first conclusion is related to insignificant contribution of adaptive performance to employees' performance (adaptive performance was dropped from measurement model because it had SLF < 0.5). According to Hesketh and Neal (1999), adaptive performance was an individual's ability to adjust and get necessary supports to carry out his or her job profile in a dynamic work

situation. So, adaptive performance indicates employees' ability to overcome such volatile work conditions as related to implementing transformational entrepreneurship, in an effective and efficient manner (Baard, Rench, and Kozlowski, 2014). It involves employees' willingness to embark in new learning experience and get themselves comfortable with volatility in effectively and efficiently (Griffin, Parker, and Mason, 2010; Hollenbeck, LePine, and Ilgen, 1996), and to adjust their interpersonal behavior so they could work successfully with a wide range of peers and subordinates.

On the other hand, task performance emphasizes on behaviors directed at fulfilling job responsibilities as a part of job description. It focuses on effective executions on the assigned tasks to achieve the organization's objectives, and involves knowledge, skills and habits (Conway, 1999). Meanwhile, contextual performance refers to employees' voluntary behaviors that help other employees and or their organization achieve their goals (Bateman, & Organ, 1983). These so-called prosocial or extra role behaviors are not necessarily mentioned in their job description, but such behaviors are conducted with the intention of supporting the advancement of fellow employees and or organization towards their objectives (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

This study implies that in times of change, particularly in a highly competitive but regulated industry like banking industry where this study took place, task and contextual performances were found to contribute much more significant to employees' performance compared to adaptive performance. The possible reason for this finding relates to continuous change banks have experienced in recent years that cause regulations to be regularly adjusted and make adaptability inherent in their daily operations. Consequently, being adaptable is not something employees have to perform as it is already built-in to their routine work behaviors and procedures. In the meantime, the demand for task performance is getting higher as the competition in banking industry is much tougher, especially with the eminent threat from financial technology. Contextual performance is also getting more relevant because of its prosocial nature, in which employees help each other and help their organization to reach their collective successes. Accordingly, for organizations operating in a highly regulated and competitive industry such as in banking industry, demonstrating task and contextual performances are increasingly critical to help organizations thrive in the competition. Management of such organizations should therefore direct their employees to achieve their respective targets and to help each other to achieve those targets, given that adaptability has already immersed into their daily routine.

The second conclusion is that all hypotheses examined in this study are all accepted. It means there are three paths from transformational entrepreneurship to employees' per-

formance. There is a direct path and there are two indirect paths via readiness for change and counterproductive work behavior. The direct path has a coefficient of 0.36, while the indirect paths via readiness for change has a coefficient of 0.102 (this coefficient is obtained from a multiplication of transformational entrepreneurship-readiness for change path of 0.17 and readiness for change-employees' performance path of 0.60) and the indirect paths via counterproductive work behavior has a coefficient of 0.0546 (this coefficient is obtained from a multiplication of transformational entrepreneurship-counterproductive work behavior path of -0.26 and readiness for change-employees' performance path of -0.21).

These findings imply the effectiveness of transformational entrepreneurship in directly affecting employees' performance, rather than go through readiness for change and counterproductive work behavior. Transformational entrepreneurship itself is essentially entrepreneurial activities that bring major changes in market and industry as well as in social and cultural life (Marmer, 2012). It puts more emphasis on stimulating socio-development in a dynamic manner (Mass and Paul, 2019), and it creates large, vibrant business that grow much beyond the scope of an individual's subsistence needs and provide jobs and income for others (Schoar, 2010). Transformation entrepreneurship generates employees' performance as it develops organization's market and industry, and thus gives much more opportunities for employees to perform. Accordingly, to improve employees' performance, management of the organizations needs to nurture and encourage transformational entrepreneurial activities among employees. These activities benefit not only the organizations where they work, but also themselves.

The above findings also imply that the effect transformational entrepreneurship has on readiness for change and counterproductive work behavior adds its impact on employees' performance. But, if we compare the direct effect of these three variables toward employees' performance, readiness for change comes up much more impactful than the other two. It shows that having employees ready for change can help them cope with such volatility and dynamics, more than avoiding or minimizing counterproductive work behavior, to reach better performance. Readiness for change itself involves shifting the mindsets and generating motivations to change; it involves change commitment and change efficacy (Weiner, 2009). Consequently, to enhance employees' performance, management of the organizations needs to urge employees' mind shift and boost their motivations toward change so they are committed and able to execute change when the time comes.

Future studies may be warranted in industries other than banking industry that have different characteristics of volatility and dynamics to empirically examine whether readiness for change comes up more impactful than trans-

formational entrepreneurship and counterproductive work behavior. In addition, future studies may need to include internal and external situational factors, such as Denison, Hooijberg, Lane and Lief's (2012) corporate culture, and Dess and Beard's (1984) environmental dynamism, complexity and munificence as moderators to each of the three paths toward employees' performance to measure the extent these situational factors strengthen or weaken the effect of transformational entrepreneurship, readiness for change and counterproductive work behavior on employees' performance. Future studies may also need to consider a longitudinal approach to examine this study's causal-effect relationships. Although we hold that such relationships, specified based on literature, were plausible, we cannot demonstrate that contention empirically using cross-sectional data. In reality, it is possible that such relationships are reciprocally related over time, for example, between affects transformational entrepreneurship and employees' performance, that past employees' performance may affect subsequent transformational entrepreneurship.

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Vloga transformacijskega podjetništva, pripravljenosti na spremembe in kontraproduktivnega delovnega vedenja dela pri povečanju uspešnosti zaposlenih

Ozadje in namen: Trajno podjetje uravnoteži gospodarski in družbeni vpliv, medtem ko transformacijsko podjetništvo ustvarja ravnotežje med gospodarskim in družbenim vplivom. Namen te raziskave je proučiti vpliv transformacijskega podjetništva na povečanje organizacijske pripravljenosti na spremembe, zmanjšanje kontraproduktivnega delovnega vedenja in povečanje uspešnosti zaposlenih. Poleg tega želi prispevek proučiti, v kolikšni meri organizacijska pripravljenost vpliva na spremembe in kontraproduktivno delovno vedenje na uspešnost zaposlenih.
Metodologija: Podatki so bili zbrani z anketo v 257 podružnicah državne banke. Za preizkus predlaganega modela smo uporabili model strukturne enačbe (SEM).
Ugotovitve: Transformacijsko podjetništvo pozitivno in pomembno vpliva na organizacijsko pripravljenost na spremembe in uspešnost zaposlenih ter negativno in pomembno vpliva na kontraproduktivno delovno vedenje. Poleg tega je študija pokazala znaten pozitiven učinek organizacijske pripravljenosti na spremembe na uspešnost zaposlenih in izrazito negativen učinek kontraproduktivnega delovnega vedenja na uspešnost zaposlenih.
Zaključek: Glavna ugotovitev te študije je, da se učinkovitost transformacijskega podjetništva kaže pri neposrednem vplivu na uspešnost zaposlenih. Vendar vpliv, ki ga ima transformacijsko podjetništvo na pripravljenost na spremembe in na kontraproduktivno delovno vedenje, poveča njegov vpliv na uspešnost zaposlenih. Neposredni učinek na je veliko pomembnejši od prej omenjenih dveh. Iz tega izhaja, da v volatilnih in dinamičnih so delovnih situacijah (notranjih in zunanjih), pripravljenost zaposlenih na spremembe lahko pomaga, da se spoprimejo s tako nestanovitnostjo in dinamiko in dosežejo boljše rezultate.

