THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON ORGANIZATIONAL CYNICISM WITH THE IMPACT OF JOB BURNOUT AND OPENNESS TO CHANGE: A STUDY IN A GLOBAL COMPANY IN RETAIL SECTOR

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PLAGIARISM

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, 1 have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

It is known that human factor, their feelings, and emotions are extremely important to become a successful organization. Negative attitudes towards the organization they work for, dissatisfaction with their job, dissatisfaction with their colleagues and managers, disappointment by them, not being able to rise as they deserve, and not meeting the expectations of the salary they receive make it difficult for the organization to achieve its strategic goals. On the other hand, to survive and gain a competitive advantage, it is not enough to only hire talented employees, ensure that they adapt to the organization, and keep them in the organization. This dissertation aims to question the mediating role of job burnout in the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism and the moderating role of openness to change. The quantitative analyzes conducted in line with the purpose of the research were carried out with the participation of a total of 356 employees in a global organization operating in the retail sector, which is in a structural change. Various analyzes were applied to the obtained data in line with the purpose of the study. SPSS (Version 20.0) statistics program was used during the analyzes.

As a result of the analysis, it was concluded as there was a negative and significant relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism, while the mediating role of job burnout on this relationship was partially significant. Besides, the impact of openness to change in the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism was not significant. It has been found as the emotional exhaustion dimension explains the higher variance of the dependent variable of organizational cynicism. This study contributes to the relevant literature by making managerial suggestions on perceived organizational support, organizational cynicism, and job burnout in the organizational behavior literature. In addition, since this study includes participants from different nationalities of the organization, it is one of the important studies in the relevant literature to examine the relationship between concepts.

Keywords: Perceived Organizational Support, Job Burnout, Organizational Cynicism, Emotional Exhaustion, Retailing Sector.

ÖZET

Başarılı bir organizasyon olmak için insan faktörünün, duygu ve hislerinin son derece önemli olduğu bilinmektedir. Çalıştıkları kuruma yönelik olumsuz tutumlar, işlerinden tatminsizlik, meslektaşları ve yöneticilerinden memnuniyetsizlik, bekledikleri desteği alamama, hak ettikleri gibi yükselememe gibi beklentilerin karşılanmaması örgütün stratejik hedeflerine ulaşmasını zorlaştırır. Öte yandan hayatta kalmak ve rekabet avantajı kazanmak için sadece yetenekli çalışanları işe almak, organizasyona uyum sağlamalarını sağlamak ve organizasyonda tutmak yeterli değildir. Bu doktora tez çalışması algılanan örgütsel destek ile örgütsel sinizm arasındaki ilişkide mesleki tükenmişliğin aracı rolü ile, değişime açıklığın düzenleyici rolünü sorgulama amacı taşımaktadır. Araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda yapılan nicel analizler, perakende sektöründe faaliyet gösteren yapısal değişim içerisinde olan global bir organizasyonda toplam 356 çalışanın katılımı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Elde edilen verilere çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda çeşitli analizler uygulanmıştır. Analizler esnasında SPSS istatistik programı kullanılmıştır.

Yapılan analizler sonucunda algılanan örgütsel destek ile örgütsel sinizm arasında negatif ve anlamlı bir ilişki bulunurken, mesleki tükenmişliğin bu ilişki üzerindeki aracılık rolünün de kısmı anlamlı olduğu görülmüştür. Öte yandan değişime açıklığın, algılanan örgütsel destek ile örgütsel sinizm arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolü etkisi anlamlı çıkmamıştır. Mesleki tükenmişlik boyutlarından duygusal tükenmişlik, örgütsel sinizmdeki varyansın çoğunu açıklamaktadır. Bu çalışma örgütsel davranış literatürüne algılanan örgütsel destek, örgütsel sinizm, ve mesleki tükenmişlik konularında yönetsel önerilerde bulunarak ilgili yazına katkı sağlamaktadır. Ek olarak bu çalışma organizasyonun farklı uyruklara mensup katılımcıları kapsadığından, kavramlar arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaya yönelik ilgili literatürde öncü çalışmalardan biridir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Algılanan Örgütsel Destek, Örgütsel Sinizm, Mesleki Tükenmişlik, Değişime Açıklık, Perakende Sektörü.

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In loving memory of my Dad...

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ABBREVIATIONS

COR Conservation of Resources

CYNTOT Organizational Cynicism_TOTAL

GDP Gross Domestic Product

JB Job Burnout

JBTOT Job Burnout_TOTAL

KMO Keiser-Meyer-Olkin

KPI Key Performance Indicators

MBI Maslach Burnout Inventory

OPNTOT Openness to Change_TOTAL

POS Perceived Organization Support

POSTOT Perceived Organization Support_TOTAL

US United States

USD United States Dollars

WHO World Health Organization

1. INTRODUCTION

In today's rapidly changing world, organizations try to adopt their functions and assets to survive and perform sustainable growth. One of the most fundamental assets of the organization is the human factor. The human factor directly influences the organizations' success in the future. Due to this reason, organizations invest in their human sources and try to understand how they can improve human-related problems.

According to Leidner and Smith (2013), 4% of the employees move from one company to another due to the promotions, which are directly related to the monetary factors, on the other hand, 30% of the movements have been occurred due to demotions. This shows that employees seek well-being in their organizations, and besides, they have also some additional expectations from their organizations. Zukin and Szeltner (2012) explained that younger employees initially are looking for being happy in their organizations. If employees feel a high level of strain in the organization, they may lose their positive mood and attitude in the work environment. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) concluded that perceived organizational support (POS) reduces the stress level and strain of the employees in the organization and also generates a positive impact on employees' performance.

When employees have a high-stress level and set high objective for themselves, but the organization does not support them reciprocally, then they may face some burnout problems (Cemaloglu and Sahin, 2007). Maslach et al. (2001) described job burnout as if an employee has idealism but performs under his/her potential with weariness, and then this situation may lead to job burnout. If employees have burnout problems in their workplace, this may influence their attitudes and behaviors negatively.

Employees may have distrust towards the motives of their managers, consequently, this may lead to poor organizational performance, lack of integrity, and information sharing; as a result; they may have cynic behaviors towards the organization. Wanaus et al. (1997) explained that employees perform pessimistic, frustrated, and hopeless behaviors towards the decisions, which are taken in their organization. Moreover, in other studies, cynicism is explained as employees' belief that their efforts do not solve the organizational problems and they are unable to change anything in the organization (McClough, Rogelberg, Fisher, and Bachiochi, 1998).

Based on the existing literature, there are respectable amount of studies which show the relationships between perceived organizational support, job burnout, and organizational cynicism, however, there is not any specific study that is directly deal with these variables in a changing global company, which is operating in the retail sector within different countries in the world.

The main business of this company is buying products all over the world and sells them in their stores. The company intends to develop its own designed products to compete in a highly competitive market and differentiate its products to eliminate the high competition risks in its market. The company is radically transforming its processes to achieve these objectives.

In this study; the importance of these relations in a changing global company, the differences in employees' perception of support, and negative behaviors towards the organization among different nations will be analyzed. This study will investigate how employees perceive the support from their organizations during this transformation period and the impact of this perceived support on the employee's behaviors and attitudes.

The company where the research was conducted operates in sales activities in several European countries. The company decided to develop its own products and improve its own brand to sell to their customers, which needs new individual capabilities on product development, after-sales service, and product quality control. The company aimed to centralize most of its core operations and performed a large-scale structural transformation process. The roles and responsibilities of the employees, their way of working, organizational/personal KPIs (key performance indicators), and even physical working places have been changed.

While this transformation period started, the company aimed to complete this whole change period within the scope of the 5 years plan, which may generate stress, uncertainty, and lack of visibility about the future to the employees.

The main purposes of this study are:

- To understand the relationship between perceived organizational support (POS), job burnout (JB), and organizational cynicism in a changing global company by comparing different nations.
- 2. To investigate the relationship of the mediating impact of job burnout between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicismin a changing global company by comparing different nations.
- 3. To study the relationship between POS and organizational cynicism with the moderating role of openness to change in a changing global company by comparing different nations.

The research question of the current study is:

- Which dimensions of job burnout explain the majority of variance in the dependent variable of organizational cynicism?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Perceived Organizational Support

2.1.1. Definition of perceived organizational support

In today's changing world, organizations consider their employees' well-being and think of them as a value for their survival. If employees feel dedicated to their organization, they show higher performance, contribution and outcomes, lower absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Rhoades et al., 2001). For that reason, perceived organizational support (POS) was studied by several scholars. As a first step, before describing POS, it would be more beneficial to understand the meaning of perception, organizational support, and social exchange theory.

Eisenberger et al. (1986) explained organizational support as to how employees attribute human-like characteristics to their organizations. In other words, individuals pay more attention if the resources are obtained as an unrestricted choice (Etzioni, 1961; Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Gould, 1979; Eisenberger, Rhoades and Cameron, 1999).

Additionally, Gouldner (1960) implied that when an individual act to the others in a positive way, then there might be positive returns to them reciprocatively.

Ozdevecioglu (2003) stated that perception could be explained as to how individuals perceive their surroundings, which can be varied as considering their beliefs, culture, lifestyle, values, and personality.

Perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as the perception of the employees how they perceive that their organization values their well-being and contribution. These behaviors will trigger the employees' commitment to their organizations and lead supportive behaviors upon their organizations. Employees generally assess their organizations to understand how positively they behave to them and simply show their valuation in their organizations (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa, 1986). Makanjee et al, (2006) emphasized the perceived organizational support as to how much an organization commits to its employees.

Shaffer et al. (2001) explained the perceived organizational support as employees' feelings of confidence towards their organizations and how the decisions have been taken in their company. Perceived organizational support (POS) is very important because it is a good indicator of the employees' perceptions about the value, which is given by their organizations to them. The perception of organizational support may vary employee to employee. In order to understand the basis of the POS, it is important to look at its roots, which are coming from the Social Exchange Theory, Reciprocity Theory, Organizational Support Theory and organizational justice (Gouldner, 1960; Babin and Boles, 1996; Eisenberger et al, 2001; Kocel 2015; Zagenczyk, 2001; Liu, 2004; Khurram, 2009).

There are several studies carried out by scholars about perceived organizational support and its impacts on the organizations. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) explained that organizations frequently assess their employees' commitment and loyalty to their organizations because the higher employee commitment and loyalty lead to more performance and positive outcomes in organizations. On the other hand, employees assess their organization considering how much their organization considers their financial situation, career growth, and their needs for approval. Iplik, Iplik, and Efeoglu (2014) stated that perceived organizational support (POS) is the perception of the employees how the organization considers their ideas, well-being, and social conditions and concluded as employers need to consider their employees' well-being and make them feel valuable in the organizations.

Another important factor, which has a crucial impact on the perception of the employees, is their relationships with their managers. Since employees need an appraisal, managers' support plays a crucial role in the organization. Moreover, the perception of justice has a fundamental impact on perceived organizational support. For example, distributive justice; which means the fair distribution of the resources in an organization, and procedural justice; which adds up to the fairness of the justice-related to procedural processes or fairness of decision-making processes have a strong impact on POS (Krishnan and Mary, 2012). For that reason, when employees perceive that rewards, appraisals, working conditions, resource allocation, and distributions are improved by organizations instead of governmental regulations; this will positively impact the POS in the organizations (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

2.1.2. Importance of perceived organizational support

The research related to POS shows that there are noteworthy outcomes of the high level of POS in organizations as explained as follows; high level of POS increases employee performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986), job involvement (O'Driscoll and Randall, 1999), and affective commitment to the organizations (Eisenberger et al., 2001). When a manager positively behaves to their subordinates and achieves to increase the level of POS in the organization, this will be ascending the satisfaction of the employees, their contribution to the organization, their loyalty, and commitment to their works or the workplace. As a result, these behaviors would have a positive impact on a high level of performance and effective contributions to the organizations (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch, 1997). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) emphasized that perceived organization support (POS) considers employees' high performance and when there is an increment in the performance of the employees and a positive mood from the employees towards their organization; then organizations would reciprocatively consider their welfare and would also support their positive behaviors.

In the literature, the beneficial outcomes of the POS can be summarized as favorable behaviors towards the organization such as work engagement, commitment, and high-level of performance, job satisfaction, and employee well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Iplik, Iplik and Efeoglu, 2014). Socio-emotional needs are important for employees, in other words, POS contributes to the employees to fulfill their needs such as affiliation, approval, emotional support, and needs for esteem (Eisenberger and Stinglhamber, 2011).

Additionally, POS in the organization highlight to the employees that when they increase their performance, then the organization will consider this performance change and positively assess it (Eder and Eisenberger, 2008). In organizations with high-perceived organizational support, the highly contributing behavior of the employees is highly welcomed and also rewarded. Thus, employees will generate expectancy for rewards and appraisals from the organization and they will continue to perform positive behaviors towards the organizations. As a conclusion, this will lead to the organizations to achieve their goals and targets (Eisenberger and Stinglhamber, 2011).

Related studies about perceived organizational support (POS) show that with the help of the high level of POS, employees feel confident towards their organization. Therefore, employees increase their motivations, improve their performance, and develop a high level of commitment to their organizations (Zhang, Farh, and Wang, 2012).

Stress is the emotional reaction of the individuals to the objective stressors. Each person feels differently and creates an action to the stressors. The increased level of POS reduces the level of stress among individuals. This will support the employee's contribution to their organization, increases participation and involvement in their job environment (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Studies related to POS show that the higher POS in the organization would lead to lower work-related stress in the organization.

On the other hand, the higher level of perceived organizational support (POS) influences the work performance of the employees, the commitment of the employees, positively supporting the contribution and involvement of the teams, reduce absenteeism and work more closely at work (Shaw et al., 2013). Yilmaz and Gormus (2012) explored that when the employees perceive that there is a high level of organizational support, their stress level and absenteeism will reduce and they will be more reluctant for intention to quit their job.

2.1.3. Theoretical foundation of perceived organizational support

The theoretical foundation of perceived organizational support is explained by three theories as follows:

- **Social Exchange Theory:** Homans (1961), Emerson (1962), and Blau (1964) are the pioneer researchers who studied the social exchange theory. Theorists agree that interactions between the social networks generate obligations.

Blau (1964) emphasized, "Interactions are usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person. These interdependent relations generate qualified relations". Emerson (1976) stated that parties who have relations must obey some rules and norms for exchange. These rules and the norms are the main root of the exchange process, which frames the organizational behavior in the working environment.

There are formal and informal rules inside the organization. Employees perceive that not obeying the informal rules may create some problems in the coming future of their organizations. On the other hand, they expect that when they voluntarily obey these informal rules, positive returns would occur (Cook and Rice, 2003).

Blau (1964) explained that during the social exchange process, there are two dimensions, which are called economic and social. In economical exchange; salary increase, rewards, bonuses could be taken into consideration, and for the social exchange; appraisal, approval, loyalty could be counted. Individuals can expect economical benefits for the short term but for the social exchange, the social returns will be obtained in the long term. Eisenberger et al. (1986) explained that when there is a positive outcome of the relations, then the relations would be positively impacted. This would empower the relations and exchange between the employees and the organizations.

Eisenberger et al. (1986) explored the relationship between absenteeism and exchange ideology in their study. The tendency of absenteeism is affected more for the individuals who have a high level of exchange ideology and on the other hand, the tendency of absenteeism is affected low for the individuals who have a low level of exchange ideology. Additionally, within the framework of social exchange theory, the study suggested that exchange ideology empowers the relationship of POS by felt obligation, performance, and job involvement (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Moreover, the social exchange relationship develops when the organization considers its employees. This will conclude a beneficial outcome for the organization. In other words, fair transaction among the strong relationships creates positive job attitudes, effective work behavior, and a high level of performance in the organizations (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, and Rupp, 2001).

- Reciprocity Theory: Reciprocity as an interdependent exchange rule can be defined as if a party supplies a benefit to another party; this opposite party aims to respond kindly. On the other hand, Gouldner (1960) emphasized that reciprocity as a folk belief, which states all exchanges, will reach equilibrium and who are supportive will find positive support and who are unsupportive will find negative returns. Gallucci and Perugini (2003) stated that the tendency of negative reciprocity will return a negative behavior to the other parties and the tendency of positive reciprocity will return a positive behavior along the same line.

Eder and Eisenberger (2008) stated that when organizations increase the level of POS, it increases the positive behaviors and performance of the employees considering the reciprocity rules. Moreover, when the employees perceive that organizations consider their well-being, employees will perform in a positive behavior towards their organizations.

Organizational Support Theory: Organizational support theory is initially explored by Eisenberger (1986) and explained as to how an organization considers the well-being of their employees. Employees perceive that to be able to perform their job effectively, their organization has to consider their contribution and well-being; besides, the organization has to extend itself to support their employees and open to help if their employees need any support. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), the organizational support theory emphasizes that organizations are ready to help their employees if the employees stay in a stressful environment and employees consider positively or negatively how the organization reacts to their attitudes. In addition, organizations need to consider the employees' needs such as emotional needs, need for appraisal, and approval.

It is also explained as employees have a perception about their organization as to how much they consider their well-being, future career needs, their need for approval, and need for an appraisal. Employees try to understand how valuable they are for their organizations. They expect benefits from their organizations while they perform over the determined targets (Cullen, Edwards, Casper, and

Gue, 2014). Organizations have financial, moral, and legal responsibility for their actions through their agents. They define the continuity of the norms and policies to regulate the role behaviors in the organizations. For these reasons, employees attribute human-like characteristics to their organization and try to understand how much their organization considers their well-being and contributions (Levinson, 1965, Eisenberger et al., 1986; Dogru, 2016).

2.1.4. Antecedents of perceived organizational support (POS)

Several scholars with different perspectives review antecedents of the perceived organizational support. Andrews and Kacmar (2001) mentioned the essentials of organizational justice and the perception of organizational policy. Moreover, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) emphasize the importance of the managers' support for the team, organizational justice, rewards, and working conditions. The scholars highlighted the importance of managers' support in different research (Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe, 2003; Wayne et al., 1997). Liu (2004) added the importance of the human resources factors and rewards to the perceived organizational support.

Ghani and Hussin (2009) mentioned in their study that informational justice and development opportunities of the employees have an important impact on perceived organizational support. According to the study by Zhang et al. (2012), the existence of informational justice, distributive justice, and procedural justice has an important impact on perceived organizational support. Krishnan and Mary (2012) focused on human resources factors such as personal development, leader-member exchange relations, and the personality of the members.

In this study, Rhoades and Eisenberger's results (2002) are considered to explain the main antecedents of the POS, which are organizational justice, supervisors support, rewards, and working conditions of the members in the organization as explained follows:

- **Organizational Justice:** is described as the fairness that is perceived by the employees within an organization. Justice is a human right for the beginning of humanity and in the last centuries, studies arise to understand the classification of the organization justice. By 1975, the research tried to define organizational justice with the dimension of distributive justice considering the fair distribution of the resources and benefits (Basar and Sigri, 2015).

In 1977, Folger and Konovsky (1989) added a new description to the justice that "distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employees receive, procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts". For the following years, several research focused on clarifying the classification of justice and defining the scope of the classifications (Leventhal, 1980; Greenberg, 1987; Bies and Moag, 1986; Bies and Saphiro, 1988; Brockner et al., 1994; Dessler, 1999; Charas et al., 2001; Colquitt, 2012). Leventhal (1976) first defined distributive justice questions and afterward (1980) also came up with the questions for procedural justice as a dimension of organizational justice. Bies and Moag (1986) developed interpersonal justice as a third dimension. Finally, Bies and Moag (1986) and Shapiro et al. (1994) defined informational justice as one of the last dimensions of organizational justice.

Greenberg (1987) stated, "a process approach to justice focuses on how various outcomes (in organizations, pay and recognition are good examples) are determined and in contrast, content approaches concern themselves with the fairness of the resulting distribution of outcomes". Bies and Shapiro (1988) made research called mute and voice interviews. In the first phase, the sample group received the information in a mute mode (only reading) and the other sample got the information voice. Interviews have been done with these groups and they got feedback.

Bies and Shapiro (1988) concluded, "The type of procedure and the presence or absence of justification would have independent effects on judgments of procedural fairness".