Ključne besede: *Organizacijsko zaupanje; Organizacijska zavezanost; Zdravstvene organizacije, Strateško upravljanje*

Appendix A: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer and Allen, 1991)

Construct	Dimension	Items	Measures
Transformational Entrepreneurship (TE)	Human Capital Quality (HCQ)	TE_QHC1	Our employees demonstrate sufficient knowledge at work
		TE_QHC2	Our employees are skillful at their work
		TE_QHC3	Our employees show appropriate attitude at their work
		TE_QHC4	Our employee consistently generates new ideas
		TE_QHC5	Our employees perform to the best of their ability
		TE_QHC6	Our employees constantly do their best
	Risk Taking & Taking Opportunity (RTT)	TE_RTT01	We continuously seek for new opportunities in the market
		TE_RTT02	We have to take risks to take the advantage of new opportunities
		TE_RTT03	We believe changes in market creates new opportunities
		TE_RTT04	We tend to participate in high-risk projects
		TE_RTT05	We talk more about opportunities than problems.
		TE_RTT06	We believe risk is an inherent part of new opportunities
	Evaluating Changing Condition (ECC)	TE_ECC1	We gather relevant information to evaluate external changing conditions
		TE_ECC2	We collect information accordingly to understand market dynamics
		TE_ECC3	We continuously evaluate every change in the market
		TE_ECC4	We assess relevant information as a part of market evaluation
		TE_ECC5	We evaluate market conditions using valid information
Readiness for Change (RC)		RC_1	People in this organization readily accept change
		RC_2	Past Introduction of new technology have gone smoothly
		RC_3	Clear business goals are guiding the introduction of the new technology
		RC_4	The new technology will improve job quality in our organization
		RC_5	The new technology will improve Job security
		RC_6	People trust upper management to make technology decisions
		RC_7	There is good communication between management and employees
		RC_8	We have the money needed to invest in new technology
		RC_9	Our employee are willing to be trained to work with new technology
		RC_10	The physical infrastructure of our workplace can readily accommodate new technology
Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)		CWB_1	I complained about unimportant issues at work
		CWB_2	I made problems at work bigger than they were
		CWB_3	I focused on the negative aspects of a situation at work instead of the positive aspects
		CWB_4	I talked to colleagues about the negative aspects of my work
		CWB_5	I talked to people outside of the organization about the negative aspects of my work

Appendix A: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer and Allen, 1991) (continues)

Employee Performance (EP)	Task Performance (TP)	EP_TP1	I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time
		EP_TP2	I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve
		EP_TP3	I was able to distinguish main issues from side issues
		EP_TP4	I was able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort
		EP_TP5	I planned my work optimally
	Contextual Performance (CP)	EP_CP1	On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed
		EP_CP2	I took on challenging tasks when these were available
		EP_CP3	I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up to date
		EP_CP4	I worked on keeping my work skills up to date
		EP_CP5	I came up with creative solutions for new problems
		EP_CP6	I took on extra responsibilities
		EP_CP7	I Continually sought new challenges in my work
		EP_CP8	I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations
	Adaptive Performance (AP)	EP_AP1	I use to perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work
		EP_AP2	I could manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands.
		EP_AP3	I can handle effectively my work team in the face of change.
		EP_AP4	I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in organization
		EP_AP5	I use to lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team members. (R)
		EP_AP6	I am very comfortable with job flexibility.
		EP_AP7	I use to cope well with organizational changes from time to time.

Appendix B: Relationship of Construct Dimension Items Measures and SFL

Construct	Dimension	Items	Measures	SFL
Transformational Entrepreneurship	**Human Capital Quality**	TE_QHC1	Our employees demonstrate sufficient knowledge at work	0,689
		TE_QHC2	Our employees are skillful at their work	0,800
		TE_QHC3	Our employees show appropriate attitude at their work	0,829
		TE_QHC4	Our employee consistently generates new ideas	0,779
		TE_QHC5	Our employees perform to the best of their ability	0,922
		TE_QHC6	Our employees constantly do their best	0,879
	Risk Taking & Taking Opportunity	TE_RTT01	We continuously seek for new opportunities in the market	0,665
		TE_RTT02	We have to take risks to take the advantage of new opportunities	0,657
		TE_RTT03	We believe changes in market creates new opportunities	0,720
		TE_RTT04	We tend to participate in high-risk projects	0,321 (Not Valid)
		TE_RTT05	We talk more about opportunities than problems.	0,752
		TE_RTT06	We believe risk is an inherent part of new opportunities	0,764
	Evaluating Changing Condition	TE_ECC1	We gather relevant information to evaluate external changing conditions	0,864
		TE_ECC2	We collect information accordingly to understand market dynamics	0,917
		TE_ECC3	We continuously evaluate every change in the market	0,880
		TE_ECC4	We assess relevant information as a part of market evaluation	0,894
		TE_ECC5	We evaluate market conditions using valid information	0,841
Readiness for Change		RC_1	People in this organization readily accept change	0,672
		RC_2	Past Introduction of new technology have gone smoothly	0,259 (Not Valid)
		RC_3	Clear business goals are guiding the introduction of the new technology	0,848
		RC_4	The new technology will improve job quality in our organization	0,860
		RC_5	The new technology will improve Job security	0,744
		RC_6	People trust upper management to make technology decisions	0,740
		RC_7	There is good communication between management and employees	0,832
		RC_8	We have the money needed to invest in new technology	0,570
		RC_9	Our employee are willing to be trained to work with new technology	0,797
		RC_10	The physical infrastructure of our workplace can readily accommodate new technology	0,675

Appendix B: Relationship of Construct Dimension Items Measures and SFL (continues)

Counterpro-ductive Work Behavior		CWB_1	I complained about unimportant issues at work	0,591
		CWB_2	I made problems at work bigger than they were	0,838
		CWB_3	I focused on the negative aspects of a situation at work instead of the positive aspects	0,854
		CWB_4	I talked to colleagues about the negative aspects of my work	0,904
		CWB_5	I talked to people outside of the organization about the negative aspects of my work	0,862
Employee Perfor-mance	Task Perfor-mance	EP_TP1	I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time	0,847
		EP_TP2	I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve	0,839
		EP_TP3	I was able to distinguish main issues from side issues	0,845
		EP_TP4	I was able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort	0,847
		EP_TP5	I planned my work optimally	0,863
	Contextual Perfor-mance	EP_CP1	On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed	0,339 (Not Valid)
		EP_CP2	I took on challenging tasks when these were available	0,820
		EP_CP3	I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up to date	0,870
		EP_CP4	I worked on keeping my work skills up to date	0,882
		EP_CP5	I came up with creative solutions for new problems	0,896
		EP_CP6	I took on extra responsibilities	0,833
		EP_CP7	I Continually sought new challenges in my work	0,846
		EP_CP8	I actively participated in meetings and/or consultations	0,860
	Adaptive Perfor-mance	EP_AP1	I use to perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work	0,719
		EP_AP2	I could manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands.	0,882
		EP_AP3	I can handle effectively my work team in the face of change.	0,720
		EP_AP4	I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in organization	0,631
		EP_AP5	I use to lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team members. (R)	0,321 (Not Valid)
		EP_AP6	I am very comfortable with job flexibility.	0,627
		EP_AP7	I use to cope well with organizational changes from time to time.	0,178 (Not Valid)

How does Perceived Organizational Support Affect Psychological Capital? The Mediating Role of Authentic Leadership

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Background and Purpose: Authentic leadership, the most noteworthy positive leadership style accepted by positive organizational behavior scholars, is famous for its contributions to psychological capitals. And, in fact, this leadership style can flourish and be experienced more easily in situations where there are supportive organizational conditions. Hence, in this study, we assume that organizational support is an important antecedent for experiencing and displaying authentic leadership. Furthermore, in organizations wherein authentic leadership is practiced, people may assume organizational support comes about thanks to their leaders's management style, particularly where authentic leadership may shadow the effect of perceived organizational support on the psychological capitals of individuals. So, in our model we proposed that perceived organizational support will have a positive effect on both authentic leadership style and the psychological capitals of individuals. Moreover, authentic leadership will act as a mediator in this relationship.

Design/Methodology/Approach: For the related field research we collected data from professionals working in the service sector in Istanbul. Related data have been analysed with structural equation modelling in order to test our hypotheses.

Results: Results of this study confirmed our assumptions regarding the positive effects of perceived organizational support on authentic leadership and on four basic dimensions of psychological capital: self-efficacy, optimism, resilience, and hope. Moreover, our results confirmed the statistically significant effect of authentic leadership on psychological capital and partial mediator effect of authentic leadership in the relationship between perceived organizational support and psychological capital.

Conclusion: Our results indicate the importance of empowering employees and engaging in authentic leadership behaviour in increasing psychological capitals of employees and psychologically creating a more powerful workforce.

Keywords: Perceived organizational support, Authentic leadership, Psychological capital

1 Introduction

Recent political and economic negativities in many parts of the world have brought about an array of results, such as a decreasing belief in politicians and businessmen, economic crises, violations of trust in managers and pro-fessionals during these crises, and an increased need for more ethical and trustworthy leaders. People have begun to need leaders who behave as they are, that is, who have the ability to be honest with others and to be honest with themselves, and when we come to the 2000s, researchers such as Luthans et al. (2007), Walumbwa et al., (2008) have developed authentic leadership, which is a positive

leadership form that has been adopted as a product of positive psychology. Among positive organizational school researchers, authentic leadership was seen as a fruit of positive organizational atmosphere, and it was claimed that increased awareness, auto control, and positive modelling that was created by authentic leadership will also increase the individual authenticity of the followers (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

In this study, we suggest that a suitable environment that nourishes authentic behavior by supporting both leaders and followers in an organizational setting will lead to the development of authentic leadership. On the one hand, we posit that this suitable environment can be a supportive and empowering environment which also culminates in higher levels of psychological capacity on the side of followers. Furthermore, we will test if authentic leadership acts as a mediator in the relationship between this supportive environment and the psychological capacities of followers.

2 Literature review

2.1 Authentic Leadership

Luthans and Avolio (2003) explained authentic leadership as a process drawing from both psychological capital (Positive Psychological capacities) and a nourishing environment resulting in both greater awareness and positive behaviours on the part of both leaders and their followers, culminating in positive self-development. Later, Walumbwa et al. defined authentic leadership as a leadership style that not only draws upon and promotes the positive psychological capitals of individuals but also culminates in positive organizational climate: all in order to foster higher levels of self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency for both the leader and the led (Walumbwa et al., 2008:94). Whitehead (2009) also posited that authentic leadership can be conceived as an ethical leadership style wherein the leader is self-aware, humble, empowering and caring (Whitehead, 2009:850).

In fact, in authentic leadership, as the relationship between the leader and his followers becomes authentic, the parties individually develop and become more competent. The most widely cited work on authentic leadership is the work of Walumbwa et al. (2008), consisting of five components. The first of these components is the self-awareness dimension, including being aware of one's own individual abilities, strengths, and weaknesses. Transparency in relationships is the second dimension, suggesting that the leader is extremely clear and open in his relationships. The balanced processing of information dimension explains the, authentic leader's objectivity in considering all related

data before making a decision (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The dimension of internalized moral behavior is that the individual can act in accordance with their own value judgments, choices and needs (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Actually, authentic leadership is significant in promoting healthy work environments by influencing employees and creating positive organizational outcomes (Alilyyani et al., 2018: 34), a supportive environment (Wong et al., 2013), employee empowerment (Regan et al., 2016), organizational identification (Valsania and Molero, 2016), and creativity (Moreover, Mubarak and Noor (2018) and proactive employee behavior (Zhang et al., 2018). Additionally, authentic leadership is also effective in hindering negative organizational outcomes, such as silence behavior (Xiyuan et al.,2017).

2.2 Perceived Organizational Support

According to Eisenberger (2001), employees attach great significance to balance in their mutual relations with the organization they work with. It denotes employees' evaluation of self-value by the organization (Albawi et al., 2019). They search for equivalence between the value given to them by their organization and their spending both material and emotional for their organizations. In the existence of equivalence, individuals begin to feel confident that they will be rewarded by the organization for their pro-organizational behavior (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Eisenberger et al. (1986) explains perceived organizational support as the total of benefits it provides to its employees by an organization in order to achieve the goals that lead to organizational success. Employees direct their performances in an organizational setting according to the awards they expect the organization to provide for them in the future (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). Actually, as Hellman et al. (2006) suggest, perceived organizational support is the hope that the employee's contribution to the organization will be valued by the organization, accepted as a value, and rewarded in return. Hochwarter et al. (2013) claim that one of the most striking points in the concept of perceived organizational support is the fact that members of the organization see various activities, attitudes, and behaviours carried out by the representatives of the organization as indicators of the intention of the superior mind of the organization rather than the personal preferences of these people and the behavior of the representatives of the organization. Organizational support positively affects the employees' emotional bond within the organization because it includes accepting their employees as valuable, interested in their happiness, making them feel that they care (Eisenberger et al., 1986), and meeting the needs of the individual within the organization to belong, be respected, and approved. Moreover, it boosts flourishing at work that

leads to greater well-being and work engagement (Imran et al., 2020), affective commitment (Ullah et al., 2020), employee voice behavior (Stinglhamber et. al., 2020) and a lower burnout rate (Leupold et al., 2020).