In 1994, Brockner and his friends (1994) conducted research about procedural justice and they concluded that if there is a low procedural justice on employees, then there is a negative effect on an individual's behaviors and perceptions. On the other hand, if there is a high procedural justice in the organization, then the negative effect will be less on the individual's behaviors. Procedural justice researchers imply that managers should consider the employees' behaviors and responses to procedures. However, distributive justice defines the scope of the perceptions of outcome fairness. Cohen et al. (2001) explained as "distributive justice was found to be related to such work outcomes as pay satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and trust in an organization".

According to the Colquitt (2001) study, procedural and interactional justice has important differences from each other. Interactional justice is defined as the quality of interpersonal behavior during the implementation of procedural justice (Bies and Moag, 1986). Moreover, interpersonal treatment is vital for overwhelming the negative effect of behaviors (Ambrossa, 2000).

Colquitt (2012) explained the differences between interpersonal justice and informational justice with an example as follows. When the organizations inform one of the employees about his notice to leave the company, this is not only related to the informational justice of the organizations. This is also important from the aspect of interpersonal justice how the supervisor communicates this with the subordinate.

Finally, Andrews and Kacmar (2001) concluded that when the organization rewards its employees, they perceive that an organization considers their well-being and which improves the POS perception towards the organization (Dogru, 2016). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2001) mentioned that the fair distribution of the resources has a positive cumulative impact on POS. Liu (2004) emphasized that procedural justice and distributive justice has a significant effect on the perception of organizational support.

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) concluded in their study that procedural justice has more impact on POS comparing distributive justice due to the reason that distributive justice perception is impacted with a salary increase or promotion, which rarely, occurs in the organization.

On the other hand, procedural justice has more impact on POS because of the need for a fair performance review; the need for employees' participation in the decision-making process is frequently seen in the organizations.

- Supervisor Support: Employees perceive a general feeling about their organizations and their managers. They develop a view of how much their managers consider their ideas, value their contributions, and care about their wellbeing. Managers are the agents of the organizations and their behavior shows an overview of the organization. For that reason, employees evaluate their supervisor's behaviors towards them, how fair they are treating, and how they evaluate their performance in the organization. (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Dogru, 2016).

Supervision support is measured with the leader-member exchange in order to examine the supervisors' consideration about the employees' contribution and performance (Wayne et al., 1997; Hofmann and Morgeson, 1999; Hutchison, 1997). According to the research related to supervisors' support and perceived organizational support (POS), it is observed that there is a strong and positive relationship between the concepts (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, and Allen, 2007). Additionally, according to the Kraimer and Wayne (2004) studies performed in international companies, scholars emphasized that there is a positive and significant relationship with the supervisor support and POS in the same way.

Rewards and Job Conditions: Shore and Shore (1995) emphasized that the recognition of the employees has a positive and significant impact on perceived organizational support (POS). In addition to Shore and Shore's studies, there are several additional factors that are found related to rewards and job conditions, and POS. According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), recognition, fair performance reviews, pay and promotions, the autonomy of the employees, development opportunities, stress are also defined as important factors that have a significant impact on POS.

Employees compare their salaries, salary increases, performance, and development opportunities with their colleagues in the organization. This can be compared with the person who makes a similar job or who exists in their organization with a different role. When there is a fair assessment related to factors, they develop a positive perception of the organization (Allen, Shore, and Griffeth, 2003; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Dogru (2016) implied that a fair increment of the salary and assessment during the performance review is related to procedural justice in an organization and if the perception of the employees is positive in this respect then it can be said that procedural justice has a positive impact on POS. When employees perform good results and contribute to the organizational goals, they expect to have a similar opportunity to grow.

Employees compare their results with their colleagues and assess the organization how they evaluate the results. When employees observe fairly behaviors, this increases positive POS.

Moreover, employees feel positive POS if they perform their jobs with autonomy and in a good working condition. Autonomy means having the right to self-government. On the other hand, working conditions can be explained as all factors, which influence the employee's behaviors in the workplace such as tasks, physical environment, roles, and responsibilities. Employees look for the answers to the questions how much they can balance their job and their family (social life), do they have enough authority and autonomy to make the decisions, how easily can they contribute to the decision-making process, does the working conditions are satisfying themselves or not.

When employees feel a positive perception in concern with these factors, it significantly increases their perceived organizational support level (Edwards, 2009; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, and Sucharski, 2004; Dogru, 2016).

2.1.5. Consequences of perceived organizational support (POS)

Positive POS has a significant positive impact on several job-related concepts. According to the wide range of studies, POS has an impact on organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore and Tetrick, 1991; Rhoades et al., 2001), job involvement (Eisenberger et al., 1999), job performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski, and Aselage, 2009), stress (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Stamper and Johlke, 2003), desire to remain at work (Rhoades et al., 2002), withdrawal behavior (Rhoades and Eisenberger,

2002; Dawley, Houghton, and Bucklew, 2010). The main consequences of perceived organizational support are explained as follows:

- **Organizational Commitment:** can be described as the desire and feeling of the employees towards their organization. There are three dimensions of organizational commitment, which can be named as an affective, continuance, and normative commitment. In affective commitment, individuals have a positive and emotional mood towards their organization. In continuance commitment, the employee feels that staying in the organization creates more benefits to the employee when comparing leaving it. Finally, due to normative commitment, individuals' feelings can be explained as staying in the organization will be better related to their moral and ethical values (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

According to Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Armeli et al. (1998), individuals generate affective commitment when they feel that the organization cares about them. Since, POS improves the respect, appraisal, and approval needs of individuals; they generate affective commitment towards their organizations (Rhoades et al., 2001). Moreover, Ozdevecioglu (2003) emphasized that affective commitment has the highest relationship with the POS while the continuance commitment has the lowest.

According to the study of Ceylan and Senyuz (2003), there is a significant and positive relation between POS and organizational commitment. The higher level of POS creates a higher level of organizational commitment. According to the study of Bilgin and Demirer (2012), which was conducted in the hotel industry, they implied that there is a significant and positive relationship between POS and affective commitment. Moreover, Kaplan and Ogut (2012) emphasized that there is a significant and positive relationship between POS and affective and normative commitment whilst there is a negative relationship between POS and continuance commitment.

Performance: Rotundo and Sackett (2002) explained performance as comparing the outcome of the individuals according to the previously set goals and objectives. When individuals perceive that there is support from their organization, employees react positively to this behavior and they improve their performance (Eisenberger, 1986; Armeli et al., 1998). This reaction is aligned with the reciprocity theory. When there is a positive reaction from one party, the other party reacts in the same way (Gallucci and Perugini, 2003). In addition to this, Chen, Aryee, and Lee (2005), Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2012) explained that there is a positive and significant relationship betweenPOS and an individual's performance. According to the study of Erdem (2014), when individuals foresee benefits and gain from their organization, they generate a positive feeling towards their organization, and they improve their performance.

Stress: can be described as a tension of the individuals related to physiological and physical impacts. Stress has an impact on the physical and psychological health of the individuals, which reduces the performance (Oktay, 2005). The factors which are related to POS such as improving working conditions, reallocation of the workload, eliminating the uncertainty of the roles and responsibilities in the organization, supervisors' support and employee contribution to the decision making process reduces the strain and stress level of the individuals (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Stamper and Johlke, 2003).

Moreover, there is a negative relation between the POS and stress levels of the individuals. When there is a high POS, it reduces the stress level of the individuals by supporting them for their socio-emotional needs and resources needs to achieve their jobs (Robblee, 1998). According to the studies of some scholars, POS has a vital impact on reducing burnout and fatigue (Cropanzano et al., 1997), apprehension and panic (Robblee, 1998; Venkatachalam, 1995), physical impacts such as headaches (Robblee, 1998; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

- **Desire to Remain:** first studies about the desire to remain were made by March and Simon (1958), which explains that intention to quit, is the planned activities of the individuals to leave their organization. When the employees are dissatisfied with their job, feel uncomfortable conditions, they may decide the leave their companies (Griffeth et al., 2000). When individuals foresee positive moods from

their organization and feel comfortable, individuals develop an attitude for a desire to remain (Joo, Hahn, and Peterson, 2015). Nye and Witt (1993) analyzed the relationship between the desire to remain in the organization and POS. It is concluded that POS has a significant impact on the desire to remain theattitude of the individuals.

- **Job Involvement:** can be explained as the degree to which employees position their work in their identity (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Job involvement creates a motivation towards their job, and which plays a crucial role in performance increment, contribution, and satisfaction in the workplace (O'Driscoll and Randall, 1999). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) explained that POS creates a feeling that employees are capable to do their job, which increases the job involvement of the individuals. Thus, it is observed that there is a positive and significant relationship between POS and job involvement.
- Withdrawal Behavior: occurs when individuals are less committed to their organization. It shows themselves as lateness to their job, absenteeism to their jobs, and turnover implementation. POS has a negative relationship with withdrawal behavior (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Individuals act withdrawal behavior while other group members act in similar ways. They react to their behavior as social loafing (Latane, Williams and Harkins, 1979), or modeling (Bandura, 1977). Individuals behave aligning with the workgroups to eliminate the criticism thus; they feel safer and part of the group members.

According to the study of Bennett and Robinson (2000), they emphasized that 31% of the observed group worked slowly by voluntarily, 33% of the group came to their work lately, and 52% of the group took longer break time. For that reason, it is essential to prevent withdrawal behavior in organizations. Researchers examined that absenteeism of the groups in the organization is related to the absenteeism mood of the individuals (Mathieu and Kohler, 1990) and the norm of the withdrawal behavior mediates this relation (Gellatly, 1995).

2.1.6. Features of the supportive organization

According to the study of Ozdevecioglu (2003) the features of the supportive organization can be explained in five main points, which are stated as follows;

1. Considering employees' ideas and contribution: When individuals feel that their ideas are considered by their organization, they develop positive attitudes towards their organization, and they feel committed to their organization. This behavior supports the positive outcome in the organization (Ozdevecioglu, 2003; Ceylan and Senyuz, 2003).

- 2. Setting a good working environment and secure the individuals' jobs: When employees feel that they are working in a good working environment and their organization forgive an innocent mistake arise from them, they perform positive attitudes towards their organization. (Eisenbeerger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Ozdevecioglu, 2003; Tuna, 2015).
- 3. Creating supportive communication inside the organization and develops a good working climate within the organization: Individuals expect to behave as themselves and they demand an open relationship in the organization. When organizations regulate the communication between managers, their subordinates, and within their peers, this will support the confidence of the employees towards their organization (Ozdevecioglu, 2003; Tuna, 2015; Dogru, 2016).
- 4. Creating equal and fair behavior inside the organization: Employees expect a fair attitude from their supervisors and organizations about how the resources are allocated among them, how the resources are distributed, the performance reviews, and the execution of fair appraisals. When individuals perceive the fairness of the organization, they increase their commitment and involvement to their job, which creates positive performance outcomes (Eisenberger, 2001; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Ozdevecioglu, 2003).

5. Considering the employees as a value and support them if they need help:

Employees expect that when they need any support from their supervisor or organization, the organization considers their well-being and give them support for their problems (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Dogru, 2016). This attitude creates a positive mood for the organization. Employees consider their managers as a supportive leader (Ozdevecioglu, 2003).

2.2. Job Burnout

2.2.1. History and definition of job burnout

In today's organizations, burnout is frequently seen as a social problem that reduces the individual's performance in their organizations. According to the studies made in 15 European Union countries with 15.986 participants, it is observed that job-related factors create significant problems towards the individuals' personal and work life. These problems are defined as, 30% have backbone pain, 28% have an increased level of stress, 20% have chronic fatigue while performing their tasks, 13% have a headache (Paoli, 1997).

According to the Gabriel (2000) study, it is mentioned that in 1993, the general cost of burnout and stress to the United States (U.S) is 200 Billion United States Dollars (USD) and it is expected that in 2000 it will be around 340 Billion USD. Leka and Jain (2010) explained in their research that in 2004, the cost of the illnesses related to burnout and stress to the European Union was around 265 Billion Euros, which is roughly 4% of the European Union gross domestic product (GDP).

Considering the cost of burnout to the organization, it should be essential to define the meaning of burnout. Freudenberger (1974) described burnout as loss of power, increased level of exhaustion, or unwilling behaviors of the individuals. Additionally, Maslach and Jackson (1981) explained burnout as "common emotional fatigue (burnout) and a cynicism syndrome among the individuals who work face-to-face with people and do jobs that involve human process as compared to a mechanic or technical process".

Maslach et al. (2001) described job burnout as employees' perception, which leads to a lack of commitment to their organizations, discouraged behaviors, and employees' negative feelings towards their jobs. Cemaloglu and Sahin (2007) explained that burnout occurs in some cases when employees set themselves ambitious targets and when they are unable to achieve these targets due to the unfavorable work environment, therefore employees feel disappointed.

Burnout can be observed when employees force their potential by working hard, set hardreachable targets, and perform more than their capacity. It can be observed when they
exhaust themselves so much but as a result when they cannot change the organizational
situations. Baltas and Baltas (2004) categorized job burnout within three main stress
factors, which are overloading, conflict, and ambiguity in roles. There are three
dimensions for job burnout, which are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack
of personal accomplishment.

According to the latter scholars, burnout is defined as the lowered expectations from their job due to resulted from the stress of their job (Shirom, 1989). Gulluce and Iscan (2010) explained that individuals might have trouble during their job and relations within the organization. These factors increase the stress level of individuals and lead to emotional tension. Burnout is the reaction to the emotional tension of the individuals. Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) explained burnout such as lack of energy and ambition to perform their job. This occurs while the individuals are losing their enthusiasm towards their job. Schaufeli and Enzman (1998) added that burnout release when there is a decline in work enthusiasm and dedication towards the job.

Scholars try to examine the factors related to the job such as uncertainty, work stress, workload, withdrawing behavior, continuingly absenteeism, lately arrival from the breaks, social support from their home, policy of the company expectations from their jobs, supervisor support, social relations in the organization, demographic features (gender, age, education, etc.), personal factors which are patience and locus of control.

Generally, job-related factors are more compatible with burnout comparing biological factors (Maslach and Schaufelli, 1993).

Friedman (1991) argues that there are two aspects of burnout, which are organizational perspective and personal perspective. The profile of the workers, their intention for success, and expectancy from the organization leads to certain burnout problems. On the other hand, organizational climate and culture, workload, the uncertainty of the task, and lack of supervisory support create burnout problems. Gold and Roth (1993) described that burnout increases constantly for a period of time.

Additionally, Pines (1993) explained that burnout is a negative output of emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion from the job, which results in a perception of disappointment. This disappointment perception occurs while the individuals are completely demanding to perform their jobs, but they are unable to do it.

Farber (2000) explained that burnout is the individual's perception that their efforts and performance is inadequate for the others. Additionally, individuals feel that there is a lack of appraisal, accomplishment, recognition from their supervisors and they have a huge workload to perform their job, which triggers burnout. Gold and Bachelor (2001) remarks burnout as "stress level of the employees in their social and professional life which eliminates individuals functioning properly.

2.2.2. Different perspectives of burnout

There are different types of perspectives for burnout, which can be named; clinical, social-psychological, existential, organizational, and social-historical.

2.2.2.1. Clinical perspective

The clinical perspective argues that the reason for job burnout is related to intrapersonal reasons. This perspective emphasized that the reason for the lack of enthusiasm and energy of the individuals is related to the personal profile of the individuals. According to the study of Freudenberger (1974), it is observed that highly dedicated employees and most committed employees face emotional depletion and lack of motivation while they are unable to succeed in their job and lack of resources to do their job. On the other hand, low committed employees face less health and other problems (Byrne, 1999).

Freudenberger (1974) proposed that to eliminate the negative behaviors of the employees and to reduce their health problems, employees need to take more breaks and deep breaths, make exercises that are more physical while they are doing their jobs. Moreover, Hobfoll (1989) argued that individuals lose their motivation and engagement to their job related to their working conditions.

The impact of these working conditions changes related to the personal profile of the individuals. He defined in the theory of Conservation of Resources (COR), that individuals are motivated to achieve their targets and have a desire to be successful. While they are moving in this direction, they use resources to achieve it, which are personal characteristics, personal energy, working conditions, and their health.

Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, and Jackson (2003) implied that the COR theory is related to two factors, which are personal factors and job-related. Individuals aim to achieve their objectives and control their working environment and protect themselves from their surroundings. While they are doing this, their personal factors impress their performance and lack of performance leads to burnout problems.

Additionally, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) explained the job resources such as managers' supports, performance appraisals, fair feedback and reviews, autonomy to do their job, personal development, and growth opportunities. They divided the job resources into two parts, which are instinct and extrinsic. When they achieve instinct (learning, personal growth) and extrinsic (help from their managers and clear organizational goals) motives together, they are more willing to achieve their job and they face fewer burnout problems.

2.2.2. Social-psychological perspective

Maslach (1976) firstly argued the social-psychological perspective of the burnout problems in her study who made interviews with the human service workers. It is concluded that working conditions and expectation of the individuals create emotional fatigue, therefore social environment and relations of the individuals plays a significant role in their burnout problems.

Different from the clinical perspective, social-psychological perspectives discuss that the working environment, social relations of the individuals play a crucial role in comparing individuals' personal profiles.

Maslach and Jackson (1981) discussed burnout with three main dimensions, which are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment. The dimension will be explained as follows:

Emotional exhaustion is mostly related to the stress level of the job and working conditions. Emotional exhaustion occurs as a reaction of the individuals towards the condition (Maslach, 1981). Emotional exhaustion can be described as losing the emotional resources, which are feeling tired, lack of energy, less intention to work, chronic fatigue, anxiety, and tension towards the job (Unguren, Dogan, Ozmen, and Tekin, 2010).

The other dimension is *depersonalization*. Scholars explain depersonalization as "is the interpersonal dimension of the burnout which occurs after the emotional exhaustion phase and individuals start showing preserving behaviors towards others. They lose their energy and power and treat unhappy and hopeless behaviors (Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Maslach and Leitter, 1999; Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, 2001)". Akca (2008) emphasized the behavior of these people such as telling humiliating behaviors and words towards others, having cynical attitudes to their surroundings and organization.

The last dimension of burnout is a *lack of personal accomplishment*. Maslach and Goldberg (1998) explained that individuals perceive a performance and productivity decrease and they feel that they are unable to perform the job needs. Lack of personal accomplishment feeling occurs with the self-evaluation of the individuals. Individuals evaluate themselves and believe that they are performing under the requirements of the organization or their targets. The feeling of insufficiency and incapability arises during this period. Ari and Bal (2008) argued that individuals who feel a lack of personal accomplishment treat stable behaviors and they do not move forward or backward. Moreover, they tend to evaluate themselves with negative values.

2.2.2.3. Existential perspective

Different from the clinical studies by Freudenberger (1974) and case studies from Maslach (1981), the existential perspective argues that individuals believe that their life is important and the things that they are doing in their organization are also important. Existential perspective was first introduced by Frankl (1962) with an explanation of existing in an organization without any meaning or objective and characterized as existential fulfillment. Existential fulfillment can be explained in three dimensions, which are self-acceptance, self-actualization, and self-transcendence. Individuals define acceptable goals for themselves considering their limits, which is self-acceptance. Additionally, individuals develop themselves for their growth and potential development, which is called self-actualization and respect to the others, is named as self-transcendence. When individuals satisfy these existential factors, then they feel more enthusiastic and motivated. With the absence of these existential factors, they will move to a burnout attitude (Loonstra et al., 2009).

According to studies of some scholars, it is explained that psychoanalytic and existential factors are the most common and appropriate ways to explain burnout. It is argued that an individual's life is defined by consciousness and unconscious factors such as heritage, childhood, relations, family, etc. According to this, individuals define tasks and objectives for themselves for career growth and success. When they feel that there are unable to achieve their targets or what they achieved is not a meaningful thing for their life, they feel burnout (Pines, 2000; Pines and Keinan, 2005).

2.2.2.4. Organizational perspective

The social psychological perspective highlights the importance of social relations in the working environment. Besides this, organizational perspectives highlight the features in the working environment. In this perspective, burnout occurs when the employees cannot achieve the specific goals attained them by their organizations. When supervisors, who are agents of the organization, define high objectives and uncertain roles, the stress level upon the employees directly increases and this leads to burnout problems (Cherniss, 1980).