2.3 Psychological Capital

Luthans defined psychological capital as a second order construct which can be measured, developed, and taught for attaining higher performance and deals with who the person is and what can happen through positive development (Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio, 2007).This is a higher-order construct encompassing self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007). These are positively oriented human strengths that are measurable, developable, and manageable for higher performance (Baykal, 2020: 278). Psychological Capital is open to change and it is developable and that is why it is considered to be a "state-like" rather than a "trait-like" feature. It can be modified and improved with the help of positive organizational interventions, programs, and on-the-job training (Lupşa et al., 2020: 1508).

Self-efficacy has its roots in the social cognitive theory of Bandura (2000) that defines an individuals' confidence in themselves in mobilizing their self-motivation and capabilities with the aim of achieving high performance. It is one's specific confidence regarding a specific task. One can have high self confidence in a task while experiencing lower self-confidence in another task. Also, optimism, another important component of psychological capital, indicates an individual's expectancy of positive outcomes (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001). According to Scheier, Carver and Bridges (2001), optimism is a general, inclusive positive perspective that is specific to more generalized situations and conditions, and has been extended to cover most of the individual's life. In fact, hope is a psychological capacity through which individuals can embrace a more positive attitude towards reaching a certain goal. It involves two components: agency (goal-directed energy) and pathways (alternative ways to attain a specific goal) (Snyder, 2002). In simpler terms, hope involves knowing both the person's will and probability of achieving the goal, the ways to reach the goal, and the importance of the goal. Producing strategic ways and having motivation are both important points, but none of them is sufficient for success. Lastly, resilience explains one's ability to bounce back from crises, adversities, uncertainties, risks or failures, and adapt to changing situations (Masten & Reed, 2002). Unlike other dimensions, it has a reactive nature and contributes to work-related outcomes, such as performance, job satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment (Youssef and Luthans, 2007: Nguyen and Ngo, 2020).

3 Theoretical background and hypotheses

3.1 Perceived Organizational Support and Optimism

In psychological capital literature, Seligman (1998) defines optimism as an attitude that explains positive situations stemming from inner reasons and negative situations in terms of external, temporary, and situation-specific reasons. The mechanism for optimism is not merely shaped by self-perception but also includes external causes, including other people or situational factors (Seligman, 1998). Organizational support theory posits that emotional support from colleagues and managers has the power to satisfy employees' needs for affiliation and an optimistic mindset, which in turn will enhance their motivation and satisfaction at the workplace (Tews et al., 2013). In fact, positive work experiences are often encoded in one's long-term memory systems and readily accessible when a new situation arises that needs to be interpreted either positively or negatively. Co-worker and supervisor support also tend to increase optimism through learning since social learning makes optimism contagious. When the extant literature is examined, we can find some empirical support for the perceived organizational support-optimism relationship. For instance; Liu, Huang and Jiang (2016), Seger et al. (2018) and He et al. (2016) revealed the positive impact of perceived social support on psychological capitals of individuals. It is hypothesized that:

H1. Perceived Organizational support has a positive effect on optimism.

3.2 Perceived Organizational Support and Hope

Miller et al. (2014) emphasized the importance of supportive relationships in increasing hope levels of individuals. During the hope building process, individuals establish a strong bond with caregivers who develop the greatest amount of hope. Such a secure attachment gives people a sense of empowerment to attain their goals (Snyder et. al. 2002). Therefore, fostering hope is the most important task of a leader (Walker, 2006:542). On the one hand, according to hope theory, high-hope individuals can determine goals that are both more challenging and attainable: they pursue these goals with a high motivation and develop alternative meaningful routes for reaching these goals (Snyder, 2002). In the long run, individuals benefit from feedback related to goal outcomes in order to design their future agency and pathways thinking (Cheavens, 2019: 453). In this process, we propose that a high quality and benevolent counselling

from the leaders and from the organizations may lead to a more confident and fruitful goal setting process. In the extant literature, there exists some empirical support for the positive effect of support on hope levels of individuals. For instance, Whelan et al. (2016) showed the positive effect of a supportive career guidance on well-being, hope, and self-efficacy levels of individuals. Similarly, Fletcher (2018) showed the positive effect of social support in times of crises contributing to higher levels of hope, optimism, and resilience. Madani et al. (2018) confirmed the positive effect of social support on the hopefulness of cancer patients and Aria, Jafari, and Behifar (2019) confirmed the impact of organizational support on psychological capitals of teachers working in Tehran. Being inspired from the extant literature the following hypothesis H2 has been constructed.

H2. Perceived Organizational support has a positive effect on hope.

3.3 Perceived Organizational Support and Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as an individuals' convictions regarding their capacities to culminate high performance. Self-efficacy convictions designates individuals' perceptions regarding themselves (Bandura, 2010:1). The most effective way of increasing self-efficacy is through experience necessary to master one's capabilities. Moreover, having proper role models and spending time with similar people who have succeeded before is important in the efficiency building process (Bandura, 2010:2). Social persuasion is also important in the efficacy building process since positive appraisals culminate in higher self-efficacy. The way individuals interpret their self-efficacy beliefs is also conceived as the third most important way to increase their self-efficacy. Thus, an encouraging atmosphere and empowerment can contribute to greater self-efficacy. In this point, Phan and Locke (2016) found that social persuasion and support is the most important source of self-efficacy in their study among university teachers. In Klassen and Tze's (2014) meta-analysis, self-efficacy levels of employees have been found to be strongly related with evaluations of their effectiveness by their colleagues and managers. Similarly Rockow et al. (2016) revealed that work efficacy is significantly related to perceived organizational support. Mahdad, Adibi and Saffari (2018) confirmed the effect of perceived organizational support on self-efficacy in Iranian context. More recently, Hen et al. (2020) also confirmed the relationship between perceived organizational support and the self-efficacy of nurses in Chinese context. Taking the extant literature into consideration the following hypothesis H3 has been built:

H3. Perceived Organizational Support has a positive effect on Self-efficacy

3.4 Perceived Organizational Support Resilience

As mentioned before, psychological resilience itself is a kind of ability to "bounce back" from negative events, being able to regulate stress, prevent negative mental outcomes, and reduce work stress (Baykal, 2018:34). Having access to necessary capitals, having competence/expertise, being supported by individuals within an environment, and having the chance to master experiences that contribute to enhancing competencies and individual progress are important factors that contribute to resilience (Luthar, Cicchetti, and Becker, 2000). Furthermore, as Ollier-Malaterre (2010) posits, appreciation and managerial support have a positive impact on resilience, making it important to have organizational support to boost resilience. Empirical proof for the importance of organizational support on resilience also exists. For example; Meredith et al. (2011) showed the effect of perceived organizational support on higher levels of resilience among military officers in the USA. Liu et al. (2013) examined positive resources for combating depressive symptoms among Chinese male correctional officers, and the results of their study showed that perceived organizational support is effective for the resilience and optimism of individuals. Hodlife (2014) reported the role of empowering leadership in fostering employee resilience. Azim and Dora (2016) also confirmed the positive effect of perceived organizational support on all dimensions of psychological capital, including resilience. Similarly, Livingston and Forbes (2016) confirmed the same effect on sports officials, and Zehir and Narcıkara (2016) confirmed the effect of organizational support on resilience in Turkish context. Being inspired from these studies, the H4 hypothesis has been set forth;

H4. Perceived organizational support has a positive effect on resilience.

3.5 Perceived Organizational Support and Authentic Leadership

Empowered individuals seek consistency in leaders' talks and behaviours (Simons et al., 2015), namely when employees feel supported they expect their leaders to be more authentic since they feel they have the right to expect more trustworthy and open leaders and colleagues. Moreover, when employees are empowered, they demand higher levels of managerial adherence to an organization's code of conduct in case of any conflict that may arise; otherwise, their commitment to their organizations ceases to exist (Saleem et al. 2019: 305).

Authentic leadership requires a highly developed organizational environment, resulting in both high levels of self-awareness and greater self-regulated positive be-

haviours culminating in both leader and follower development. But acting as an authentic leader and meeting the demands of empowered employees requires high levels of organizational support when evaluated from the perspective of leaders (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2014:995). On the one hand, in order to act authentically, people ought to have high self-consistency between their convictions, beliefs and behaviours (Walumbwa et al. 2008: 93) and this is possible only if the organizational climate lets individuals experience this consistency. To that point, Avolio and Gardner (2005) posit organizational environments providing open access to information and organizational resources and supporting organizational members while providing equal opportunity for all members to learn and develop, and as a result, organizations will create the required atmosphere for authentic leadership. So, this relationship was tested through the following hypothesis H5:

H5. Perceived Organizational Support has a positive effect on Authentic Leadership.

3.6 Authentic Leadership and Psychological Capital

Under authentic leadership, rather than negative emotions, followers have positive emotions towards the organization and their own selves, thereby increasing their own psychological resource capacities (Baykal, 2018:60). Similarly, Csikszentmihalyi and Hunter (2003) posits that under authentic leadership, individuals' can express themselves easily, culminating in higher motivation and contributing to higher levels of psychological capacity. Moreover, authentic leaders promote follower's built-in motivation and enlarge their mental capabilities. This is possible through the enlargement of psychological capacities of individuals that are state-like but also developable composites of attitudinal and cognitive resources (Wooley, Caza and Levy, 2011). A significant characteristic of psychological capacities is the fact that they are stable over time but open to development (Luthans et al., 2006). Through increased psychological capital, people can use their mental capacity more effectively. They will feel more confident and have a more optimistic and hopeful view about their capacity to use mental powers, which can in turn increase their mental powers in the long run. According to the broaden and build theory of Frederickson (2004), when individuals use their cognitive powers with the help of escalation effect, they end up with greater capacity in that specific power.

These leaders have the capacity to enhance positive sentiments of individuals by building supportive, positive, reasonable, and transparent connections with them (Peterson et al., 2012). In the extant literature, there are an important number of studies confirming authentic leadership and psychological capital relationship. For instance, Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang and Avey (2009) revealed this

relationship in the USA. In another study, Amunkete and Rothmann (2015) also confirmed the same effect. Later, McDowell, Huang and Caza (2018) confirmed the positive effect of authentic leadership on basketball players' psychological capacities. In a more recent study, applied in Pakistan by Adil and Kamal (2019), the results revealed that authentic leadership had direct effects on work engagement, psychological capacity, and the job-related affective well-being of employees. Taking these studies into consideration, the following hypothesis H6 has been constructed in order to test the possible existence of authentic leadership as a mediator using hypothesis H7.

H6. Authentic Leadership has a positive effect on Psychological Capital

H7. Authentic Leadership acts as a mediator in the relationship between Perceived Organizational Support and Psychological Capital.

4 Methodology

4.1 Sample and data collection procedures

This study employs a qualitative research approach to the collection of empirical data from managers and white-collar employees in Turkish service sector firms, especially those working in the finance sector. In Turkey, one of the most meaningful alternatives that can be selected as a representative of the service sector is the finance sector, including banks and all kinds of other financial institutions. It is a typical service sector example with its high level of institutionalization and proportional excess of educated employees and a customer-oriented working style. Owing to the fact that many banks and financial institutions in Turkey have their headquarters in Turkey, the related field research was conducted in Istanbul. Online surveys were sent to the employees of financial institutions located in İstanbul and active in the joint stock market. An online questionnaire was sent through the employees' Linkedin account using a random sampling method over an eight-week period. All respondents were guaranteed that their answers would remain anonymous to minimize the likelihood of common method bias (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Following the data collection process, 2480 online surveys were sent. After eliminating the unusable data, 584 participant data from 121 companies remained. The respondents included 335 (66.7 percent) females and 166 (33.1 percent) males. Most of the respondents were aged between 18 and 25 years (45.5 percent) followed by 26–35 years (41.5 percent), 36–45 years (10.5 percent) and above 55 (2.6 percent). Additionally, 61.6% of the participants are university graduates and 58.2% are lower and middle level managers.

4.2 Measures

For measuring authentic leadership, the most commonly used scale of Walumbwa et al. (2008) was adopted. This is a four-dimensional scale (self-awareness, relational transparency, ınternalized moral perspective, balanced processing) comprising 16 items. A 10-item scale was used to measure perceived organizational support, which was developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) and validated by Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009). Finally, the scale for psychological capital was used from Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio (2007). It is a 24 items' scale with four dimensions (efficacy, hope, resiliency, optimism).