Bakker et al., (2005) proposed a new model, which is called as Job Demand Resources Model, to define the pillars of burnout. In this model, there are two main factors, which are job demands (works, tasks, objectives, etc.) and job resources (managers' support, social support, organizational support). When the job demand is high and resources are scared, then there will be a discrepancy for the individuals to perform their job and in conclusion, they will burnout. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) argued that the level of discrepancy between job demand and burnout, and the duration of how long individuals remain under this condition are two important points of job burnout. When there is a big difference between resources and demand, and individuals stay a long time under this stress level, they will react negative behaviors towards others.

2.2.3. Burnout models

Based on the existing literature, seven main burnout models are explained within the coming pages.

2.2.3.1. Meier's burnout model

According to Meier (1983), burnout was defined as a situation that resulted from the expectation of small rewards and big punishment due to the lack of meaningful reinforcing, controllable life, or individual insufficiency. In this model, burnout is considered as a situation that results in the repetition of work experiences and is explained in three stages.

The individual; the expectation of positive reinforcing behavior related to work is low and the expectation of punishment is high, the expectation for controlling existing reinforcers is high, the expectation of self-efficacy in controlling the reinforcers is low (Meier, 1983). Stating that the affective aspect of burnout was emphasized in the literature, Meier (1983); in this model, he stated that he aimed to emphasize the cognitive and behavioral aspects of the case. Meier's burnout model emphasizes that burnout is a stressful process; encompassing progressive psychological stages, and occurs over time (Baysal, 1995).

2.2.3.2. Suran and Sheridan's burnout model

The model of Suran and Sheridan (1985) is based on observations and experiences. The steps in the model that attempted to examine in detail the four stages showing developmentally similar characteristics during early and middle adulthood are as follows; identity/role confusion, competence/inadequacy, productivity/stagnation, reconstruction/frustration.

2.2.3.3. Pearlman and Hartman's burnout model

According to Pearlman and Hartman (1982), burnout is a response to chronic emotional stress consisting of three components. This model has a cognitive/perceptual focus that interprets the environment of the individual and personal variables. According to this model, the three dimensions of burnout reflect the three main categories of symptoms of stress. These are the physiological dimension (physical exhaustion) focusing on physical symptoms, the emotional-cognitive dimension (emotional exhaustion) focusing on attitudes and emotions, and the behavioral dimension focusing on symptomatic behaviors (over depersonalization and lower work productivity).

2.2.3.4. Edelwich and Brodsky's burnout model

Edelwich and Broodskay (1980) have defined burnout as a negative process that occurs over time in one's energy, experience, and goals depending on the requirements of business life (Tanriverdi et al., 2018) and identified four stages of burnout which are idealist enthusiasm, stagnation, frustration and apathy (Gurbuz and Karapinar, 2014). In the phase of enthusiasm; people have a high level of energy, hope, and expectation. During the stagnation phase; the individuals are no longer able to show the effort that they have made in the first stage of their job. Moreover, their energy level and motivation decrease, they experience frustrations regarding their expectations and get cold from their job. At this stage, the interest of the individual has turned to non-business activities such as earning more money, living better, and enjoying his spare time better than his/her work-related ideas (Silig, 2003).

In the frustration stage; the person thinks that as time passes, his/her efforts to achieve the goals of his/her profession are hindered. This can be linked to two conditions. The first is that the employee is unable to meet the needs of the people he/she serves. The second is that the employee disregards his or her needs to satisfy the needs of the people he/she serves (Baysal, 1995). Apathy, which is the last stage, shows apathy towards the person being served and humiliating behaviors towards them in time. From the outside, these people are inflexible, cold, and reluctant (Baysal, 1995).

2.2.3.5. Pines's burnout model

According to this model, physical exhaustion, which is one of the three dimensions of burnout, is characterized by decreased energy, chronic fatigue, and weakness. Emotional exhaustion, the second dimension of burnout, can be explained as despair, hopelessness, trapped, deceit, and frustration. Finally, the third dimension, which is mental exhaustion, has such characteristics; the individual react with negative behaviors towards himself, his work, other people, and life (Pines and Aronson, 1988). Failures are the most important reason for burnout. Burnout plays an important role in decreasing the motivation level of individuals and leaving their jobs and even leaving the profession completely (Polatci, 2007).

2.2.3.6. Cherniss's burnout model

The Cherniss model defined burnout as a process that started as a reaction to stress-related sources of work, including coping behaviors, and ended with the termination of a psychological relationship to work (Yildirim, 1996). The Chernis Model considers burnout as a situation that emerges as a result of a time-spreading process. According to this model, burnout is a process that starts as a reaction to the stress sources related to work and ends with a coping behavior that involves breaking the psychological relationship with work. In other words, in this model, burnout is seen as a way of adapting to the sources of stress in the work environment and coping with stress (Mentese, 2007). Cherniss sees the sources of stress as the reason for burnout.

These factors categorized within two factors, which are organizational (workload, level of relation with others, ambiguous goals and aspirations, deficiencies in support and supervision) and personal variables (the personality of the individuals, the level of satisfaction in his/her personal life, thoughts about the future). Cherniss argues that the burnout experienced by the service sector workers is due to the imbalances they experience due to their roles (Kecelioglu, 2016).

2.2.3.7. Maslach's burnout model

It is seen that Christina Maslach, a professor of psychology, who developed this concept as Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), makes the most commonly used definition of burnout. The Maslach Burnout model is also referred in the literature as a multidimensional burnout model or a three-dimensional burnout model. According to this model, burnout is defined as a syndrome that is commonly seen in people working face-to-face in occupations as individuals, feeling emotionally depleted, becoming insensitive to the people they have met due to their jobs, and decreasing their feelings of personal accomplishment. According to Maslach burnout; it is a continuous response to chronic, work-related, emotional, and interpersonal stressors and is defined in three dimensions as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Gurbuz, 2008).

Maslach and Goldberg (1998) argued that intervention studies against extinction could be handled as person-oriented and organization-oriented, or there might be studies where two elements were handled together. While people-oriented studies are generally directed towards personal development (using social resources, self-efficacy, coping skills, etc.), organization-oriented studies generally contribute to organizational functioning, self-expression, and so on.

According to Leiter and Maslach (1988), emotional exhaustion occurs primarily when excessive workload and uncertainty of the roles consume people's emotional resources. Trying to stay away from people in order to cope with the excessive workload leads to the second stage of burnout, depersonalization. In the last stage, those who perceive that these distant behaviors restrict their contributions to the institution and society they work for, have a sense of inadequacy related to business success and human relations.

Emotional exhaustion is defined as the feeling of being overloaded and being consumed due to the work. This dimension of burnout is mostly seen in workers with intense and face-to-face relationships with people. A common symptom is a fear of going back to work the next day (Maslach and Jackson, 1981).

The dimension of depersonalization includes the attitude and behaviors of the person without feeling emotion towards others they have relations with. This behavior shows itself in inflexible, cold, and reluctant moods. The person who experiences emotional exhaustion feels powerless to solve other people's problems and uses depersonalization as a result of escape. Individuals minimize the relationships with people that are necessary for the work to be done (Maslach and Jackson, 1981). According to Maslach and Jackson (1982), the dimension of depersonalization is the most important dimension of burnout, characterized by factors such as behaving in a way that keeps individuals away from them, not showing interest in others, rejecting them, acting hostile to others and giving negative reactions.

The third dimension of the Maslach burnout model is the lack of personal accomplishment. This dimension defines one's feelings of competence and success in their work. A low sense of personal accomplishment is part of burnout. A sense of lack of personal accomplishment characterized by inadequacy, a sense of failure, reduced morale, low productivity, interpersonal disagreement, inadequate coping, and low self-esteem means the person's tendency to evaluate himself negatively (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993).

Although the models described in detail above explain the concept of job burnout, Maslach's burnout model is used in this study since it is preferred more in research.

2.2.4. Indicators of job burnout

According to Freudenberger and Richelson (1994), burnout starts slowly and insidiously. No matter how sudden its emergence, burnout is a constantly developing condition. For weeks, months, and even years, one has forced himself to achieve his professional targets. Suddenly they feel that they are burnout and then all their behaviors change in a negative way. Shortly before burnout, environmental conditions are usually found that include either working pressure or a family member's disease, or similar negativity. Sometimes it occurs very rarely, but without any incident. They are often unaware of what is going on inside them.

It is reported that burnout, which is dealt with at various degrees, can be observed with different behaviors at every degree. Accordingly, burnout; low, moderate, and severe are examined in three groups and the resulting behavior is stated as follows (Iwanicki, 1983):

- A low degree of job burnout can be observed as; short-lasting irritability, susceptibility, exhaustion, worries, and resulted efforts. Moreover, the second level of job burnout shows the same symptoms as before, but these symptoms occur at least every two weeks or more often. Finally, the third degree of burnout (severe) is observed as physical problems, ulcers, chronic pain, and migraine.

2.2.5. Consequences of job burnout

Recent research has shown that burnout is a much more serious problem than thought.

People with this syndrome are intertwined with health problems, psychological problems, self-confidence, and growing dissatisfaction with their work (Ormen, 1993). Burnout has important consequences for individuals and organizations.

Some of the consequences can be explained as follows; deterioration in human relations with the environment in work and social life, a tendency to dissonance, unjustified tendencies, neglect of the job, a tendency to exhibit low job performance, a tendency not to come to work or to quit the job, to behave negatively (Soysal, 2011).

Moreover, there may be individualized consequences such as chronic health problems, overweight or weight loss, sleep disturbances, fatigue, excessive caffeine usage, the use of sedatives, fear, and anxiety, and feelings of hostility. Also besides, the increases in the conflicts in the workplace, the increase in labor turnover, the decrease in the work performance of the employees, the decrease in the quality of work are also the results of burnout (Cetin et al., 2011).

Burnout leads to disruptions in both individual and social functioning. Some employees, who cannot withstand the stress, leave their jobs and many continue to produce services below their capacity. Therefore, while job productivity decreases, employees lose both physical and mental health (Bicki, 2016).

2.2.6. Methods of dealing with burnout

In the prevention of burnout syndrome, firstly it is necessary to know what burnout is and its signs. Early recognition of the individual's experiences will lead him/her to seek solutions. In order to prevent burnout, it is important that employees have realistic goals and expectations about the job. Knowing the difficulties and risks of the job before starting a job will make it possible for the person to recognize the problems that may be encountered in advance and take precautions. At this point, ways of coping with burnout are discussed in an individual and organizational context.

In an organizational sense, Freudenberger (1989) attributes the solution of burnout by providing more cooperation, material, or emotional motivations. It can be organizationally prevented such as; to apply support personnel and additional equipment according to the course of work, to ensure that those job descriptions are clearly defined, to prevent the accumulation of workload in certain persons, to create a fair distribution of work, to increase the participation of employees in decisions, to ensure the continuous, open and effective organizational communication channels to develop a fair reward system, to support teamwork, to give positive feedback frequently, to give new tasks to people, and to create environments for improving organizational commitment.

Buunk and Schaufeli (1996) emphasized to prevent burnout related to emotional exhaustion dimension, depersonalization dimension, and lack of achievement dimension. Researchers found that in order to prevent emotional exhaustion, individuals should be given the authority to be free from uncertainties. Additionally, to prevent depersonalization, actively control one's work, proper and adequate training and orientation should be the solution. Finally, to prevent lack of accomplishment, it can be given more power, control, and self-confidence to the individuals. On the other hand, the individual has some duties to deal with burnout.

At the beginning of these methods; knowledge of burnout, self-knowledge and identifying needs, developing realistic expectations and goals related to work, acquiring hobby, knowledge of time management, reducing monotony in work and private life, and improving self-management (Ardic and Polatci, 2008).

2.3. Organizational Cynicism

2.3.1. Scope and definition of cynicism

Cynicism is a very broad concept and has been the subject of different disciplines of social sciences such as philosophy, religion, political sciences, sociology, management, and psychology. Each discipline explained the role of the concept of cynicism in social processes from different perspectives. When the concept of cynicism is examined in terms of beliefs, it appears as a "primitive Chinese religion". According to cynicism, all forces of nature are designed alive (Hancerlioglu, 1993). Rosenthal and Van Schendelen (1977) stated that cynicism is a concept related to political sciences. Accordingly, cynicism is defined as attitudes that politicians' behaviors and intentions are not good.

Goldner, Riti, and Ference (1977) adopted a sociological approach to understanding the phenomenon of cynicism. In their approach, they defined the tasks of the employee as a certain, conscious, and idealistic belief system for the society about the nature of the profession and the services provided by the organization. When the concept of cynicism is examined from a psychological perspective, it is seen that individuals have the status of lying, wearing false faces, and making selfish behaviors (Mirvis and Kanter, 1991).

Brandes (1997) defines the concept of cynicism in psychological terms as generally believing that people have a low level of thinking, others are selfish, not worth trusting or loyalty to them, and the individual's pessimistic ideas about the future and unrealized expectations for himself or others.

According to O-Hair and Cody (1987), cynicism believes that people cannot be trusted, that people are cruel, and that the real reasons why individuals want something should be hidden. Dean et al. (1998), according to his definition of cynicism used in the sense of disliking others and not trusting others, is also used as a person who finds flaws, difficult likes, and critics.

In general, cynicism is defined as humiliating behaviors that emerge towards the motives of others and a belief in selfishness inherent in an individual (Costa et al., 1983).

Andersson (1996) makes a more general interpretation of cynicism and explained the concept as; skepticism against people, organizations, employees, certain thoughts, social organizations or institutions in a society, disdain against them, not expecting and disappointing as general or personal attitudes.

On the other hand, it is necessary to understand the three basic elements of cynicism as determined by Kanter and Mirvis (1989):

- Cynicism is the formulation of unrealistic high expectations of the individual about society, institutions, authority, and the future.
- Cynicism is the feeling that results from frustration and defeats the individual himself or someone else.
- Cynicism is the feeling that the individual is deceived and used by others with his / her frustrations.

2.3.2. Definition and importance of organizational cynicism

Organizational cynicism research began to develop at the end of the 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s. The concept of organizational cynicism emerged with the book prepared by Kanter and Mirvis (1989) about American employees. The book is prepared to reveal why cynicism has spread in the organization (James, 2005). According to Dean et al. (1998), organizational cynicism is based on the theoretical foundations of expectancy theory, attribution theory, attitude theory, and social exchange theory.

The concept of cynicism is also based on the idea of a lack of integrity and honesty of the organization and the negative attitude of the individual towards the organization.

Organizational cynicism, which depends on working environment experiences, is a global incidence of negative or undesirable attitudes or beliefs against an organization (Neves, 2012).

According to Vance, Brooks, and Tesluk (1996), the concept of organizational cynicism is the existence of the belief that organizations can improve, but this probability is quite low. Kanter and Mirvis (1989) focused on the individual's expectations with the concept of organizational cynicism. They claimed that organizational cynicism would occur as a result of unrealistic high expectations, failure to meet these expectations and frustration.

According to Brandes (1997), organizational cynicism is the belief that a person develops for the organization in which she/he works, that the organization has a structure lacking integrity, the tendency to display degrading, disparaging and critical behaviors towards the organization. When employees try to solve the organizational problems but unable to solve them, this situation may lead to cynicism towards the organization (McClough et al., 1998). Cynicism can be described as being in a negative and pessimistic mood with others in the working environment. These behaviors can be observed as dissatisfaction, unwillingness to work, irritation to the work, unhappiness, aggressive behaviors toward the peers, lack of cooperation, absenteeism, high level of employee turnover, and reduction of performance (Andersson, 1996; Dean, Brandes, and Dharwarkar, 1998; Clarke, 1999; Ozler et al., 2010).

2.3.3. The dimensions of organizational cynicism

Dean et al. (1998) concluded that there are three dimensions of organizational cynicism, which can arise due to the organization's lack of integration, negative impact on the organization, and the exhibition of disparaging attitudes and behaviors towards the organization. Three dimensions, which are cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism can measure organizational cynicism.

Cognitive cynicism can be defined as employees' belief that there is dishonesty, unfairness in the organization, and when organizations are considering their well-being more than their employees. In this dimension, cynical individuals find employees of an organization as insincere and believe that their organization is far from honesty and justice. In this dimension, it can be said that there are feelings of disrespect, humiliation, arrogance, anger, moral deterioration, disappointments, and insecurity.

In the cognitive dimension of organizational cynicism, cynical individuals have the belief that the practices in the organization are not based on principles and rules, that official statements of the organization are not taken seriously by the employees, and that the behavior of the employees is unstable and unreliable (Caliskan, 2014).

In the cognitive dimension of cynicism, there is a negative bias against both the decisions made and implemented within the organization and the behavior of other employees and managers. Such beliefs are likely to have negative effects on outcomes such as business performance and organizational commitment. For instance, employees who believe that their organization does not value or care about their contributions may be reluctant to put forward their efforts on behalf of their organizations. In such cases, cognitive cynicism emerges (Tae-Yeol et al., 2009).

As per affective cynicism, employees have emotions such as disgust from their jobs that they perform and feeling fear for their future. Emotions such as contempt, anger, shame, and even disgust when the level of cynicism increases comes to the fore in this dimension (Ergen, 2015).

Behavioral cynicism is the employees' active reaction towards their organizations such as stopping or reducing their routine works, criticizing their organizations, not taking actions for the organizational problems, and exhibiting damaging behaviors (Dean et al., 1998). In this dimension, it can be seen that people are pessimistic about the events that arise in the organization (Caliskan, 2014).

2.3.4. Theoretical foundations of organizational cynicism

The theoretical foundations of the concept of organizational cynicism are based on Attribution Theory, Attitude Theory, Social Exchange Theory, and Expectancy Theory. This section focuses on theoretical foundations.

2.3.4.1. Attribution theory

The attribution theory tries to explain the methods that lead to different ways of evaluating people, depending on the meanings attributed to a particular behavior. The theory suggests that by observing the behavior of an individual, it is attempted to determine whether this originates internally or externally. This determination largely depends on three factors: consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency. Distinctiveness refers to whether individuals behave differently in varied situations. The similarity of responses among individuals who face a similar situation can be explained, as there is a consensus in the behaviors. Finally, if one continues to react in the same way over time, it can be said that there is consistency in behavior (Robbins and Judge, 2010).

Internal reasons (personal characteristics such as ability, effort, and fatigue) and external reasons (environmental conditions such as rules and weather) contribute to determining behaviors. Perceived factors are important for behavior, not reality. The behavior of individuals as a result of internal reasons will be different from the behavior that arises from external reasons (Luthans, 1989). Employees are able to hold management and leaders responsible for misconduct, disappointments, and poor performance of the organization. This situation may lead to cynicism attitudes in the organization (Torun, 2016).

Attribution theory deals with organizational cynicism to establish the link between the reasons and consequences of some events. Employees may conclude that organizational efforts are not sincere or that decision-making mechanisms in the organization are not adequately competent. This conclusion will support cynical attitudes (Matrecia, 2005).

2.3.4.2. Attitude theory

Attitudes are positive or negative tendencies related to objects, individuals, or events. They reflect how the individual feels about something. Attitudes have three components, named: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Positive or negative perceptions and beliefs starting with cognitive dimensions are reflected in emotions and become observable behaviorally (Robbins and Judge, 2010).

The attitude theory, which aims to explain how behaviors occur, predicts that organizational cynicism is a negative attitude towards the organization and that cynicism has three components as every attitude. In the cognitive dimension, there is a belief that the moral principles of the organization are not valid. The lack of honesty is in the organization that virtues and fair behaviors are not observed, and that such elements are lack of chastity and sincerity (Kart, 2015). Since cynicism is associated with emotions as well as thoughts, negative emotions such as disdain for the organization and embarrassment from the organization constitute the emotional component of the attitude. The third component is the humiliating negative behavior. The researchers underlined that the most prominent features of cynical individuals are humiliation (Dean et al., 1989).

2.3.4.3. Social exchange theory

Social change is an action that individuals perform with or without awareness, both in business and social life. The fact that the parties act with the expectation that they will find a reward, especially a rewarding response, is also frequently encountered in daily life. One of the basic principles of social exchange theory is that the relations between individuals turn into reliable, connected, and mutual commitments over time.

In order to ensure these principles, both parties must comply with certain rules of change (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). In organizations, it is also possible for employees to engage in exchange processes with other employees and managers. One example of the social exchange theory in organizations is the effect of employees' POS on their cynical attitudes and behaviors.