4.3 Reliability and validity

We conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for testing the measurement model and examining the reliability and validity of measures. In EFA, using the principal component analysis with Promax rotation; the results showed that both KMO (0.95) and Bartlett (p <0.001) tests were performed, demonstrating that the sample data were suitable for EFA. Items with low factor loading or items loading into wrong factors were excluded from the scale (AuL_RT5, POS6, POS7, PC_Opt1, PC_Opt3, PC_SeEff5, PC_Res3, PC_Res4, PC_Hope1). Factor analysis showed that all remaining items loaded into their theorizing constructs with the factor loadings were above 0.5. The total variance explained was approximately 71.76 percent. Cronbach alphas values for the nine constructs in the studyranged from 0.79 to 0.94, which represents the internal consistency of scales (Hair et al. 2010).

In the validation for the measurement of specific constructs, confirmatory factor analysis is particularly useful (Hair et al., 2010). In our research, the unified data of 121 firms obtained from 584 participants were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis based on the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique via AMOS (Arbuckle, 2008). SEM allows for a statistical test of the goodness-of-fit for the proposed confirmatory factor solution, which is not possible with principal components/factor analysis (Andersen and Kheam, 1998). Due to the fact that it is the most appropriate method for the data set in the confirmatory factor analysis, Maximum Likelihood estimation method has been used. Assumptions of this method which are a minimum sample of 200, consisting of continuous data and normal distribution assumptions (Hox and Bechger, 1998) are also met.

The CFA results indicate that $\chi 2=1371.5$, df=743, $\chi 2$/df=1.846, CFI=0.962, TLI=0.959, PNFI=0.835, SRMR=0.039, RMSEA=0.038, Pclose>0.05. The factor loadings were statistically significant at p<0.001 and above 0.50 threshold. Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) values are in the range of 0.50-0.70. The composite reliabilities (CR) are in the range of 0.80–0.94. According to results, convergent validity of scales was established (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). For discriminant validity, we examined the square roots of AVE and correlations. As Table 2 shows, correlations among variables are below the square roots of AVE of exact variables, which confirms the scales' discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It is seen that there is a construct validity of scales due to the existence of both convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010).

4.4 Common method bias

Common method bias means that an external factor may affect responses given to scales such as using on-line surveys (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To prevent CMB, in the data collection process, data were collected from some participants face-to-face and some via online tools. The data suspected of being biased were excluded from the sample. Additionally, to test whether there is a CMB problem or not, Harman's single-factor test was used. In this method, all items were loaded onto a single factor in exploratory factor analysis. If the Total Variance Explained is significantly low, it is understood that the factor structure is not explained with a single-factor structure, and there is no common method bias problem. In our study, the total explained variance with a single-factor was %33.77. Accordingly, it has been observed that there is no CMB problem.

4.5 Structural model and hypotheses testing

Structural equation modelling was used to test the hypotheses in this study due to the fact that SEM is an advantageous method that allows the examining of causal relations (Hox and Bechger 1998; Hair et al., 2010). Based on the results of data analysis with AMOS software, the model fit indices of the structural model ($\chi 2$=1680.2 df=871 $\chi 2$/df=1.929 CFI=0.952 TLI=0.948 PNFI=0.834 SRMR=0.062 RMSEA=0.040 Pclose>0.05) confirmed a good fit between model and data (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Age, gender, and education were taken as control variables.

Table 1: CFA, reliability and validity values

FactorS	Std. loading	t-value	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Perceived Organizational Support			0.937	0.937	0.652
POS1	0.863	-			
POS2	0.864	28.121			
POS3	0.903	30.689			
POS4	0.859	27.802			
POS5	0.731	21.225			
POS8	0.744	21.794			
POS9	0.733	21.286			
POS10	0.741	21.674			
Authentic Leadership					
self-awareness			0.836	0.860	0.605
AuL_SA1	0.812				
AuL_SA2	0.74	19.032			
AuL_SA3	0.739	19.013			
AuL_SA4	0.817	21.504			
relational transparency			0.895	0.898	0.690
AuL_RT1	0.77				
AuL_RT2	0.887	23.141			
AuL_RT3	0.869	22.597			
AuL_RT4	0.79	20.169			
internalized moral perspective			0.787	0.840	0.568
AuL_IMP1	0.774				
AuL_IMP2	0.725	17.326			
AuL_IMP3	0.75	17.986			
AuL_IMP4	0.764	18.358			
balanced processing			0.870	0.875	0.701
AuL_BP1	0.839				
AuL_BP2	0.881	25.269			
AuL_BP3	0.788	21.816			
Psychological Capital					
efficacy			0.917	0.919	0.694
PC_SeEff1	0.828				
PC_SeEff2	0.888	26.796			
PC_SeEff3	0.873	26.Ağu			
PC_SeEff4	0.825	23.888			
PC_SeEff6	0.745	20.593			
hope			0.902	0.910	0.670
PC_Hope2	0.744				
PC_Hope3	0.858	21.185			

Table 1: CFA, reliability and validity values (continues)

PC_Hope4	0.802	19.678			
PC_Hope5	0.865	21.372			
PC_Hope6	0.817	20.084			
resiliency			0.875	0.885	0.658
PC_Res1	0.775				
PC_Res2	0.843	21.35			
PC_Res5	0.801	20.137			
PC_Res6	0.824	20.798			
optimism			0.796	0.801	0.504
PC_Opt2	0.645				
PC_Opt4	0.764	14.615			
PC_Opt5	0.796	14.98			
PC_Opt6	0.619	12.484			
Model Fit					
$\chi2$=1371.5 df=743 $\chi2$/df=1.846 CFI=0.962 TLI=0.959 PNFI=0.835 SRMR=0.039 RMSEA=0.038 Pclose>0.05					
CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted					
All factor loadings were statistically significant at p<0.001					

Table 2: Correlations and Discriminant Validity

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. Perceived Org. Support	(0,808)								
2. Efficacy	0,418	(0,833)							
3. Hope	0,436	0,739	(0,818)						
4. Relational Transparency	0,527	0,410	0,442	(0,830)					
5. Resiliency	0,305	0,716	0,668	0,306	(0,811)				
6. Internalized Moral Pers.	0,546	0,458	0,481	0,752	0,355	(0,753)			
7. Self-awareness	0,543	0,346	0,361	0,746	0,242	0,693	(0,778)		
8. Optimism	0,503	0,632	0,613	0,450	0,536	0,454	0,423	(0,710)	
9. Balanced Processing	0,559	0,397	0,407	0,770	0,310	0,629	0,739	0,452	(0,837)
All correlations were statistically significant at p<0.001 Square roots of AVE represent in diagonal.									

As Table 3 shows, perceived organizational support is positively related to optimism (β=0.272; p<0.001), hope (β=0.189; p<0.001), self-efficacy (β=0.189; p<0.001), resilience (β=0.127; p<0.001) and authentic leadership (β=0.632; p<0.001). These results support hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4 and H5. Result of SEM also shows that the effect of authentic leadership on optimism (β=0.368; p<0.001), hope (β=0.391; p<0.001), self-efficacy (β=0.369; p<0.001) and resilience (β=0.290; p<0.001). This findings suggests that authentic leadership is related to psychological capital that supported H6.