In the relationship between social exchange theory and POS, first, based on the norm of reciprocity, POS should impose a responsibility obligation to take into account the welfare of the organization and to help the organization achieve its objectives. Second, it must meet the care, respect, and emotional needs expressed by POS, and encourage employees to integrate their presence and role in the organization with their social identity. Third, POS should strengthen employees' belief that the organization recognizes and rewards increased performance (i.e. performance-reward expectations).

These processes should have positive results both for employees (e.g. increase in job satisfaction and positive mood) and organization (e.g. increase in emotional commitment and performance, decrease in turnover rate) (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

2.3.4.4. Expectancy theory

According to Vroom's expectation theory, the individual's motivation is equal to the multiplication of the value that an individual attributes to that goal with the expectation that a particular behavior will achieve its purpose (Budak and Budak, 2004). The expectation theory argues that the probability of exhibiting a particular behavior is related to the attractiveness of the results of the behavior and the value of the expectations attributed to the results. Employees will make a high level of effort when they believe that their performance will result in a positive outcome satisfactory to their personal goals, such as bonuses, pay increases, and promotion (Robbins and Judge, 2010).

As a result, according to this theory, the individual is motivated to achieve his / her goal as a result of certain behaviors. In other words, if there is no desirable situation for the individual as a result of the behavior, the individual will not have the desire to do so. Consequently, behaviors that respect the personal interests of other individuals will be exhibited within the organization, confirming the point of view of cynical individuals. Employees who do not meet their expectations may exhibit a cynical attitude towards the organization.

The expectation theory is related to the individual expectations of the employee and suggests that cynic attitudes may arise as a result of negative expectations regarding the future attitude of the organization. The relationship between expectation theory and cynicism is seen in this way (Kalagan, 2009).

2.3.5. The types of organizational cynicism

Dean et al. (1998) made a classification by examining research on cynicism. According to this classification, types of cynicism are named as; employee cynicism, professional cynicism personality cynicism, societal cynicism, and organizational change cynicism.

2.3.5.1. Employee cynicism

Cynic employees potentially target the organization, corporate senior executives, and others in the workplace, and have negative feelings and behaviors such as contempt, frustration, and despair of the targets (Andersson, 1996; Andersson and Bateman, 1997). This attitude occurs as a result of critically evaluating the activities, motives, and values of the organization (Bedeian, 2007). Employee cynicism targets organizations, senior management, and other assets in the work environment in general. Employee cynicism has negative feelings such as scorn, frustration, and despair towards these goals (Abraham, 2000).

2.3.5.2. Occupational cynicism

The concept of professional cynicism includes the individual's negative and insecure attitudes towards his/her job (Bateman et al., 1992). In this type of cynicism, a particular attitude prevails that the work is overwhelming, not rewarding, and not worth the effort (Andersson, 1996).

Employees with professional cynicism think that they are doing their jobs under overwhelming pressure, that their jobs are not rewarded and not worth the effort (Stern et al., 1990), and their jobs are very boring (Andersson, 1996). In such cynics, careless, insensitive, and sloppy movements are observed about their work (Abraham, 2000).

2.3.5.3. Personality cynicism

According to personality cynicism, an individual despises people, looks at them from above, behaves in a disrespectful manner and forms weak ties with other individuals (Abraham, 2000). Personality cynicism is a type of cynicism that is innate and often perceives human behavior as negative (Gormen, 2002).

2.3.5.4. Societal/Institutional cynicism

Social cynicism is the product of a violation of the social contract between society and the individual (Abraham, 2000; Kanter and Mirvis, 1989; Pitre, 2004). The distinctive feature of social cynics is that they are alienated from the social and economic institutions they blame for what happened to them (Andersson and Bateman, 1997). This can also lead to political insecurity in citizens or clients of organizations and a sense of humiliation in individuals.

2.3.5.5. Organizational change cynicism

Organizational change cynicism is defined as the pessimistic point of view towards change efforts because those who are responsible for carrying out organizational change are seen as reluctant or incompetent (Tolay et al., 2017). Wanous, Reichers, and Austin (1994), in their early work on organizational change cynicism, described organizational change cynicism as a negative and pessimistic attitude towards the efforts made by the organizations to achieve success.

During organizational change, some behaviors specific to the management are observed. The management provides employees with the proposed changes for organizational change and informs them for the possible and negative consequences of the changes. However, if it is determined that the issues and promises made by the management are not accurate and consistent over time; some employees may have a negative attitude towards the organization, the people involved in the change, and the efforts which are made in the name of organizational change (Kalagan et al., 2010).

2.3.6. Antecedents of organizational cynicism

Many studies have been conducted to determine the reasons for organizational cynicism. The reasons for organizational cynicism, which is defined as an attitude, may be related to the social life of the person such as age, gender, working time, education time, working time in the organization, marital status, income level; there may also be organizational factors such as hierarchical structure, perception of justice, organizational policies, violation of psychological contract, management understanding, and leadership characteristics (Andersson, 1996; Dean, Brandes, and Dharwarkar, 1998; Clarke, 1999; Ozler et al., 2010, James, 2005). Turan (2011) states that variables such as age, gender, education level, marital status, income level, tenure in the organization, and seniority have an impact on organizational cynicism attitudes, although they are not very strong.

Many studies that try to identify or understand the reasons for organizational cynicism, not only deal with personal characteristics, but also discussed organizational variables, perceptions, behaviors, and attitudes. According to Naus (2007), conditions such as the expectation of overwork, weakness of pressure, control and management, and workplace bullying generally lead to negative attitudes in organizations.

According to Thompson et al. (2000), management explains the proposed changes for organizational change to the members of the organization and informs about the possible negative consequences as well as the positive results expected from the changes. If these statements and promises do not materialize over time, some of the members of the organization may take a negative attitude towards the organization, the leaders who made the change, and the efforts for organizational change (Cetinkaya, 2014).

Research has shown that organizational cynicism levels increase when employees' perceptions of rights and justice decrease in their organizations (FiztGerald, 2002). In one study, FitzGerald (2002) aimed to measure the extent to which the perception of organizational justice of employees working in a large-scale production organization affected organizational cynicism levels.

As a result of the findings of the study, a high level of significant relationship was found between organizational cynicism attitude and organizational justice perception and besides it was also observed that the level of organizational cynicism of an employee with a high level of organizational injustice perception was high (Gormen, 2002).

When the sense of trust is damaged, it can be a powerful determinant of cynicism (Bedeian, 2007). Cynicism attitudes can be affected if employees do not trust their organization or if they have a lack of trust. There is a consensus that the perception of a violation of psychological contract leads to organizational cynicism (Abraham, 2000; Andersson, 1996; Andersson and Bateman, 1997).

Perceptions of psychological contract violations can lead to an environment of injustice, inequity, and insecurity in organizations. When employees fail to obtain what they want or deserve from their work relationships, violation of psychological contract perception processes occurs. In this case, employees can develop cynical attitudes (James, 2005).

2.3.7. Consequences of organizational cynicism

The consequences of organizational cynicism can be discussed in two levels, which are individual and organizational.

2.3.7.1. Consequences of organizational cynicism for individuals

Organizational cynicism occurs because of failure to meet the demands of employees in organizations, and this issue leads to various psychological consequences. In research, it has been concluded that organizational cynicism leads to mental and emotional disorders; and also leads to emotional depression, burnout, depression, insomnia, and frustration. As a result of cynicism, people become more susceptible to aggression, resentment, feeling of torture, and defensive behavior (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). Besides, people who have cynicism in their organizations express some emotional reactions such as nerves, rage, stress, and anxiety are psychological consequences of organizational cynicism (Brandes, 1997).

Organizational cynicism negatively affects physical health as well as mental health.

Cynic hostility can lead to diseases such as the heart (coronary heart disease, heart attack, and palpitations) and vascular disorders and it may affect life expectancy (Eaton, 2000).

2.3.7.2. Consequences of organizational cynicism for organizations

It is known as cynicism has an effect on the performance of organizations and decreases efficiency and it also has significant effects both materially and spiritually (Abraham, 2000). Organizational cynicism has many negative impacts on organizations such as a decrease in organizational commitment, job dissatisfaction, an increase in labor turnover, disregard of rules, disobedience, alienation, decrease in organizational performance, decrease in motivation, and increase in emotional burnout (Abraham, 2000; Chrobot, 2003; Arabaci, 2010; Boyali, 2011; Kilic, 2013; Eaton, 2000; Turner and Valentine, 2001). When examining the relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational trust; it has been concluded that organizational cynicism levels of individuals increased, organizational trust levels decreased (Kalagan, 2009).

Lack of job satisfaction arises from the low level of meeting expectations, which leads to frustrations and discontent among employees. These negativities will be the intersection of cynicism and job satisfaction. It has been shown that as the level of organizational cynicism increases, the level of job satisfaction decreases (Gormen, 2002).

While Bommer et al. (2005) point out that organizational cynicism leads to an increase in belief injustice and a sense of insecurity, Mirvis and Kanter (1989) and Fero (2005) showed the inverse relationship between trust and cynicism. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) stated that there was a strong relationship between burnout and organizational cynicism.

Abraham (2000) examined the relationship between organizational alienation and organizational cynicism and found that as the level of organizational cynicism increased, so did the level of alienation to work, and found a positive and significant relationship between professional cynicism, personality cynicism, and organizational change cynicism.

In some studies, organizational cynicism is also associated with the concepts of leader and leadership. It was determined that the transformational leadership behaviors of the cynical leaders were low (Bommer et al., 2005; Rubin et al., 2009) and the strength of the relationship between perceived executive support and commitment decreased in organizations with high cynicism levels (Neves, 2012). When the results are considered, it can be said that organizational cynicism is an attitude that leads to negative consequences for both the employees and the organization (Davis and Gardner, 2004). However, in some exceptional cases, the idea is that these results will not be negative.

Whereas decision-makers in the management act in consideration of their personal interests and their fraudulent behavior can be clearly expressed by cynics; cynical individuals can benefit the organization as the voice of conscience (Dean et al., 1998). In this context, it can be thought that the attitudes of organizational cynicism can lead to good results from time to time. Organizational cynicism should not be regarded as pure unfavorable, although its' results are negative in a very large percentage (Torun, 2016).

2.4. Openness to Change

2.4.1. The concept of organizational change and development

Organizations should keep their organizational structure up-to-date, follow new developments to keep up with the pressures coming from the outside environment, and maintain their existence. The adaptation of these new developments to the organization is provided by organizational change. According to Basaran (1998), organizational change is the restructuring of the organization to keep up with the environmental conditions. According to Yousef (2017), organizational change is defined as an attempt or series of attempts to change the structure, objectives, and technology or working styles of an organization. According to Owens (1987), organizational change is a planned, extraordinary, and coordinated effort that enables the development of the organization to effectively fulfill the objectives of the organization or to reach the new targets determined. According to Carnall (1986), organizational change is perceived as a process that changes the structure or purpose of the work.

Organizational change can be defined as the transition of an organization from planned to unplanned way and from one environment to another by realizing the change in every field such as culture, technology, equipment, and structure (Sayli and Tufekci, 2008).

Spencer-Matthews (2001) described the organizational change as a compromise on shared meaning for those, which are valued and intended. Jones (1998), on the other hand, defines the process of transition from the current status of organizations to the desired situation in the future to increase their productivity as organizational change.

2.4.2. Different types of organizational change

While examining the subject of change, it is seen that there are different approaches and many reasons for the change (Polat, 2003). Organizational change, which envisages the change as a whole, not just human, technology, or just structures and processes, can manifest itself in different ways in organizations (Balci, 2002). Based on this, the main classifications of change from different perspectives are (Kocel, 2005):

- *Planned / Unplanned Change:* The efforts of organizations for change can be handled as planned and unplanned. Planned change usually focuses on workflow, people, or technology. Unplanned change is a spontaneous change. More precisely, it describes a change in which its purpose, direction, and stages in the process are not foreseen (Cakir, 2009).
- *Macro / Micro Change:* Macro and micro change are related to the magnitude of issues that are subject to change in the organization. In macro-change, the whole organization is taken into consideration in terms of organizational change. Micro-change, on the other hand, refers to making changes in the organization on any topic at a lower level (Simsek et al., 2001).

- *Time Spread / Sudden Change:* It is an issue related to the speed at which organizational change is realized. Sometimes organizations aim to plan change in a very short time. Such changes are called sudden changes. On the other hand, in such circumstances planned changes are carried out step by step within a certain time, which is called time-spread change (Basim et al., 2009).
- **Proactive / Reactive Change:** Proactive change includes changing the organization's work, activities, and procedures according to the estimated environmental conditions; it means that the organization is ready when the estimated conditions are met. Reactive change is to react to the conditions encountered at a certain time (Simsek et al., 2001).
- Comprehensive / Narrow Change: It is an issue related to whether the number and prevalence of issues to be changed in the organization are broad or narrow (Caliskan, 2007).
- Active / Passive Change: For change to be passive, the organization has to make changes in its structure to adapt to the conditions developing in its external environment. On the other hand, in active change, the organization can influence and change its external environment through innovation (Simsek et al., 2001).
- Evolutionary / Revolutionary Change: In the change in evolution, adaptation to the environment, and compliance with the changing whole through long-term impact-response behaviors with the environment is at stake. Revolutionary change can be defined as a sudden, rapid, radical, short-term, and also unpredictable change that can affect the environment (Basim et al., 2009).

2.4.3. Factors affecting openness to organizational change

The factors affecting the change in the organizations were examined in two separate groups as organizational and personal factors.

2.4.3.1. Individual factors

The first factor that affects organizational change is individual factors. The individual's knowledge about the change process, the skills, and competencies that he/she will use or need in this process, the self-awareness of the individual, and the degree of trust felt by the individual can be grouped under the headings of individual factors. The process of change will require some skills for individuals. If the current skills of an individual will enable the person to succeed because of the change, the individual will support the change (Capraz, 2009).

Individuals' awareness includes emotional awareness (understanding the impact of emotions in decision-making), personal assessment (knowing and accepting personal weaknesses and strengths), and self-confidence (self-esteem and abilities) (Cetinkaya and Alparslan, 2011). Individuals with high personal awareness can act more consciously about how the change process will affect them and how they should position themselves. A high or low degree of security that a person feels will lead to a lot of rejection, suppression, or deterioration in the response to change. People will postpone or delay this change.

On the other hand, if people have a very low sense of security, anything that can be done to change even this low level of security will be seen as extremely dangerous. Therefore, the change is expected to be positive if the security feeling is in the mid-range (Zeffane, 1996).

2.4.3.2. Organizational factors

Organizational factors are examined in two parts as internal and external factors. Internal factors are briefly the characteristics of the organization such as existence period of organization, size, structure, and groups to be managed, culture, and stress. Regarding the internal factor, it is stated that transformational factors have an important and greater effect than other internal factors.

Mission, strategy, leadership, and culture are considered transformational factors (Burke and Litwin, 1992). Factors that are unique to the organization and not governed at the primary level are defined as external factors. According to Burke and Litwin (1992), the most important factor affecting organizational change is the external environment. The environment of the organization and its resources limits the level of success of organizations. Some of these restrictions may be shaped by the pre-conditions and other environmental conditions set by the organization. Individuals do not invalidate natural laws or environmental restrictions, but they use these laws or restrictions to achieve their goals (Van de Ven, 1995).

One of the external factors affecting organizational change is the competition factor with the environment. The element of competition is increasing day-by-day forcing companies to change in terms of new business processes and new products. It is possible for organizations to change because of the competitive pressure that forces them to change. Similarly, organizations can change to avoid intense competition, to seek or create areas where there is little competition (Barnett and Carroll, 1995).

2.4.4. Definition of openness to change

Change is inevitable. Today's world is constantly changing. This change shows the effect of the smallest unit on the largest systems in our environment and consequently affects the social units. One of the most important factors for organizations to survive is to understand and interpret the changes that occur in their environment and to develop strategies and keep up with them. In addition, it is important for individuals and organizations to realize change by planning and organizing in accordance with their purpose and to make predictions about the future in order to prepare them for change (Demirtas, 2012).

According to Ozdemir (2000), openness to change in the simplest terms is defined as the ability of an individual or an organization to change and willingness to change. Similarly, Armenakis and Harris (2002) described the openness to change as the ability of employees to prepare for change and to stand behind the change and support the process of change.

According to Tasdan (2013), openness to change is defined as the individual or organizational suitability and willingness to change for positive activities such as development and progress. According to Tal and Yinon (2002), the openness to change is that an individual continuously tries different ways in a job.

According to Copas (2003), openness to change is a personality trait related to being open to new conditions as opposed to demanding to stay in ordinary situations.

According to Holt, Armenakis, Feild, and Harris (2007), openness to change is that one feels ready to change cognitively and emotionally, accepts change, and is willing to realize a change in accordance with a specific plan. Weiner et al. (2008) described openness to change as the degree to which organizational members were prepared themselves psychologically and behaviorally to apply the organizational change.

Dunham, Grube, Gardner, Cummings, and Pierce (1989) stated that there are three dimensions of openness to change. These are the individual's cognitive, affective, and behavioral approaches to change. Individuals' positive attitudes towards change in these three dimensions increase the probability of change. Argyris and Schön (1978) defined the openness of the organization to change as the degree of readiness of employees to change psychologically and behaviorally. As per Devos, Buelens, and Bouckenooghe (2007), openness to change is closely related with the trust to the manager who manages the change through a policy of change that does not lead employees to uncertainty, positive experiences of change previously experienced in the organization and the adequacy of the opportunities the organization has.

According to Hinduan, Wilson-Evered, Moss, and Scannell (2009), when the concept of openness to change is taken as an individual attitude, employees who consider change as an opportunity emphasize that it is normal to experience constant change rather than stagnation, and they highlight the contribution of both individual and organizational. As per Yeniceri (2002), in terms of openness to change, the cognitive dimension comes to the forefront as mental evaluations are performed within the framework of logic, in contrast to emotionally exhibited attitudes and behaviors within the organization.

The emotional dimension of openness to change can be explained as the level of satisfaction of individuals because of the change experienced in the organization. In other words, it shows how much individuals desire to change, whether they are satisfied with the change, whether they will recommend the change to the organization or individuals in the change phase, and whether they regret the change (Bingul, 2006). The behavioral dimension of openness to change is the individual's attitudes towards supporting and assisting change.

The last dimension, which is the behavioral dimension, includes the effort of the organization and individuals to benefit from the change will support the planned change, will endeavor to overcome unpredictable situations. In other words, the behavioral dimension of openness to change determines how the individual will have an impact on the change process and how it will perform (Bingul, 2006).

Openness to change is the eagerness and ambition of the followers who perform a change in an organization, which has not the same meaning but is associated with readiness to change (Wanberg and Banas 2000). Miller and Rollnick (1991) implied the steps of the readiness to change as acceptance of the followers, level of disrespect, and the ambition of the employees.

However, openness to change is related to followers' and leaders' ambition for experiencing change and emotional constancy (Edwards, 2003). Openness to change can be explained as a support for a positive and a contributory outcome for the transformation and it is a crucial initial condition for this transformation.

Kobasa (1982) emphasized that openness to change is the perception of the individuals to see the change as an opportunity and growth potential instead of a threat to their survival. Thus, individuals perform a supportive and participating behavior in a change process. Moreover, Miller et al. (1994) informed that employees with a high level of openness to change perform a participating mood and attitude in the organization to succeed in the change process. On the other hand, employees with a low level of openness to change consider the transformation process as a threat to their future and have pessimistic behaviors toward their leaders and organization. Antecedents to perform an openness to change behavior are knowledge, need for change, and participation of the individuals.

2.4.5. Dimensions of openness to change

Change is the process of transforming attitudes, structures, policies, objectives, or outcomes that occur in organizational units. Dunham et al. (1989) categorized the openness to change into three dimensions, which are cognitive, affective, and behavioral attitudes. Affective attitudes can be explained as employees' satisfaction and willingness about the organizational transformation; behavioral attitudes can be explained as an individual's contribution towards the organizational change and cognitive attitudes refer to the tendency and belief on positive results of the organizational change.

The easiest change occurs from a cognitive perspective. Change at the affective level may depend on the interest of change or the interest for change. Finally, there is significantly more difficult and more time-consuming behavioral change occurs. Behavioral changes have some incentive or preventive effects in any organizational change process (Priya and Rani, 2017).

The affective dimension of an attitude refers to the individual's feelings towards the object of attitude (Piderit, 2000). The emotional response to change explains the feeling of being connected to satisfaction or being anxious (Rashid, Sambasivan, and Rahman, 2004). At the beginning of a change process, when members of the organization are first exposed to the knowledge that there is a change waiting for them, they form some beliefs about change. Beliefs have positive and negative values for individuals.

Some of the perceived change characteristics are associated with positive results and some with negative results. Individuals can also react emotionally when they first face with a change. Information about change can reveal feelings such as pain, frustration, enthusiasm, or fear (Lines, 2005). Negative emotions lead to more effective resistance to change. Individuals may have positive emotions such as happiness, excitement, enthusiasm, and hope in the process of change. Positive feelings about change can be realized due to the high importance of employees' expectations and the low-level impact of the change. Therefore, the fact that employees have these emotions may show that they evaluate the outcome of the change's effectiveness positively and stimulate their feelings of satisfaction (El-Farra and Badawi, 2012).

The cognitive component of an attitude is composed of the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs of the individual towards the object of attitude (Aydin, 2004). When it is considered in terms of organizational change, all ideas or information reflect the cognitive attitude such that change will increase the competitive level of the organization, take the organization one step forward, contribute financially or negatively impact the organization, may lead to low performance in employees, decrease morale and motivation. Such information can be lean or very complex.

The cognitive component of openness to change includes what a person thinks about change (e.g., is it necessary? will it be useful?) (Oreg, 2006; Holt et al., 2007; Piderit, 2000). Cognitive responses reflect one's ideas about the advantages, disadvantages, usefulness, and necessity of change, and the information needed to cope with change (Yousef, 2000).

Behavioral tendency concerns a person's intention to act against an object of attitude (Rashid et al., 2004). The behavioral component includes actions or intentions for action in response to change (e.g. complaining of change, trying to convince others that change is bad) (Oreg, 2006; Holt et al., 2007; Piderit, 2000). Behavioral elements are actions that are in favor of or against change that has already been or will be undertaken in the future (Yousef, 2000). Behavioral attitude emphasizes how employees react to change in response (Piderit, 2000; Erwin and Garman, 2010). Participation in meetings related to change in the organization; to contribute to change, and persuade other colleagues to change actions reflects behavioral attitudes (Can et al., 2006).

2.4.6. Openness to change in organizations

In order to measure the susceptibility of an organization to change, it is useful to analyze its internal structure and environment. In this context, an organization's susceptibility to change, people's attitudes towards change, environmental characteristics of the organization, the structural features of the organization, the management model adopted in the organization, and the characteristics of the organizational elements will be examined.

- People's Attitudes towards Change: For an organization to be prone to change, there must be a positive attitude towards people in that organization. If negative attitudes toward people are dominant in an organization, it is expected that a change of status will bring harm to the organization rather than a benefit. Again, if an organization has developed a negative attitude that changes are useless, meaningless; that organization must first develop a positive attitude towards people and change to be susceptible to change (Eroglu, 1994).
- Environmental Characteristics of the Organization: All organizations are systems that interact with their environment to survive. However, while some organizations interact with a stable, fast changing, balanced, and easily predictable environment, some organizations work in a moving, constantly changing, irregular, unpredictable environment.

While an organization that interacts with the first type of environment is not prone to change, organizations working in the second type of environment have to be prone to change to survive (Turkdogan, 1988).

- The Structural Features of the Organization: It has been conducted by research that the structural features of the organizations can be used to prepare to change or prevent change. The effects of these structural features in determining the tendency to change can be summarized as follows (Eroglu, 1994):
 - Complexity: As complexity increases, perspectives and other
 differences may increase, and susceptibility to change may occur. As
 complexity decreases in organizational structure, susceptibility to
 change may also decrease.
 - Centralization: Determine the distribution of authority in the
 organization. The more authority is transferred to the lower levels of
 the organization, there would be more favorable the environment for
 change.
 - **Differentiation:** Identify the difference in status and reward distribution within the organization. The more the status differentiation of the employees in the organization, the less likely the change will be, and the more the status differentiation decreases, the more the organization is susceptible to change.

- **Formality:** Determines the density of rules, regulations and principles that exist in the organization. As the formality increases, the probability of change weakens, and the tendency to change increases as the formalism decreases.
- Production-Orientation: As the organization starts to give
 importance to the quality of the goods and services it creates a suitable
 environment for change.
- Cost-Orientation: If the organization gets stuck in the paths that
 require the lowest cost during its functions and escapes the cost of any
 change, it will naturally create an environment that is not suitable for
 change.
- A Satisfactory Working Environment: If the objectives of the organization can be given a high level of satisfaction with the management and organization of the members, the members will be able to identify themselves with their organizations and this will increase their commitment and participation in their organization and also to their jobs.
- The Management Model Adopted in Organization: The structural characteristic of the organization, as well as the importance of the openness and susceptibility to the change in the form of management that has taken action, has been determined by researches.

According to the results; the organizations in which an authoritarian management system is applied are not suitable for change; on the contrary, organizations working with a democratic and participatory management system are prone to change (Ozkalp, 1997).

- Characteristics of Organizational Elements: Since the most important element of the change in organizations is human, the chances of that organization to change will be very weak if the individual characteristics of the employees working in the organization are not suitable for the change. Regardless of how important and necessary the change is by the management, the members of the organization will not resist this change because of their characteristics or they will show resistance. Therefore, the characteristics of the members of the organization are of great importance in terms of the tendency of the organization to change (Davis, 1984).

2.4.7. Structural change in organizations

Organizations' search for structure continues from the foundation to growth and the end of existence. In other words, no structure, especially any structure operating under dynamic environmental conditions, can continue to exist with its characteristics at the stage of establishment.

Structural changes relate to authority, hierarchy, objectives, structural characteristics, and management systems. Almost all changes related to the management of the enterprise are covered by structural changes. Structural changes occur from top to bottom because management is the specialty of the middle and upper levels positions job in the organization. Technical experts at lower levels have little knowledge and expertise in management processes. If the organizational structure leads to negative results for lower-level employees, dissatisfaction and complaints begin and the dissatisfaction of employees is an internal force for change (Kocel, 1995).

Growth constitutes a driving force in the direction of structural change in organizations. In addition, technological developments, the need to benefit from the new or developing conditions of the technology at the maximum level, the information that becomes the most important factor in production factors, creativity, using initiative, participating in decisions, team building, and team spirit, are the main elements which are linked to organizational structure adjustments (Ataman, 1996).

Organizational structures are examined as required by contemporary management styles. Accelerating decision-making mechanisms, effective use of technology, and changes in the reduction of the hierarchical structure are the main objectives of organizations.

Organizational structures are transformed from hierarchical structures dominated by the chain of command to organizations and markets where each individual, each team markets their production and service.

Transaction costs, which are reduced by technological breakthroughs, not only decrease the levels in the organizations but also make the structures a network shape (Acuner, 2000).

Changes in organizational structure can be in policies, information systems, finance, budget systems, strategic management, employee-employer relations, recognition, appreciation, and reward systems. These structural changes often affect the entire organization. While the organization experiences change, individuals in the organization also change. Internal change requires the presence of employees who have adopted and will be able to implement the change (Ozmen, 1999).

3. ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN KEY CONCEPTS

Based on the related literature, there are many research, which show the negative relationship between the POS and the sub-dimensions of job burnout (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Rhoades et al., 2001; Jawahar et al., 2007; Aykan, 2007; Simsek et al., 2008). Tabacchi et al. (1990) emphasized that when the employees perceive a high level of organizational support, this may directly prevent job burnout. According to their study by Walters and Raybould (2007) on 100 employees working at least 25 hours a week in contact with the customer in front of the food and beverage departments at hotels in Queensland, Australia; there was a negative relationship between POS and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of job burnout.

Cropanzano et al. (1997) concluded, as there is a negative relationship between POS and emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lack of personal accomplishment.

Armstrong-Stassen (2004) found a negative relationship between POS and emotional exhaustion in his study in two different sample groups.

Jawahar et al. (2007) found that the POS was inversely related to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in a research conducted on 171 employees in a software development company on the west coast of the United States (US). Goldberg (2007) conducted a study with 46 employees working in pediatric and youth treatment centers in California and the Colorado States in the US and found that POS was associated with all dimensions of burnout.

There are several types of research, which investigate the relationship between job burnout and its negative impacts on organizations and employees. However, there are very few researches, which have been performed on the relationship between job burnout and organizational cynicism. Simha et al. (2014) emphasized that people perform cognitive, affective, and behavioral attitudes towards their organizations due to the reasons for having job burnout. Nafei (2013) also explored that employees due to the settlement of high targets in their organization may face burnout problems and these problems trigger cynical behaviors towards their organizations.

Cordes and Dougherty (1993) emphasized that job burnout can create frustration, desperation, and depression. All these negative emotions and feelings make the employees unhappy in their organizations. Hence, employees become more cynical and their intentions to leave their organizations would increase accordingly.

Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) concluded that there is a strong association between burnout and cynicism. In another study examining the relationship between cynicism and burnout levels of individuals in the health sector; a positive association was found between burnout and cynicism (Ozler and Atalay, 2011).

Simha, Elloy, and Huang (2014) examined the association between cynicism and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, which are two dimensions of burnout in their study with 169 nurses in Taiwan; and determined whether the concepts of role conflict, business family conflict, perceived justice and trust has mediating roles or not. As a result of the study, it was found that trust had a negative mediating impact between organizational cynicism and emotional exhaustion, and did not have a mediating role between organizational cynicism and depersonalization. Accordingly, the high level of trust among the employees has an impact on the formation of organizational cynicism in a negative way.

Cole et al. (2006) stated that they ignore the personal indicators affecting cynicism in their studies and that the relationship between executive support and cynicism can be explained by the feelings experienced during the organizational crisis. The higher the POS level, the more positive the attitudes and behaviors towards the organization, and the less likely the cynical behavior will be. In summary, in their study, it has been concluded as if employees perceive a low level of organizational support in their work environment then they exhibit pessimistic behaviors in general. Perceived organizational support (POS) and cynicism have inverse relations. Erdogan and Enders (2007) emphasized that a low level of POS creates negative attitudes to the organization and these attitudes could create cynical behaviors towards the subordinates, superiors, or sometimes to the whole company.

On the other hand, Kanter and Mirvis (1989) noted that emotions may have an impact on the behavior of employees, for instance, under a high level of emotional pressure, employees may not perceive the developments, improvements, supports, or any similar positive advances in their organization as it is. If there are cynical employees in an organization, a high level of POS may not lead to a high level of performance and the opposite way around, it may lead to more pessimistic behaviors in the work environment (Hochwarter and Byrne, 2004).

In the literature, there was a negative relationship between POS and organizational cynicism (Brandes, 1997; Brandes, Das, and Hadeni, 2006; James, 2005; Treadway et al., 2004). An employee who does not perceive organizational support as strong may experience insecurity, frustration, and disappointment. In this case, there will be a negative association between POS and organizational cynicism since the employee will develop a negative attitude towards his organization (Tokgoz, 2011). Brandes (1997) stated employees' perception as when management ignores them, this situation might reveal to organizational cynicism. Based on all these studies, organizational support has been accepted as a mediator variable for organizational cynicism.

In the studies conducted by Chiaburu et al. (2013), Steele (2014), Peplinski (2014), Kasalak and Aksu (2014), the relationship level between POS and organizational cynicism was examined and an inverse relationship was observed between them. In their study, Byrne and Hochwarter (2007) aimed to analyze the association between organizational cynicism, POS, and performance, and it was found that the highest levels of performance were reached when the perceived organizational support was at intermediate levels in the group with high levels of organizational cynicism. Kalagan (2009) found a significant and strong relationship between POS and organizational cynicism.

Openness to change is a positive and supportive attitude of employees toward a change due to their perception of seeing the change as an opportunity or a growth potential (Kobasa, 1982). On the other hand, studies have shown that employee's conviction in organizational ability to provide policies supporting change has an impact on increasing an individual's openness for an organizational change (Eby et al., 2000; Rafferty and Simons, 2006). Employee's interpretation of suitability and organizational support for the change affects the openness to change (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999).

Cynicism can be explained as being in a negative and pessimistic mood with the others in the working environment and generally observed as dissatisfaction, unwillingness to work, irritation to the work, unhappiness, aggressive behaviors to the peer, and lack of cooperation (Andersson, 1996; Brandes and Dharwarkar, 1998; Clarke, 1999; Ozler et al., 2010).

In the current literature, the relationship between resistance to change and organizational cynicism is analyzed (Reichers et al., 1997; Vance et al., 1996) but the relationship between organizational cynicism and the openness of employees towards an organizational change is not studied excessively. Openness to change is considered as a personal trait in Asik's (2016) study and its impact on organizational cynicism is analyzed. The results show a significant relationship.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. Sampling Procedure

The convenience sampling method was used to select respondents from a global company operating in the retailing sector. 455 questionnaires were distributed to the employees who are currently working in a changing global company operating in the retailing sector and 375 questionnaires were returned as completed. The response rate was 82.4 % but 19 questionnaires were eliminated due to inappropriate responses from the analysis. As a result, 356 questionnaires were used for data analysis.

4.2. Research Design

A quantitative research method was used for the study. The design of the study is explanatory (hypothesis testing) and correlational in nature. Besides, the study is a cross-sectional study.

4.3. Research Variables

As mentioned in the literature review, the concepts of perceived organizational support, job burnout, organizational cynicism, and openness to change are the key variables.

Independent Variable: Perceived Organizational Support

Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism

- Cognitive Cynicism

- Affective Cynicism

- Behavioral Cynicism

Moderating Variable: Openness to Change

- Cognitive

- Affective

- Behavioral

MediatingVariable: Job Burnout

- Emotional Exhaustion

- Depersonalization

- Personal Accomplishment

4.4. The Research Model

As per the research model, which is shown in Figure 4.1, perceived organizational support is the independent; organizational cynicism is the dependent variable of the research model. The role of job burnout is considered as a mediating variable and the openness to change is considered as a moderating variable.

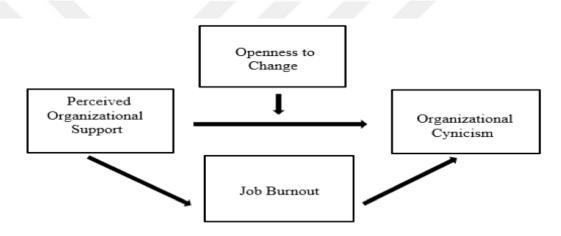


Figure 4.1 The Research Model

4.5. The Research Hypotheses

Based on the above-existed literature, the below hypotheses are formulated:

 H_1 : Perceived organization support has a significant and negative impact on job burnout.

H₂: There is a significant and positive relationship between job burnout and organizational cynicism.

H₃: There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism.

H₄: The association between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism is mediated by job burnout.

H₅: The relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism is moderated by openness to change.

4.6. Measurement Instruments

The data collection method of this research was based on surveys. The questionnaire consists of five parts. At the beginning part of the questionnaire, the information related to respondents' socio-demographic features are collected. Afterward the remaining parts consist of scales for each key concept. The perceived organizational climate scale has 8 items, the organizational cynicism scale has 13 items, the job burnout scale has 22 questions and the openness to change scale has 18 items. The measurement instruments for each concept are explained as follows in detail.

4.6.1. Socio-demographic questions

The first part consists of seven demographic questions to understand the characteristics of the respondents. It is aimed to get an idea about the employees, gender, age, education, work experience in the current firm, tenure, nationality, and the sector.

4.6.2. Perceived organizational support questionnaire

Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed a perceived organizational support scale with 36 items. Eisenberger et al. (1997) revised the original scale to the 8 items. The scale was translated into Turkish by Akalin (2006). This is a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly disagree (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Few selected items of the scale are as follows:

- My organization cares about my opinions. (Item 1)
- Help is available from my organization when I have a problem. (Item 4)
- My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor. (Item 8)

4.6.3. Organizational cynicism questionnaire

Brandes (1997) developed an organizational cynicism scale with 14 items, which has three dimensions; namely cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism. After that Dean et al. (1998) revised the scale by reducing the items into 13 items with the same three dimensions. This is a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly disagree (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Few selected items of the scale are as follows:

- I believe that my organization says one thing and does another. (Item 1)
- In my organization I see very little resemblance between the events that are going to be done and the events, which are done. (Item 5)

- When I think about my organization, I feel a sense of anxiety. (Item 9)
- I criticize the practices and policies of my organization to people outside the company.

 (Item 13)

4.6.4. Job burnout questionnaire

Maslach (2003) developed a job burnout scale, which consists of 22 items with three dimensions, which are emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a lack of accomplishment. These three scales are 5-Point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly disagree (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Few selected items of the scale are as follows:

- I feel emotionally drained from my work. (Item 1)
- I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally. (Item 11)
- Working with people directly puts too much stress on me. (Item 16)
- I feel like I'm at the end of my rope. (Item 20)

4.6.5. Openness to change questionnaire

Dunham et al. (1989) developed the openness to change scale, which originally includes 52 items, and then revised by the same scholars into 18 items with three dimensions, which are cognitive, behavioral, and affective. It is a 6-Point Likert Scale ranging from "strongly disagree (1) to "strongly agree" (6). Few selected items of the scale are as follows:

- I would look forward to such changes at my work. (Item 1)
- Most organization members would benefit from the changes. (Item 5)
- Other people would think that I support the changes. (Item 11)
- I would do whatever possible to support the changes. (Item 15)

4.7. Data Analyses

The questionnaires were analyzed with statistical techniques via using the SPSS statistical package (Version 20.0). Reliability and factor analyses were conducted on all items for perceived organizational support, organizational cynicism, job burnout, and openness to change. After the mentioned analyses, regression and correlation analyses were conducted on all concepts.

4.8. Pilot Study

A pilot study was performed during the period between January-April 2019. 90 questionnaires were distributed to the employees who are currently working in a changing global company operating in the retailing sector. 80 questionnaires were returned as completed. The response rate was approximately 89%. Reliability and factor analyses were conducted and found satisfactory for all of the concepts. Five factors of job burnout, four factors of openness to change, 3 factors of organizational cynicism were found by the results of the factor analyses in the pilot study. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted for all concepts. Based on the findings of the pilot study, there was no need for any extraction of the questions from the analysis.

The research findings of the pilot study showed that there was a negative and significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism. There was a significant and negative relationship between perceived organizational support and job burnout. There was a significant and positive relationship between job burnout and organizational cynicism. Job burnout mediated the relationship between the employees' perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism. There was no moderating impact of openness to change on the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism.

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1. Respondent's Profile

The profiles of the participants were analyzed in the first phase. The results are shown in the below table (See 5.1). The findings showed that 61.5% of the participants were male while 38.5% were female. The majority of the participants (37.9%) were between the ages of 34-40. 45.2% of the respondents have a Bachelor's degree and 42.1% of them have a Master's degree. As per the total job experience results, the majority of the respondents (34%) have been working between 3-7 years. Based on the work experience in the current company, the majority of the respondents (24.7%) have been working between 3-7 years. 58.7% of the participants have a managerial role and 41.3% of them did not have a managerial role in the organization. As per nationality classification results, the majority of the respondents (51.1%) belong to Turkish, 18.8% French, 15.2% Polish, and 14.9% British nationality.

Table 5.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Demographic Variables (n=356)

Table 5.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender		
Female	137	38.5
Male	219	61.5
Age Group		
24-28	57	16.0
29-33	72	20.2
34-40	135	37.9
41-50	71	19.9
51+	21	5.9
Education		
High School	43	12.1
Undergraduate	161	45.2
Graduate	150	42.1
Ph.D.	2	0.6
Tenure		
2 years and below	67	18.8
3-7 years	121	34.0
8-12 years	47	13.2
13-17 years	38	10.7
18-25 years	42	11.8
26 years and above	41	11.5
Work Experience in the Current Company		
2 years and below	63	17.7
3-7 years	88	24.7
8-12 years	77	21.6
13-17 years	73	20.5
18-25 years	49	13.8

26 years and above	6	1.7
Role		
Non-Managerial Role	147	41.3
Managerial Role	209	58.7
Nationality		
Turkish	182	51.1
Polish	54	15.2
French	67	18.8
British	53	14.9

5.2. Reliability of Measurement Instruments

Reliability analysis is performed due to assess the internal consistency of each variable of the scales. Cronbach's Alpha scores have to be lower than 0.70. As shown below Table 5.2 all reliability scores were found over the lower limit of 0.70. This shows that there is a high interrelation between all the items of each concept.