We examined the mediating effect of authentic leadership by following the analysis method of Preacher and Hayes (2008). As a result of the indirect effects of perceived organizational support on optimism (β=0.272; p<0.001), hope (β=0.189; p<0.001), self-efficacy (β=0.189; p<0.001) and resilience (β=0.127; p<0.05) in 5000 bootstrap samples with 95% confidence interval (Preacher and Hayes 2008), it has been concluded that authentic leadership has a mediator effect between perceived organizational support and psychological capital. Related mediator effects could be defined as partially due to the fact that the existing relations between perceived organizational support and psychological capital' dimensions have decreased but not disappeared (Baron and Kenny, 1986), as compared to the total effects. Eventually, H7 was supported. The research model and analysis results are given below.

Table 3: Results of Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesized relationship	Total effects	Direct effect	Indirect effect Lower	Bias-corrected 95% CI Upper		Mediation Type	Result
H1	POS-->OPT		0.272***					Supported
H2	POS-->HOPE		0.189***					Supported
H3	POS-->SE		0.189***					Supported
H4	POS-->RES		0.127*					Supported
H5	POS-->AL		0.632***					Supported
H6	AL-->OPT		0.368***					Supported
	AL-->HOPE		0.391***					
	AL-->SE		0.369***					
	AL-->RES		0.290***					
H7	POS-->AL-->OPT	0.505***	0.272***	0.233***	0.132	0.344	Partially Mediation	Supported
	POS-->AL-->HOPE	0.437***	0.189***	0.247***	0.167	0.344		
	POS-->AL-->SE	0.423***	0.189***	0.233***	0.145	0.336		
	POS-->AL-->RES	0.311***	0.127*	0.183***	0.097	0.284		

Standardized path coefficients are given. *p < .05; ***p < .001
χ^2=1680.2 df=871 χ^2/df=1.929 CFI=0.952 TLI=0.948 PNFI=0.834 SRMR=0.062 RMSEA=0.040 Pclose>0.05

5 Discussion

Authentic leadership is a unique kind of leadership that is key to the growth of leaders and followers and incorporates a constant dedication to authenticity and a supportive managerial style (Dimovski et al., 2010). In this paper it was assumed that organizational support was an important organizational asset, and furthermore, it was assumed that this leadership style allowed leaders both to apply their leadership styles as well as experience their authenticity in their organizational context- thus increasing their followers' psychological capacities. Hence, we examined the possible effect of perceived organizational support and authentic leadership and found that the analysis results confirmed our hypothesis. Furthermore, we built hypotheses explaining the relationship of perceived organizational support with each subdimension of psychological capital in order to elaborate these relationships in a more detailed manner while also examining whether authentic leadership has a positive effect on the psychological capital of individuals. Results regarding these relationships also confirmed our results for each of these dimensions including hope, optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy. We also assumed
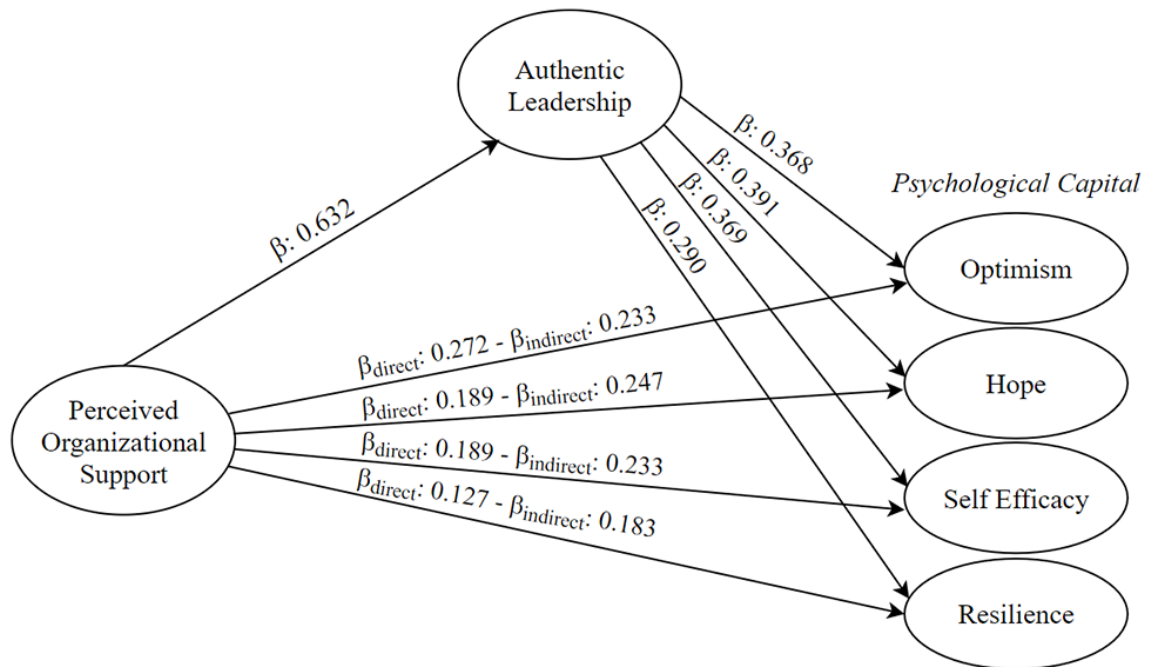
Figure 1: Research Model and Results

that backed by their organizations, the authentic leaders would dominate the resulting positive effect on psychological capacities of individuals, so we hypothesized that it would act as a mediator in the relationship between perceived organizational support and psychological capital. Our results regarding the mediation relationship have also been confirmed, thereby showing that authentic leadership is nourished by perceived organizational support and is an important tangible asset in organizations and can lead to greater psychological capital- as in the examples of McDowell, Huang and Caza (2018) and Adil and Kamal (2019). Since psychological capital is a developable personal resource, our results added extra proof for the improbability of these psychological resources through suitable organizational environments (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007), additionally, confirming the positive effect of authentic effect on individuals' psychological powers (Baykal, 2018). As well, when the support necessary for individuals to feel strong is through both the organization and the leadership channel, the psychological capital of the individuals emerges and develops more easily. In turn, the data returns a partial mediation which may result from the fact that the effect of authentic leadership and the effect of organizational support may be shadowed by each other.

That is to say, in an individuals' mind, a confusion may occur regarding the rank of importance between these two elements contributing to their psychological power. Or due to the fact that all individuals do not have a di-

rect relationship with their leaders, the positive effect on their psychological power may not be totally affected by authentic leadership and other organizational factors can also be effective. The results are enlightening in showing how effective and authentic leadership is effective for the development and psychological empowerment of individuals, and in fact, that individuals' psychological capital can be developed both specifically through leadership and generally through organizational support.