Table 5.2 Reliability Analyses of Measurement Instruments

Concepts	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Organizational Support	0,848
Job Burnout	0,786
Openness to Change	0,873
Organizational Cynicism	0,912

5.3. Factor Analyses

The main aim of the factor analysis is to determine the sets of variables, which are highly interrelated, named as factors (Hair et al., 2006). In other words, in order to find out how many dimensions the participants perceive the items that are asked in the questionnaire and to see whether the results are the same as in the original data while the scales were developed. At the first step, the measure of sampling adequacy is measured to find out if the data is suitable to run the factor analysis (Sipahi et al., 2006). Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity value shows this adequacy. Particularly KMO presents that the data performed in the research analysis is a homogeneous collection of each variable and whether there are correlations between them. Based on the literature, the minimum level of KMO has to be 0.50. Secondly, Bartlett's test shows the statistical significance where there are significant correlations between some of the variables.

Bartlett's value is shown as "p" in the test and the lower level has to be 0.05 as per the related literature (Hair et al., 2006). KMO and Bartlett's tests in this study were found to be satisfactory for all concepts as shown in below Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Factor Analyses of Measurement Instruments

Concepts	кмо	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
Perceived Organizational Support	0,874	Significant
Job Burnout	0,889	Significant
Openness to Change	0,905	Significant
Organizational Cynicism	0,911	Significant

5.3.1. Perceived organizational support

As per the result of the factor analysis conducted for perceived organizational support, all the items were loaded under one factor, which is parallel to the related theoretical framework. In other words, uni-factor was found out. Based on the factor loadings, there was no need for any extraction of the items. The below Scree Pilot chart "Figure 5.1" indicates this distribution very clearly.

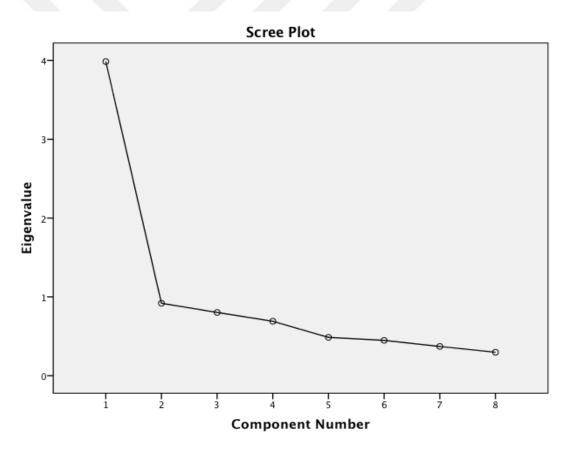


Figure 5.1 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Perceived Organizational Support

As shown in Table 5.4, the item loadings, the explained variance of the factor, and its internal consistency are presented. The internal consistency is found as .848, which enables us to proceed with further analyses. The factor was explained 49,8% of the total variance in perceived organizational support. Based on the result, which is shown in Table 5.5, the factor analysis results were satisfactory with 87.4%, KMO and significant Barlett's test value.

Table 5.4 Factor and Reliability Analyses Results of Perceived Organizational Support

Factor 1: Support %Var.: 49,837	Cronbach's Alpha: .848	Factor Loadings
3. My organization strongly considers m	y goals and values.	.822
1. My organization cares about my opini		.814
7. My organization shows very little con	cern for me. (R)	.758
4. Help is available from my organization	n when I have a problem.	.756
2. My organization really cares about my	well-being.	.744
8. My organization is willing to help me	if I need a special favor.	.622
5. My organization would forgive an hor	nest mistake on my part.	.559
6. If given the opportunity, my organizat	ion would take advantage of me.(R)	.501

Total Variance (%): 49,837

Table 5.5 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Perceived Organizational Support

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.874
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Chi-Square	1062,884
Sig.	.000
df	28

5.3.2. Organizational cynicism

As per the result of the factor analysis conducted for organizational cynicism, 13 items were performed in the analysis. Three factors have been found and none of the items were removed from the analysis. The first factor was related to items about affective cynicism (Cronbach's alpha: 0.939). The second factor was related to the items about cognitive cynicism (Cronbach's alpha: 0.873). The third factor was related to the items about behavioral cynicism (Cronbach's alpha: 0.720). The below Scree Pilot chart "Figure 5.2" indicates this distribution very clearly.

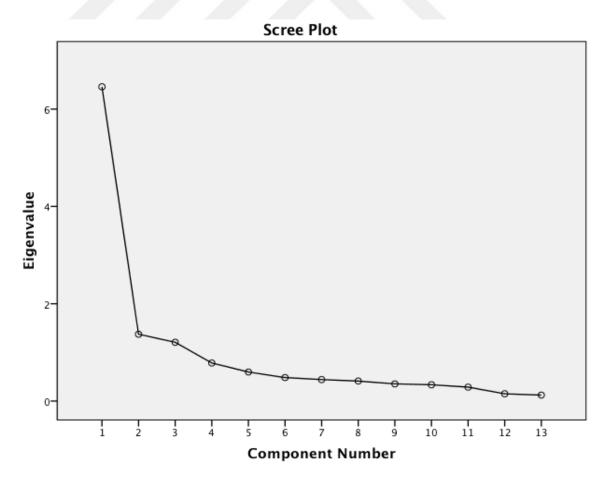


Figure 5.2 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Organizational Cynicism

As shown in Table 5.6, the item loadings, the explained variance of the factor, and its internal consistency are presented. The internal consistency is found as .912, which enables us to proceed with further analyses. The three factors were explained 69,5% of the total variance in organizational cynicism. Based on the result, which is shown in Table 5.7, the factor analysis results were satisfactory with 91.1%, KMO and significant Barlett's test value.

Factor 1: Affective Cynicism	%Var.: 26.466	Cronbach's Alpha: .939	Factor
			Loadings
7. When I think about my organi	ization, I experience a	aggravation.	.890
8. When I think about my organi	ization, I experience t	ension.	.870
6. When I think about my organi	ization, I get angry.		.824
9. When I think about my organi	ization, I feel a sense	of anxiety.	.800
Factor 2: Cognitive Cynicism	%Var.: 26.456	Cronbach's Alpha: .873	Factor
			Loadings
1. I believe that my organization	says one thing and d	oes another.	.797
5. In my organization I see very	little resemblance bet	ween the events	
that are going to be done and the	e events which are do	ne.	.760
2. My organization's policies, go	oals, and practices see	em to have little	
in common.			.757
3. If an application was said to b	e done in my organiz	ation, I'd be more	
skeptical whether it would happe	en or not.		.748
4. My organization expects one	thing of its employees	s, but rewards	
another.			.730
Factor 3: Behavioral Cynicism	%Var.: 16.619	Cronbach's Alpha: .720	Factor
			Loadings
12. I talk with others about how	work is being carried	out in the organization.	.853
13. I criticize the practices and p	olicies of my organiz	ation to people outside	
the company.			.702
10. I complain about what happe	ened at work to my fri	ends outside the	
institution I work for.			.571
11. We look at each other in a m	eaningful way with n	ny colleagues when	
my organization and its employe	ees are mentioned.		.533

Total Variance (%): 69.541

Table 5.7 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Organizational Cynicism

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.911
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Chi-Square	2872,828
Sig.	.000
df	78

5.3.3. Job burnout

As per the result of the factor analysis conducted for job burnout, 22 items were performed in the analysis. Three factors have been found and four items were removed from the analysis. The first factor was related to items about emotional exhaustion (Cronbach's alpha: 0.886). The second factor was related to the items about depersonalization (Cronbach's alpha: 0.811). The third factor was related to the items about lack of personal accomplishment (Cronbach's alpha: 0.704). The Scree Pilot chart "Figure 5.3" indicates this distribution very clearly.

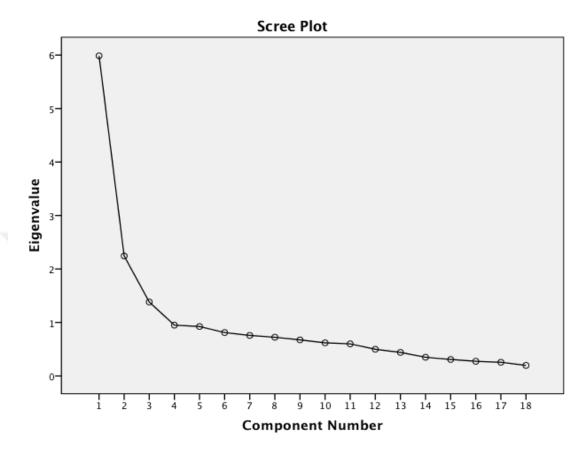


Figure 5.3 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Job Burnout

As shown in Table 5.8, the item loadings, the explained variance of the factor, and its internal consistency are presented. The internal consistency is found as .786, which enables us to proceed with further analyses. The three factors were explained 53,3% of the total variance in job burnout. Based on the result, which is shown in Table 5.9, the factor analysis results were satisfactory with 87.9%, KMO and significant Barlett's test value.

Table 5.8 Factor and Reliability Analyses Results of Job Burnout Scale

Factor 1: Emotional Exhaustion	%Var.: 23.964	Cronbach's Alpha: .886	Factor
Tuetor 1. Emotional Danaustion	70 v ai 20.70 i	Cronbuch Sanphu. 1000	Loadings
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the	he morning and have	e to face another day	8
on the job.	-	•	.862
1. I feel emotionally drained from n	ny work.		.842
2. I feel used up at the end of the w	orkday.		.839
8. I feel burned out from my work.			.779
13. I feel frustrated by my job.			.606
20. I feel like I'm at the end of my	rope.		.583
Factor 2: Depersonalization	%Var.: 15.546	Cronbach's Alpha: .811	Factor
			Loadings
16. Working with people directly pe	uts too much stress	on me.	.792
6. Working with people all day is really a strainforme.			.720
10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.			.679
11. I worry that this job is hardening	g me emotionally.		.572
5. I feel I treat some recipients as if	they were impersor	nal objects.	.481
Factor 3: Personal	%Var.: 13.889	Cronbach's Alpha: .704	Factor
Accomplishment			Loadings
7. I deal very effectively with the pr	roblems of my recip	ients.	.667
9. I feel I'm positively influencing	other people's lives	through my work.	.611
12. I feel very energetic.			.609
4. I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things.		.570	
19. I have accomplished many wort	thwhile things in thi	s job.	.561
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients.		.542	
17. I can easily create arelaxed atm	osphere with my rec	cipients.	.540
T	tal Variance (0/)	52 200	

Total Variance (%): 53.398

Table 5.9 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Job Burnout

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.879
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Chi-Square	2583,227
Sig.	.000
df	153

5.3.4. Openness to change

As per the result of the factor analysis conducted for openness to change, 18 items were performed in the analysis. Three factors have been found and one item was removed from the analysis. The first factor was related to items about cognitive reaction to change (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.904). The second factor was related to the items about affective reaction to change (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.923). The third factor was related to the items about behavioral reaction to change. The below Scree Pilot chart "Figure 5.4" indicates this distribution very clearly.

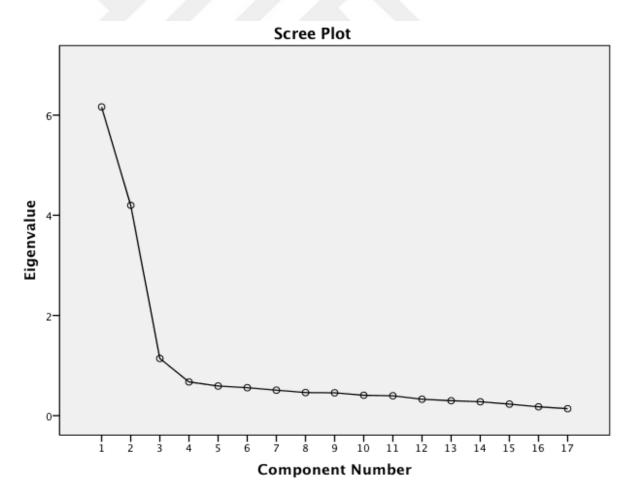


Figure 5.4 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Openness to Change

.880

As shown in Table 5.10, the item loadings, the explained variance of the factor, and its internal consistency are presented. The internal consistency is found as .873, which enables us to proceed with further analyses. The three factors were explained 67,6% of the total variance in openness to change. Based on the result, which is shown in Table 5.11, the factor analysis results were satisfactory with 90.5%, KMO and significant Barlett's test value.

Table 5.10 Factor and Reliability Analyses Results of Openness to Change Scale %Var.: 31.493 **Factor 1: Cognitive Reaction** Cronbach's Alpha: .904 **Factor** Loadings **16.** I would find going through these changes to be pleasing. .815 10. The changes tend to stimulate me. .799 **14.** The changes would help improve unsatisfactory situations at my organization. .766 11. Other people would think that I support the changes. .763 **15.** I would do whatever possible to support the changes. .754 17. I would benefit from the changes. .753 **12.** I would suggest these changes for my organization. .704 **9.** I would support the changes. .696 **1.** I would look forward to such changes at my work. .672 %Var.: 29.231 **Factor 2: Affective Reaction** Cronbach's Alpha: .923 Factor Loadings **4.** I don't like the changes. .879 2. The changes would benefit my organization. (R) .858 13. Most of the changes are irritating. .845 8. The changes would help me perform better at work. (R) .841 **6.** I would be inclined to try the changes.(**R**) .782 7. The changes would frustrate me if they happened in my organization. .773 **18.** I would hesitate to press for such changes. .768 **Factor 3: Behavioral Reaction** %Var.: 6.947 **Factor** Loadings

Total Variance (%): 67.671

<i>Table 5.11</i>	KMO and	Bartlett's	Test for	Openness :	to Change
17 - 1 1 /	O11-'-	. 1 /	- C C	1' A .1.	

3. I would resist the change. (R)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.905
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Chi-Square	3824,510
Sig.	.000
df	136

5.4. Mean Values and Correlation Analysis

5.4.1. Mean values

In order to find out how the employees in a changing global company from different nations perceive each main variable, mean values were evaluated as it is shown in below Table 5.12. Based on the mean value analysis on organizational cynicism dimensions, behavioral cynicism (mean = 2,9396) came into prominence. As per the mean value analysis on job burnout, the dimension of personal accomplishment (mean = 3,7404) was calculated to be the highest among other dimensions. Finally, as per the mean value analysis on openness to change, the dimension of cognitive reaction (mean = 4,6763) was calculated to be the highest.

Table 5.12 Mean Values of Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Cynicism, Job Burnout, and Openness to Change

Concept	Mean Values
Organizational Cynicism	34,6770
Affective Cynicism	2,2135
Cognitive Cynicism	2,8129
Behavioral Cynicism	2,9396
Perceived Org. Support	28,8792
Job Burnout	63,9972
Emotional Exhaustion	2,5300
Depersonalization	2,2315
PersonalAccomplishment	3,7404

Openness to Change	75,2360
Cognitive Reaction	4,6763
Affective Reaction	3,6497
Behavioral Reaction	2,5730

5.4.2. Correlation analysis

The aim of conducting correlation analysis is to find out the relationships between variables. The correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. By performing correlation analysis, it is possible to quantify the direction and the strength of the association between variables. As shown in Table 5.13, the correlation analysis between variables is presented.

Table 5.13 Correlation Analysis for all variables

	POSTOT	CYNTOT	JBTOT	OPNTOT
POSTOT Pearson Correlation	1	-,678**	-,470**	,039
Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,459
N	356	356	356	356
CYNTOT Pearson Correlation	-,678**	1	,657**	-,021
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,687
N	356	356	356	356
JBTOTPearson Correlation	-,470**	,657**	1	,205**
Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000356		,000
N	356		356	356
OPNTOT Pearson Correlation	,039	-,021	,205	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	,459	,687	,000	
N	356	356	356	356

^{**}Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Variables are represented: POSTOT (Perceived Organizational Support), CYNTOT (Organizational Cynicism), JBTOT (Job Burnout), OPNTOT (Openness to Change)

^{*} Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

There is a negative and significant correlation between perceived organizational support with organizational cynicism, and job burnout at r = -.678, r = -.470 respectively. The results support Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3. There is a positive and significant correlation between job burnout and organizational cynicism at r = .657. The result supports Hypothesis 2.

5.5. Regression Analyses

In order to carry out the mediating analysis, a regression analysis was conducted to find out whether job burnout mediates the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism. There are 3 conditions that must be met as Baron and Kenny's steps to be able to talk about the mediation impact. The first condition is that the independent variable must have a significant impact on the mediator variable. Secondly, the independent variable should have a significant impact on the dependent variable. Finally, when the mediator variable is included in the regression analysis in the third step, and if there is no significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, it can be mentioned as there is a full mediation, on the other hand, if there is a decrease in the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, then it is called as there is a partial mediation impact (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

Before starting the regression analysis, all the variables were centered. The first regression analysis was conducted between the independent variable of perceived organizational support and mediator job burnout. As shown in Table 5.14, the beta value of the independent variable was found as -.470, t-test value (-10,018) with a high level of significance.

Table 5.14 Regression Analysis for Perceived Organizational Support and Job Burnout

 Independent Variables:
 Beta
 t-value
 P value

 Perceived Org.Support_Centred
 -.470
 -10.018
 .000

Note: $R = .470^{a}$; R^{2} : .221; Adj. R^{2} : .219; F value: 100.353; p value = .000

Second regression analysis was conducted on the independent variable of perceived organizational support and the dependent variable of organizational cynicism. The independent variable had a beta value of -.678, t-test (-17.360) at a high significance level as shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15 Regression Analysis for Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Cynicism

Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism_Centred						
Independent Variables:	Beta	t-value	P value			
Perceived Org.Support_Centred	678	-17.360	.000			

Note: $R = .678^{a}$; R^{2} : .460; Adj. R^{2} : .458; F value: 301.380; p value = .000

As the last step of the regression analysis is conducted to the two independent variables of perceived organizational support and job burnout and the dependent variable of organizational cynicism. The result was satisfactory as shown in Table 5.16 as the beta value of perceived organizational support decreased from the value of -, 678 to the value of -, 474 with a significance level of, 000. This result obviously showed that there is a partial mediation, which also means that the independent variable of perceived organizational support has a stronger impact on the variable organizational cynicism through the mediator variable of job burnout. Thus, H4 is supported.

Table 5.16 Regression Analysis for the Mediating Role of Job Burnout

Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism_Centred							
Independent Variables:	Beta	t-value	P value	Zero-Order			
Perceived Org.Support_Centred	474	-12.536	.000	678			
Job Burnout_Centred	.435	16.409	.000	.657			

Note: $R = .779^a$; R^2 : .607; Adj. R^2 : .605; F value: 272.604; p value = .000

The role of mediation impact has been also calculated through Hayes's PROCESS Macro for SPSS. As findings showed that (Table 5.17), the beta value has been decreased from - .678 to -.474 when the mediator variable included in analysis and the p-value is .000, so it can be concluded, as there is a significantly partial mediation impact of job burnout between the relationship of perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism.

Table 5.17 Results of Hayes's Process Macro for the Mediating Role of Organizational Climate

	<u> </u>					
OUTCOME VA	RIABLE:					
Model Summ	arv					
rioder panali	R R-sa	MSE	F	df1	df2	q
.470	0 .2209	MSE 73.1436	100.3528	1.0000	354.0000	.0000
Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCT
constant POSTOT	coeff 88.9501 8640	2.5318 .0863 -	35.1330 10.0176	.0000	83.9708 -1.0337	93.9294 6944
Standardiz	ed coefficier coeff	nts				
POSTOT						
Covariance	matrix of reconstant 6.4101	gression pa POSTOT	rameter est	imates:		
POSTOT	6.4101 2148	2148 .0074				
********* OUTCOME VA	*********** RIABLE:	*****	******	******	******	****
Model Summ	arv					
.779	R R-sa	MSE 41.1551	F 272.6043	df1 2.0000	df2 353.0000	q 0000.
Model						
Hodel	coeff	se	t.	n	LLCT	ULCT
constant	coeff 31.8821 9189	4.0228	7.9254	.0000	23.9705	39.7937
POSTOT	9189	.0733	-12.5364	.0000	-1.0630	7747
JBTOT	.4583	.0399	11.4962	.0000	.3799	.5367
Standardiz	ed coefficie coeff	ents				
POSTOT JBTOT	4739 .4346					
Covariance	matrix of r	egression r	parameter e	stimates:		
	constant	POSTOT	JBTOT			
constant	constant 16.1825	2430	1414			
POSTOT	2430	.0054	.0014			
JBTOT	2430 1414	.0014	.0014			
********* OUTCOME VA CYNTOT	********** RIABLE:	**** TOTAL	EFFECT MOD	EL *****	*****	*****
Model Summ	arv					
	R R-so	MSI		F d	f1 (if2 p
.678	1 .4599	56.403	7 301.380	1.00	00 354.00	.0000
Model						
	coeff	se	t	р	LLCI	
CONSTANT POSTOT	72.6504 -1.3149		32.6769 -17.3603	.0000	68.2779 -1.4639	
Standardiz	ed coefficie coeff	ents				
POSTOT	6781					
Covariance	matrix of r		parameter e	stimates:		
	constant	POSTOT				
constant	4.9430	1657				
POSTOT	1657	.0057				

.366

As it is seen in Table 5.18, p-value is found as 0,366, thus it was concluded, as openness to change did not moderate the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism. Accordingly, H5 was rejected.

Table 5.18 Regression Analysis for the Moderating Role of Openness to Change

Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism_CentredIndependent Variables:Betat-valueP valuePerceived Org.Support_Centred-.672-16.928.000Openness to Change_Centered.003.069.945

-.036

-.905

Note: R=.679^a; R²: .461 ; Adj. R²: .457; F value: 100.409; p value=.000

POSOPN_Moderator

As the moderator variable has been found as insignificant, it has been also tested through Hayes's PROCESS Macro for SPSS. As findings are presented in Table 5.19, the p-value of Interaction (Int_1) has been calculated as .366. Openness to change did not moderate the relationship between POS and organizational cynicism as it has been also crosschecked by PROCESS macro.

Table 5.19 Results of Hayes's Process Macro for the Moderating Role of Openness to Change

OUTCOME VARIABLE: CYNTOT Model Summary MSE F df1 df2 R-sq 100.4092 .6791 .0000 .4611 56.5896 3.0000 352.0000 Model coeff se LLCI ULCI constant 62.3529 11.4856 5.4288 .0000 39.7639 84.9420 .3962 .0155 -.1842 -.9633 -2.4317 -1.7425 POSTOT .1327 .1453 .9132 -.1531 OPNTOT .3618 .4185 Int 1 -.0045 .0050 -.9052 .3660 -.0144 .0053 Product terms key: Int_1 POSTOT x OPNTOT Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates: constant POSTOT OPNTOT Int 1 constant 131.9194 -4.4566 -1.6374 .0552 POSTOT -4.4566 .1569 .0552 -.0019 -1.6374 .0552 .0211 -.0007 OPNTOT -.0019 .0000 Int_1 .0552 -.0007 Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s): R2-chng F df1 df2 X*W.0013 .8194 1.0000 352.0000 .3660

As it is seen belowin Table 5.20, the outcomes of the hypothesis are presented:

Table 5.20 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

		Outcome
H_1	Perceived organizational support has a significant and negative impact on job burnout.	Accepted
H_2	There is a significant and positive relationship between job burnout and organizational cynicism.	Accepted
H_3	There is a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism.	Accepted
H_4	The association between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism is mediated by job burnout.	Partially Accepted
H_5	The relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism is moderated by openness to change.	Rejected

In order to analyze the relationship between the demographic variables which are age, gender, education, tenure, roles, and nationality, t and F (ANOVA) tests were performed. For the variables, which composed of two groups such as gender and role, Independent Samples T-tests were conducted to analyze the statistical significance of the differences. On the other hand, the variables that composed of more than two groups such as nationality, tenure, education; the ANOVA tests were performed.

Independent Samples T-tests were conducted to find out if gender makes any difference between the main concepts of the current research. Except for job burnout, significant differences were identified for perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism. In terms of perceived organizational support, it has been found as; males attach more importance (mean=29,38) to support in their organization rather than female employees (mean=28,06) based on the scope of research participants' perception. As per the findings for the concept of organizational cynicism, there was a meaningful difference between the mean values of male and female employees; females attach more importance (mean=36,05) to cynicism in their organization rather than male employees (mean=33,81) (See Table 5.21).

Table 5.21 Independent Samples T-Test Results - Gender

		N	Mean	Std Dev.	t value	p value
Perceived Org. Support	Female	137	28,06	5,07	-2,321	.021
	Male	219	29,38	5,32		
Job Burnout	Female	137	64,81	9,47	1,276	.203
	Male	219	63,48	9,78		
Organizational Cynicism	Female	137	36,05	10,14	2,018	.044
	Male	219	33,81	10,16		

Secondly, an independent sample t-test was performed to analyze whether managerial/non-managerial roles create any difference between the main concepts of the research. Significant differences were identified for organizational cynicism and perceived organizational support. For job burnout, no significant difference was found. In terms of perceived organizational support, it has been found as; the employees who have managerial roles attach more importance (mean=29,56) to support than non-managerial roles (mean=27,89) based on the scope of our participants' perception. As per the findings for organizational cynicism, the employees who do not have a managerial role in an organization attach more importance (mean=36,23) to cynicism rather than managers (mean=33,57) (See Table 5.22).

Table 5.22 Independent Samples T-Test Results - Roles

		N	Mean	Std Dev	. t valu	e p
value						
Perceived Org. Support	Non-Managerial Role	147	27,89	5,14	-2,983	.003
	Managerial Role	209	29,56	5,24		
Job Burnout	Non-Managerial Role	147	64,87	9,82	1,435	.152
	Managerial Role	209	63,37	9,74		
Organizational Cynicism	Non-Managerial Role	147	36,23	10,45	2,438	.015
	Managerial Role	209	33,57	9,90		

ANOVA tests were conducted for age, tenure, and nationality for demographic variables and the main variables of the study. At the first stage, one-way ANOVA analysis was performed to examine the impact of age groups on job burnout. An analysis of variance presented that the impact of age groups on job burnout was significant [F(4, 351) = 4.22, p = .002] (See Table 5.23). Post-Hoc comparison using the Scheffe test showed that the mean score for the age group 24-28 years (μ = -7.0275, Std= 2.4261) was significantly different than the age group 51 years and above (See Table 5.24). These findings presented that the mean value of the age group 24-28 (mean=66,45) is higher than the age group of 51 (mean=59,42). This shows that older employees perceive less job burnout than the young employees based on our sample.

Table 5.23 ANOVA Test Results – Job Burnout and Age

JBTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	1527,170	4	381,793	4,227	,002
Within Groups	31705,827	351	90,330		
Total	33232,997	355			

Table 5.24 Scheffe Results – Job Burnout

	Age	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
24-28 years	29-33 years	-, 0160	1,6850	1.000
	34-40 years	3,1376	1,5012	.227
	41-50 years	4,3012	1,6902	.083
	51 years +	7,0275	2,4261	.033
29-33 years	24-28 years	, 0160	1,6850	1.000
	34-40 years	3,1537	1,3869	.156
	41-50 years	4,3172	1,5896	.054
	51 years +	5,0436	2,3571	.125
34-40 years	24-28 years	-3,1376	1,5012	.227
	29-33 years	-3,1537	1,3869	.156
	41-50 years	1,1635	1,3933	.920
	51 years +	3,8899	2,2294	.408
41-50 years	24-28 years	-4,3012	1,6902	.083
	29-33 years	-4,3172	1,5896	.054
	34-40 years	-1,1635	1,3933	.920
	51 years +	2,7263	2,3608	.777

51 years +	24-28 years	-7,0275	2,4261	.033
	29-33 years	-5,0436	2,3571	.125
	34-40 years	-3,8899	2,2294	.408
	41-50 years	-2,7263	2,3608	.777

In the second phase, one-way ANOVA analysis was performed to examine the impact of tenure on job burnout. An analysis of variance presented that the impact of tenure on job burnout was significant [F(5, 350) = 2.58, p = .026] (See Table 5.25). Post-Hoc comparison using the Scheffe test showed that the mean score for the employees whose tenure was 3-7 years (μ = -5.864, Std= 1.7292), whose tenure was 8-12 years (μ = -5,9662, Std= 2.0449) were significantly different than the employees who have 26 years and above tenure (See Table 5.26). These findings presented that the mean value of the employees who have 3-7 (mean=64,95) and 8-12 years (mean=65,06) tenure is higher than 26 yearsand above (mean=59,09). This shows that the employees who have 26 years and above tenure perceive less job burnout than the employees who have less tenure based on our sample.

Table 5.25 ANOVA Test Results – Job Burnout and Tenure

JBTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	1181,447	5	236,289	2,580	,026
Within Groups	32051,551	350	91,576		
Total	33232,997	355			

Table 5.26 Scheffe Results – Job Burnout

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
2 years and below	3-7 years	-, 4661	1,4572	1.000
	8-12 years	-, 5712	1,8207	1.000
	13-17 years	, 0188	1,9433	1.000
	18-25 years	, 8973	1,8834	.997
	26 years and above	5,3949	1,8974	.053
3-7 years	2 years and below	, 4661	1,4572	1.000
	8-12 years	-, 1051	1,6447	1.000
	13-17 years	, 4849	1,7795	1.000
	18-25 years	1,3634	1,7138	.968
	26 years and above	5,8611	1,7292	.010
8-12 years	2 years and below	, 5712	1,8207	1.000
	3-7 years	, 1051	1,6447	1.000
	13-17 years	, 5901	2,0876	1.000
	18-25 years	1,4685	2,0319	.979
	26 years and above	5,9662	2,0449	.043
13-17 years	2 years and below	-, 0188	1,9433	1.000
	3-7 years	-, 4849	1,7795	1.000
	8-12 years	-, 5901	2,0876	1.000
	18-25 years	, 8784	2,1424	.999
	26 years and above	5,3761	2,1548	.128

18-25 years	2 years and below	-, 8973	1,8834	.997
	3-7 years	-1,3634	1,7138	.968
	8-12 years	-1,4685	2,0319	.979
	13-17 years	-, 8784	2,1424	.999
	26 years and above	4,4976	2,1009	.269
26 years and above	2 years and below	-5,3949	1,8974	.053
	3-7 years	-5,8611	1,7292	.010
	8-12 years	-5,9662	2,0449	.043
	13-17 years	-5,3761	2,1548	.128
	18-25 years	-4,4976	2,1009	.269

In the third phase, one-way ANOVA analysis was performed to examine the impact of nationality on POS. An analysis of variance presented that the impact of nationality on POS was significant [F(3, 352) = 5.80, p = .001] (See Table 5.27). Post-Hoc comparison using the Scheffe test showed that the mean score for the employees whose nationality was Turkish (μ = -2.9436, Std= .7372) was significantly different than the employees whose nationality was French (See Table 5.28). These findings presented that the employees whose nationality was French (mean=26,77) than whose nationality was Turkish (mean=29,71). This shows that the Turkish employees perceive a high level of POS than the French employees based on our sample in the organization.

Table 5.27 ANOVA Test Results – Perceived Organizational Support and Nationality

POSTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	463,119	3	154,373	5,800	,001
Within Groups	9368,687	352	26,616		
Total	9831,806	355			

Table 5.28 Scheffe Results – Perceived Organizational Support

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
Turkish	Polish	1,5346	,7994	.222
	French	2,9436	,7322	.000
	British	, 3612	,8052	.970
Polish	Turkish	-1,5346	,7994	.222
	French	1,4090	,9434	.442
	British	-1,1733	,9975	.642
French	Turkish	-2,9436	,7372	.000
	Polish	-1,4090	,9434	.442
	British	-1,5823	,9483	.154
British	Turkish	-, 3612	,8052	.970
	Polish	1,1733	,9975	.642
	French	1,5823	,9483	.154

In the fourth phase, one-way ANOVA analysis was performed to examine the impact of nationality on organizational cynicism. An analysis of variance presented that the impact of nationality on organizational cynicism was significant [F(3, 352) = 3.30, p = .020] (See Table 5.29). Post-Hoc comparison using the Scheffe test showed that the mean score for the employees whose nationality was French (μ = -4.4897, Std= 1.4441) was significantly different than the employees whose nationality was Turkish (See Table 5.30). These findings showed that there was a meaningful difference between the employees whose nationality was French (mean=37,94) than whose nationality was Turkish (mean=33,45). This shows that the French employees perceive a high level of cynicism than the Turkish employees in the organization based on our sample.

Table 5.29 ANOVA Test Results - Organizational Cynicism and Nationality

CYNTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	1012,993	3	337,664	3,306	,020
Within Groups	35952,858	352	102,139		
Total	36965,851	355			

Table 5.30 Scheffe Results - Organizational Cynicism

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
Turkish	Polish	-1,7531	1,5661	.678
	French	-4,4897	1,4441	.011
	British	-, 7758	1,5774	.961
Polish	Turkish	1,7531	1,5661	.678
	French	-2,7365	1,8482	.450
	British	, 9772	1,9541	.959
French	Turkish	4,4897	1,4441	.011
	Polish	2,7365	1,8482	.450
	British	3,7138	1,8578	.190
British	Turkish	, 7758	1,5774	.961
	Polish	-, 9772	1,9541	.959
	French	-3,7138	1,8578	.190

In the last phase, one-way ANOVA analysis was performed to examine the impact of nationality on job burnout. An analysis of variance presented that the impact of nationality on job burnout was significant [F(3, 352) = 3.74, p = .011] (See Table 5.31). Post-Hoc comparison using the Scheffe test showed that the mean score for the employees whose nationality was Polish (μ = 4.3066, Std= 1.4822) was significantly different than the employees whose nationality was Turkish (See Table 5.32). These findings showed that there was a meaningful difference between Polish employees (mean=60,75) than Turkish employees (mean=65,06).

This shows that the Turkish employees perceive a high level of job burnout than the Polish employees in the organization based on our sample.

Table 5.31 ANOVA Test Results – Job Burnout and Nationality

JBTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	1028,156	3	342,719	3,746	,011
Within Groups	32204,841	352	91,491		
Total	33232,997	355			

Table 5.32 Scheffe Results – Job Burnout

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
Turkish	Polish	4,3066	1,4822	.020
	French	-, 0534	1,3668	1.000
	British	2,8583	1,4929	.224
Polish	Turkish	-4,3066	1,4822	.020
	French	-4,3601	1,7492	.063
	British	-1,4482	1,8494	.862
French	Turkish	, 0534	1,3668	1.000
	Polish	4,3601	1,7492	.063
	British	2,9118	1,7583	.349
British	Turkish	-2,8583	1,4929	.224
	Polish	1,4482	1,8494	.862
	French	-2,9118	1,7583	.349

Additional regression analysis was performed for examining the research questions. Below Table 5.33 presents the findings of testing which dimension of job burnout explains the majority variance of the dependent variable of organizational cynicism. It has been found as the emotional exhaustion dimension explains 63% of the variance of the dependent variable of organizational cynicism.

Table 5.33 Results of Regression Analysis Research Question

Dependent Variable: Organizational Cynicism_Centered

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value	Zero-order
Emotional Exhaustion	.636	13.631	.000	.725
Depersonalization	.146	3.086	.002	.542
Personal Accomplishment	.008	.223	.824	197
$R=.734^{a}$; $R^{2}=.538$; Adj. R^{2} : .534; F value:	136.778 ; p va	lue = .000		

6. DISCUSSION

It is known that human factor, their feelings, and emotions are extremely important to become a successful organization. Negative attitudes towards the organization they work for, dissatisfaction with their job, dissatisfaction with their colleagues and managers, disappointment by them, not being able to rise as they deserve, and not meeting the expectations of the salary they receive make it difficult for the organization to achieve its strategic goals. On the other hand, to survive and gain a competitive advantage, it is not enough to only hire talented employees, ensure that they adapt to the organization, and keep them in the organization. First of all, employees need to adapt to their job and use their skills in their work because it is necessary to concentrate on and spend effort and time in the work to gain a competitive advantage and ensure the continuity of the activities. One of the basic conditions for achieving this is that the employee has positive feelings towards the organization of which she/he is a member and ultimately exhibits beneficial behaviors. The support perceived by the employee from the organization is very important in her/his positive evaluation of the organization and its members and their positive behavior. Knowing that the employee will support the organization under all circumstances will enable her/him to adopt the organization and see the goals of the organization as her/his personal goals. Besides, employees who think they receive support from the organization will display positive attitudes and behaviors towards the organization; they will stay away from harmful attitudes and behaviors to the organization.

Perceived organizational support is a "perception-based" concept that expresses the employee's feelings and thoughts about the value an organization gives to its employee (Yoshimura, 2003). Eisenberger et al. (1986) expressed perceived organizational support as employee perception and belief about the extent to which organizations care and value employees' welfare and contributions.

While Dawley et al. (2010) defined the concept as employee views on how the organization rewards employee performance and how it meets their socio-emotional needs; on the other hand, Wann-Yih and Htaik (2011) expressed the concept as the employee's point of view regarding the organization's consideration of the effort made and the importance of employee well-being.

The concept of job burnout can be accepted as a psychological syndrome, which generally triggersby job stress and is composed of three dimensions, which are *emotional exhaustion*, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2001).

Freudenberger (1974) described burnout as loss of power, increased level of exhaustion, or unwilling behaviors of the individuals. Additionally, Pines (1993) explained that burnout is a negative output of emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion from the job, which results in a perception of disappointment. This disappointment perception occurs while the individuals are completely demanding to perform their jobs, but they are unable to do it.

Organizational cynicism can be described as the negative perceptions and attitudes that the employees show against the organizations. When employees feel that there is a lack of honesty in their organization, then the concept of organizational cynicism appears (Reichers and Wanous, 1997). As an attitude, organizational cynicism is composed of beliefs and behavioral tendencies (Azjen, 1985).

According to Ozdemir (2000), openness to change in the simplest terms is defined as the ability of an individual or an organization to change and willingness to change. Tasdan (2013) defined openness to change as the individual or organizational suitability and willingness to change for positive activities such as development and progress. As per Copas (2003), openness to change is a personality trait related to being open to new conditions as opposed to demanding to stay in ordinary situations. Weiner et al. (2008) described openness to change as the degree to which organizational members were prepared themselves psychologically and behaviorally to apply the organizational change.

The main purposes of this research were to explore the association between perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational cynicism. Additionally, it is also aimed to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational support and job burnout of the employees. Furthermore, the study tested the relationship between POS and organizational cynicism with the moderating role of openness to change. Finally, it is also analyzed the relationship between POS and organizational cynicism with the moderating role of openness to change in a changing global company by comparing different nations.

As a result of factor analysis of perceived organizational support, uni-dimension was found and the result was parallel with the related literature review. Based on the result of the factor analysis conducted for job burnout, three factors have been found and four items were removed from the analysis. As per the result of the factor analysis conducted for organizational cynicism, three factors have been found and none of the items were removed from the analysis. The factor analysis result of organizational cynicism was parallel with the related literature review. Based on the result of the factor analysis conducted for openness to change three factors have been found and one item was removed from the analysis.

The mean value of organizational cynicism is analyzed to observe the perception of the employees from different nations in a changing global organization. The mean value of the dimension of behavioral cynicism (mean=2,93) was quite higher than the other dimensions but consequently, it has been found, as the employees do not perceive themselves as cynic. Based on the mean value of perceived organizational support (mean=28,87), the employees perceive that they partially get support from their organization. As per the mean value of job burnout, the dimension of personal accomplishment (mean=3,74) was notably higher than the other dimensions. The total mean value of job burnout has been found as 63,99, which shows that the employees are uncertain in their perception of job burnout. Considering the function of openness change, employees slightly agree to be open to changes in the organization, which is presented in Table 6.12.

The association between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism was explored in this study. It has been found as perceived organizational support is significantly and negatively correlated with organizational cynicism. Research presented that employees are not likely to perform as expected if they perceive mistreatment in the future (Guastello et al., 1992). Thus, a high level of organizational cynicism is being expected if POS is absent or at a very low level. Based on the research conducted by Jawahar, Stone, and Kisamore (2007), it has been concluded, as POS was associated with less emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, which are two dimensions of organizational cynicism. As per the study of Byrne and Hochwarter (2007), a negative association has been found between POS and cynicism.