The results reveal insights about how authentic leadership offers potential to calibrate the organisational internal selection environment (in terms of supportive work environment) with tailored leadership style in alignment with a specific combination of perceived organizational support and psychological capital.

The fact that we have limited our scope of our study to İstanbul and the finance sector limits the representativeness of our sample, so conducting the same study in a wider scope, including all provinces of Turkey and as many sectors as possible would be beneficial. This would lead to sample with higher representativeness and make our research statistically more explanatory.

In further studies, we believe that other organizational features can be examined that may culminate a better atmosphere for both authentic leadership and followership, and also, other behavioural results can be examined in relation to followers. Studies with similar models can also be conducted to test the effect of other positive leadership

styles, such as servant leadership or spiritual leadership. Furthermore, different employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction or job performance, can be added to the model in order to test the possible effects of higher psychological capital.

6   Conclusion

Recently, leadership studies changed direction, and they have started to focus on ethical and more human-focused versions of leadership aiming at justice, participation, and glorifying employees, rather than hierarchical chief-officer relationships. In this atmosphere, authentic leadership drawing upon and promoting positive psychological capitals of individuals has become noteworthy as an answer to the needs regarding morality, transparency, and empowerment (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Actually, owing to their ethical self-guidance, relational transparency, and their capacity for balanced processing, authentic leaders can ensure a developmental atmosphere contributing to the psychological capabilities of individuals they lead. Our results confirmed this positive effect of perceived organizational support and authentic leadership on psychological capital of individuals and confirmed the assumed mediator effect of authentic leadership. This study is important and unique in making it clear that in order to increase the psychological capitals of individuals, organizations should empower their employees and create the necessary climate that allows authentic leaders to exert their empowering and supportive leadership. The organizational support perception created by a supportive work environment and supportive leadership are actually quite intertwined, creating a general positive perception regarding both the organization and the leader that 'leads' to more self-efficant, hopeful, optimistic, and resilient individuals. As Sun Tzu suggests, people are both those who fight in battles and also who win them; and the most important person in every battle is the general, that is the leader (Dimovski et al., 2012). In order to make people feel supported and motivated, a good general is needed in the battlefield of business.

7   Recommendations for Further Studies

In this study, being inspired by a positive organizational behavior approach, the effects of perceived organizational support on both authentic leadership propensities of leaders and on increased levels of psychological capital on the side of followers were tested. As well, the positive effect of authentic leadership on the psychological capacities of followers, and the mediator effect of authentic leadership in the relationship between organizational support and psychological capital were examined. Our research

results have confirmed our assumptions. In further studies, the same model for other positive leadership styles such as servant leadership, ethical leadership or spiritual leadership will be tested. Hence, whether or not this confirmed relationship is also valid for the other positive leadership styles will be examined. On the other hand, having conducted this study in the finance sector, this model should also be be tested in other sectors. Moreover, it will be illuminating to design a cross-cultural study to see cultural differences among different countries in relation to this model.

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Kako zaznana organizacijska podpora vpliva na psihološki kapital? Posredniška vloga avtentičnega vodenja

Ozadje in namen: Avtentično vodenje, najbolj opazen pozitiven stil vodenja, ki so ga sprejeli znanstveniki pozitivnega organizacijskega vedenja, je znan po svojem prispevku k psihološkim kapitalu. Ta slog vodenja obstaja in ga je lažje doživeti v razmerah, ko obstajajo podporni organizacijski pogoji. Zato v tej študiji predpostavljamo, da je organizacijska podpora pomemben predhodnik izkušenj in izkazovanja avtentičnega vodenja. Poleg tega lahko v organizacijah, v katerih se prakticira avtentično vodenje, ljudje domnevajo, da do organizacijske podpore prihaja zaradi načina vodenja njihovih vodilnih, zlasti kadar lahko avtentično vodenje zasenči učinek zaznane organizacijske podpore na psihološki kapital posameznikov. V našem raziskovalnem modelu smo torej predlagali, da bo zaznana organizacijska podpora pozitivno vplivala tako na avtentični stil vodenja kot na psihološki kapital posameznikov. Poleg tega bo avtentično vodenje v tem odnosu delovalo kot posrednik.

Oblikovanje / metodologija / pristop: Za namene raziskave smo zbrali podatke od strokovnjakov, ki delajo v storitvenem sektorju v Istanbulu. Zbrane podatke smo analizirali z modeliranjem strukturnih enačb, in tako preizkusili postavljene hipoteze.

Rezultati: Študija je potrdila naše hipoteze v zvezi s pozitivnimi učinki zaznane organizacijske podpore na avtentično vodenje in na štiri osnovne dimenzije psihološkega kapitala: samo-učinkovitost, optimizem, odpornost in upanje. Poleg tega so naši rezultati potrdili statistično pomemben vpliv avtentičnega vodenja na psihološki kapital in delni posredni učinek avtentičnega vodenja v povezavi med zaznano organizacijsko podporo in psihološkim kapitalom.

Zaključek: Naši rezultati kažejo na pomen opolnomočenja zaposlenih in vključevanja avtentičnega vodstvenega vedenja pri povečanju psihološkega kapitala zaposlenih in psihološkem vplivu na delovno učinkovitost zaposlenih.

Ključne besede: *Zaznana organizacijska podpora, Avtentično vodstvo, Psihološki kapital*

AUTHOR GUIDELINES / NAVODILA AVTORJEM

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Članek naj bo razčlenjen v oštevilčena poglavja.

Naslovi članka, poglavij in podpoglavij naj bodo napisani z malimi črkami, da so razvidne kratice. Slike in tabele v elektronski obliki vključite kar v besedilo. Besedilu so lahko priložene slike in/ali tabele na papirju v obliki pripravljeni za preslikavo. V tem primeru naj bo vsaka slika na posebnem listu, oštevilčene naj bodo z arabskimi številkami, v besedilu naj bo označeno, kam približno je treba uvrstiti sliko: na tem mestu naj bo številka slike/tabele in njen podnapis. Slike bomo praviloma pomanjšali in jih vstavili v članek. Upoštevajte, da morajo biti oznake in besedila na vseh slikah dovolj velika, da bodo čitljiva tudi pri velikosti slike, kot bo objavljena v reviji. Vse slike naj bodo črno-bele z belim ozadjem; barvnih slik v tiskani verziji revije ne moremo objaviti, barve so vidne le v spletni verziji.

Članki morajo biti pred objavo v Organizaciji lektorirani. Končno verzijo mora lektorirati naravni govorec oz. lektor s primerljivim znanjem angleščine.

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