It was found out that perceived organizational support is significantly and negatively correlated with job burnout in this study. This shows that when employees perceive a high level of support, the level of their job burnout decreases. Based on the literature, this finding is being supported by many scholars. As per the studies conducted by Cropanzano et al. (1997), Armstrong-Stassen (2004), and Hichy, Falvo, Vanzetto, and Capozza (2003); it has been reported as there was a negative relationship between POS and the dimensions of job burnout. Based on the research performed by Bobbio, Bellan, and Manganelli (2012) in a hospital to nurses; a positive association between POS and trust in the organization has been found and on the other hand, the negative relationship between POS and job burnout was also reported.

According to the research of Yaghoubi, Pourghaz, and Toomaj (2014); it has been found, as there was a significant negative association between POS and job burnout. Similar results were also reported in the research of Yamazaki et al (2000), Penhaligone et al (2009), and Hamwi et al (2011).

In this study, it has been found as job burnout is significantly and positively correlated with organizational cynicism. This shows that when the level of the job burnout of the employees increases, the level of organizational cynicism also increases in the organization. This finding is supported by the study conducted by Akhigbe and Gail (2017) in the banking sector in Nigeria.

As the findings of the research presented, there was a significant association between all three dimensions of job burnout and organizational cynicism. Similar results were also reported in the research of Yasar and Ozdemir (2016), Eryesil and Ozturk (2016), Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003), Özler and Atalay (2011), Uçok (2012), and Alan and Fidanboy (2013).

In this study, it is found job burnout partially mediates the association between POS and organizational cynicism. The moderator role of openness to change on the association between perceived organizational support and organizational cynicism was also examined. However, based on the results no moderating role of openness to change on the association between POS and organizational cynicism found as predicted.

A set of t-tests was conducted to find out the participant's perception on POS, organizational cynicism, and job burnout by gender. A meaningful difference has been found between the mean values of POS and organizational cynicism with gender. In terms of perceived organizational support, it has been found as; males attach more importance (mean=29,38) to support in their organization rather than female employees (mean=28,06) based on the scope of research participants' perception. As per the research conducted by Amason and Allen (1997), the result presented those male employees show higher POS than females. When they perceive higher quality information from their teams, they show higher perceived organizational support reciprocally. In contrast, based on research, which was conducted by Blumer (1996), surprisingly it has been found, as females may be more welcoming to POS than male employees.

As per the findings for the concept of organizational cynicism, there was a meaningful difference between the mean values of male and female employees; females attach more importance (mean=36,05) to cynicism in their organization rather than male employees (mean=33,81). As per the analysis of Isik (2014), which was conducted in the advertisement sector, a significant difference has been found between the average grades of female respondents and those of male respondents. The average score of female respondents is significantly higher than the score of male respondents.

There is a remarkable difference in terms of expressing emotions among females and males. Research indicates that females tend to internalize negative emotions, and on the contrary, males tend to externalize them; and consequently, as a reflection of keeping these negative emotions inside, females may tend to be more cynic than males at work (Kring and Gordon, 1998; Brody and Hall, 2010).

As per the result of the descriptive analysis, 58.7% of the respondents have managerial, 41.3% of them have a non-managerial role in the organization. A meaningful difference has been found between the mean values of POS and organizational cynicism with managerial/non-managerial roles in the organization. In terms of perceived organizational support, it has been found as; the employees who have managerial roles attach more importance (mean=29,56) to support than non-managerial roles (mean=27,89) based on the scope of our participants' perception. According to the study of Allen et al. (2008), research was conducted in an organization where there was a transformatioanal change process in the IT sector. The employees were in stressful conditions when the research was conducted. As a result, it has been found, as the employees who have managerial roles were closely associated with POS. As per the research of Eisenberger et.al (1986), and Levinson (1965) management communication plays an important role in POS. The result of the studies presented that the employees see their managers as agents in their organizations. If they observe positive communication from their managers in the organization, they also perceive that this will lead to a high level of organizational support. In other words, when managers communicate openly with subordinates, employees strengthen their POS reciprocally.

As per the findings for organizational cynicism, the employees who do not have a managerial role in an organization attach more importance (mean=36,23) to cynicism rather than managers (mean=33,57).

In order to analyze whether there is a statistically meaningful difference between the educational backgrounds of the employees, and their perception against POS, job burnout, and organizational cynicism in their organization, an ANOVA test was conducted. Based on the results, no significant difference has been found for all the concepts.

The results showed that the mean score for the age group 24-28 years was significantly different than the age group 51 years and above. This shows that older employees perceive less job burnout than young employees based on our sample. The finding of the research of Whitehead and Lindquist (1986) was also parallel with our findings. The results indicated that older employees reported a lower level of burnout scores. The possible argument behind this result might be explained as; the older employees generally better than younger ones in terms of coping with difficulties due to their experiences. Similar results have been presented in Toch and Klofas' (1982) study, the job burnout level of younger employees was calculated as higher than older workmates. As per the study of Maslach et al. (2001), which was conducted on service workers, indicated that younger employees showed a high rate of job burnout compared to the employees who were over the age of 40 years and over.

As the age of the employees' increase, the stress they feel towards their job decreases as their work experience also increases. Since one of the most important triggers of burnout is stress experienced in the workplace, it may be natural for younger employees to feel higher burnout than older people.

In order to examine the impact of organizational members' tenure on POS, job burnout, and organizational cynicism, ANOVA analysis was performed. An analysis of variance presented that the impact of tenure on only job burnout was significant. The results showed that the mean score for the employees whose tenure was 3-7 years and 8-12 years were significantly different than the employees who have 26 years and above tenure. This shows that the employees who have 26 years and above tenure perceive less job burnout than the employees who have less tenure based on our sample. Based on the study conducted by Karatepe and Uludag (2007) indicated that employees with a long tenure showed lower job burnout syndrome in their organizations.

As per another research conducted by the same scholars in 2008, which was conducted on hotel receptionists presented that longer tenure decreased burnout and had a positive impact on job performance. Considering that employees can cope better with problems related to job burnout, it can be said that long-tenured employees may be more successful in this regard. Another research, which was carried out in the education sector applied to teachers, also indicated similar findings. Based on the results, it has been found, as tenure status was negatively associated with job burnout of the teachers. In other words, the longer the teacher worked in the position, the less she/he experiences job burnout (Sagie and Weisberg, 1999).

The results showed that the mean score for the employees whose nationality was Turkish (mean=29,71) was significantly different than the employees whose nationality was French (mean=26,77). This shows that the Turkish employees perceive a high level of POS than the French employees based on our sample in the organization. As explained above, the perception of POS by employees generally depends on how the managers positively communicate the relationship in the organizations.

Based on the statistical analyses, which examined the difference between managerial roles and POS; it has been indicated as the employees who have managerial roles attach more importance to organizational support than non-managerial roles based on the scope of our participants' perception.

Based on this finding, instead of total employees, another t-test is performed just to analyze whether Turkish or French managers attach more importance to organizational support. The findings showed that Turkish managers perceive a high level of POS (mean=30,5321) than the French managers (mean=27,0278) based on our sample in the organization (See Table 8.13). In conclusion, it is possible to mention that although the whole change processes and procedures are the same for all countries in the organization, their perception of organizational support is different from each other.

Cultural differences are likelyto play an important role in these findings. In Eastern countries, employees attach more importance to POS because they are more likely to accept themselves as interdependent in the organization so their perception of support plays a significant role in their performance, on the other hand, in Western cultures, employees generally see themselves as independent, hence they try to see reciprocity in their relationships between their managers. Therefore, they might not attach importance to organizational support as their workmates do in Eastern countries (Rockstuhl, Eisenberger, and Shore, 2020).

The Turkish employees perceive a high level of job burnout than the Polish employees in the organization based on our sample. As per the analysis of Schaufeli (2018), job burnout has been found as most prevalent in Turkey, France, and former Yugoslavian countries. Contrary to our findings, Poland is seen as having a high level of burnout than in other countries. Based on the research, this association is also linked to some economic indicators such as economic performance, average working hours, and productivity.

Job burnout generally occurs in countries where economic performances are low such as Turkey, Macedonia, and Albania, etc. it was found the national culture dimension of uncertainty avoidance was significantly associated with job burnout. This finding may also support our results.

An analysis of variance presented that the impact of nationality on organizational cynicism was also significant. The results showed that the mean score for the employees whose nationality was French (mean=37,94) was significantly different than the employees whose nationality was Turkish (mean=33,45). This shows that the French employees perceive a high level of cynicism than the Turkish employees in the organization based on our sample. One of the research questions of this study was to find out which dimensions of job burnout explain the majority of variance in the dependent variable of organizational cynicism. Regression analysis indicated that the emotional exhaustion dimension explains 63% of the variance of the dependent variable of organizational cynicism.

6.1. Managerial Implications

Perceived organizational support (POS) has a significant and negative relation with the cynicism level of the employees. Managers in organizations need to understand how to increase the support level of the organization to reduce the cynicism level. They need to find out which POS statements increase more the feeling of support in the organization and invest in these statements to value their teams.

Elder people feel less burnout in our sample compared to young employees. If managers and leaders in the organization understand the reasons for these, they can work closely with the young team members to cope with their burnout factors. They can perform special organizational support and training to the young employees, which explain what the burnout factors are, how to cope with burnout, what needs to be done if individuals feel burnout.

The cynicism level of French employees is high in our study. Managers need to understand why the cynicismlevel of the other nationalities is lower than of the French teams. Managers can implement different organizational support activities to the different nationalities considering their needs fairly. Cultural differences need to be taken into consideration by managers.

The Covid-19 epidemic, which started in China towards the end of 2019 and spread all over the world, has affected approximately 57 million people as of November 2020 (WHO, 2020), causing the death of more than 1 million people to date. In the current period, the closest crisis and uncertainty situation is seen in the atmosphere created by COVID-19, which is a global problem. In this process, uncertainties regarding the future are increasing day by day due to the global economic crisis that businesses are going through. In such an atmosphere, since the most important issue for businesses is to ensure their continuity and to react quickly to changing risks, businesses need employees and managers who can move faster, take action and reach results.

Covid-19 causes anxiety as it negatively has an impact on the normal lives of many people at the same time and contains many uncertainties. The rate of spread of the virus and the rate of transmission from person to person also put pressure on individual relationships. Since there is insufficient information about how long the epidemic will last and will get worse, the resulting uncertainty increases anxiety. Feeling stress and anxious every day during the pandemic period has an impact on the psychological states of employees and might cause stressful behaviors. This stressful tendency might give rise to more cynic behaviors in organizations. Thus, organizations should try to adapt to this unexpected situation. Besides, managers should take necessary actions by adapting proactive approaches into practice, implementing contingency plans, and efficient communication with employees in order to reduce the stressful side of this uncertain period.

On the other hand, most of the employees started to work out of the office and this might create several problems such as misinformation, misunderstanding, and unclear communication. In this pandemic period, organizations need to consider more the well being of the employees and help them when they have faced problems. By considering perceived organizational support more in the workplace, organizations can reduce the job burnout and cynicism level of the employees.

In my opinion, ensuring a constant communication flow to the whole organization about the change, sharing the estimations on what is being expected for the following months, sharing targets and objectives with the whole employees in the company, performing workshops to the teams to build a relationship, holding a periodic top management review meetings about the results and expectations, organizing team building activities to solve problems, and planning job rotation by managers might support the organizations to reduce the perceived uncertainty of the employees, increase the internal insight of the customers and support POS level of the employees while they are passing through a major transition period which exactly took place in the company where the research was conducted.

6.2. Suggestions for Future Research

In our study, it is observed that POS has a significant and negative impact on cynicism and on the other hand, job burnout partially mediates this association. This study is performed in a single company in the retail sector. For future study, it can be done to several companies in the retail sector and other industries, as well.

According to our study and sample, it is observed that elder employees and employees who have more tenure have less burnout level compared to the young employees with less tenure. Less burnout levels may have been resulted from their experiences or adaptation to their companies. For future research, the reasons for a low level of job burnout of elder employees and how they learned to cope with the stress factors can be analyzed in detail.

In our sample, French employees feel less organizational support. In future research, the reasons for thel ow level of perceived organizational support of French employees compared to others should be analyzed; keeping in mind that organizational support is the same. What are the cultural impacts on this feeling? Why both the perceived organizational support level of managerial and non-managerial roles of French employees is low compared to Turkish employees. This difference can be analyzed for different sectors considering the cultural differences of the nations.

In our study, it is observed that French employees feel more cynical compared to Turkish employees. Although the change procedures and the way of working were the same in the company for these two nationalities, why French employees feel more cynic could be analyzed in future studies. The cultural impact behind these findings can also be examined.

The sub-dimensions of job burnout were not included in the study with separate hypotheses in order not to move away from the general structure of the model and not to cause confusion. These sub-dimensions should also be included in studies that can be done by researchers.

6.3. Limitations

This research is conducted in a single multinational company. The questionnaire of the research contains two negative organizational behavior concepts. Although it was mentioned that all the collected data and the responses of the participants would be kept confidential, there might be an unwillingness to reply to the survey questions. In other words, the participants might not reflect their own feelings and ideas because of the fear of the results that might share with the management.

This research is applied in a single multinational company and the participants have consisted of different nationalities. Thus, there might be cultural differences. There are no variables that reveal the characteristics of national culture or organizational culture among the variables discussed in the study. This issue may be considered to reach some interesting findings in future research studies.

7. SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

7.1. One-Way ANOVA

Variable :Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Cynicism, Job Burnout

Factor :Age

Table 7.1 Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Age

	Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
Perceived Org. Support	.315	4	351	.868
Organizational Cynicism	.545	4	351	.703
Job Burnout	4.044	4	351	.003

Table 7.2 ANOVA Test Results – Age

		N	Mean	F Value	P Value
Perceived Org. Support	24-28 years	57	27,31		
	29-33 years	72	28,38		
	34-40 years	135	29,75	2,400	,150
	41-50 years	71	28,88		
	51 years +	21	29,14		
Organizational Cynicism	24-28 years	57	36,85		
	29-33 years	72	36,91		
	34-40 years	135	34,08	2,869	,123
	41-50 years	71	32,12		
	51 years +	21	33,52		
Job Burnout	24-28 years	57	66,45		
	29-33 years	72	66,47		
	34-40 years	135	63,31	4,227	,002
	41-50 years	71	62,15		
	51 years +	21	59,42		

Table 7.3 ANOVA Test Results – Perceived Organizational Support and Age

POSTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	261,776	4	65,444	2,400	,150
Within Groups	9570,030	351	27,265		
Total	9831,806	355			

Table 7.4 Scheffe Results – Perceived Organizational Support

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
24-28 years	29-33 years	-1,0731	, 9257	.775
	34-40 years	-2,4397	, 8248	.127
	41-50 years	-1,5715	, 9286	.440
	51 years +	-1,8270	1,3329	.647
29-33 years	24-28 years	1,0731	, 9257	.775
	34-40 years	-1,3666	, 7620	.379
	41-50 years	-, 4984	, 8733	.979
	51 years +	-, 7539	1,2950	.978
34-40 years	24-28 years	2,4397	, 8248	.127
	29-33 years	1,3666	, 7620	.379
	41-50 years	, 8682	, 7654	.788
	51 years +	, 6127	1,2248	.987
41-50 years	24-28 years	1,5715	, 9286	.440
	29-33 years	, 4984	, 8733	.979
	34-40 years	-, 8682	, 7654	.788
	51 years +	-, 2555	1,2970	1.000

51 years +	24-28 years	1,8270	1,3329	.647
	29-33 years	, 7539	1,2950	.978
	34-40 years	-, 6127	1,2248	.987
	41-50 years	, 2555	1,2970	1.000

Table 7.5 ANOVA Test Results – Organizational Cynicism and Age

CYNTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	\boldsymbol{F}	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	1170,273	4	292,568	2,869	,123
Within Groups	35795,578	351	101,982		
Total	36965,851	355			

Table 7.6 Scheffe Results – Organizational Cynicism

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std.Error	Sig.
24-28 years	29-33 years	-, 0570	1,7904	1.000
	34-40 years	2,7781	1,5951	.410
	41-50 years	4,7328	1,7959	.166
	51 years +	3,3358	2,5778	.695
29-33 years	24-28 years	, 0570	1,7904	1.000
	34-40 years	2,8351	1,4737	.307
	41-50 years	4,7899	1,6890	.139
	51 years +	3,3928	2,5045	.657
34-40 years	24-28 years	-2,7781	1,5951	.410
	29-33 years	-2,8351	1,4737	.307
	41-50 years	1,9547	1,4804	.679
	51 years +	, 5576	2,3689	.999

41-50 years	24-28 years	-4,7328	1,7959	.166
	29-33 years	-4,7899	1,6890	.139
	34-40 years	-1,9547	1,4804	.679
	51 years +	-1,3970	2,5085	.981
51 years +	24-28 years	-3,3358	2,5778	.695
	29-33 years	-3,3928	2,5045	.657
	34-40 years	-, 5576	2,3689	.999
	41-50 years	1,3970	2,5085	.981

7.2. One-Way ANOVA

Variable :Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Cynicism, Job Burnout

Factor :Tenure

Table 7.7 Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Tenure

	Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
Perceived Org. Support	1.252	5	350	.284
Organizational Cynicism	1.295	5	350	.265
Job Burnout	3.021	5	350	.011

Table 7.8 ANOVA Test Results – Tenure

		N	Mean	F Value	P Value
Perceived Org. Support	2 years and below	67	29,14		
	3-7 years	121	28,96		
	8-12 years	47	29,27	,678	,641
	13-17 years	38	28,36		
	18-25 years	42	27,69		
	26 years and above	41	29,41		

Organizational Cynicism	2 years and below	67	33,20		
	3-7 years	121	35,43		
	8-12 years	47	34,95	1,089	,366
	13-17 years	38	36,63		
	18-25 years	42	34,90		
	26 years and above	41	32,46		
Job Burnout	2 years and below	67	64,49		
	3-7 years	121	64,95		
	8-12 years	47	65,06	2,580	,026
	13-17 years	38	64,47		
	18-25 years	42	63,59		
	26 years and above	41	59,09		

7.3. One-Way ANOVA

Variable :Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Cynicism, Job Burnout

Factor :Nationality

Table 7.9 Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Nationality

, ,	Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
Perceived Org. Support	1.147	3	352	.330
Organizational Cynicism	2.188	3	352	.089
Job Burnout	5.290	3	352	.001

Table 7.10 ANOVA Test Results – Nationality

		N	Mean	F Value	P Value
Perceived Org. Support	Turkish	182	29,71		
	Polish	54	28,18		
	French	67	26,77	5,800	,001
	British	53	29,35		
Organizational Cynicism	Turkish	182	33,45		
	Polish	54	35,20		
	French	67	37,94	3,306	,020
	British	53	34,22		
Job Burnout	Turkish	182	65,06		
	Polish	54	60,75		
	French	67	65,11	3,746	,011
	British	53	62,20		

7.4. One-Way ANOVA

Variable :Perceived Organizational Support (only for managers)

Factor :Nationality

Table 7.11 Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Nationality (only for managers)

	Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
Perceived Org. Support	1.048	3	205	.372

Table 7.12 ANOVA Test Results – POS and Nationality (only for managers)

POSTOT	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Squares				
Between Groups	336,738	3	112,246	4,269	,006
Within Groups	5390,506	205	26,295		
Total	5727,244	208			

Table 7.13 Scheffe Results – POS (only for managers)

	Total	Total Mean		Sig.
	Tenure	Difference		
Turkish	Polish	1,08767	1,10233	.757
	French	3,50433	,98573	.003
	British	1,23481	,97566	.586
Polish	Turkish	-1,08767	1,10233	.757
	French	2,41667	1,30549	.253
	British	, 14715	1,29791	.999
French	Turkish	-3,50433	,98573	.003
	Polish	-2,41667	1,30549	.253
	British	-2,26952	1,20046	.235
British	Turkish	-1,23481	,97566	.586
	Polish	-, 14715	1,29791	.999
	French	2,26952	1,20046	.235

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APPENDIX A.

Demographic Questions of the Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire is being conducted in order to carry out a scientific research which analyzes some main concepts oriented to business practices.

The answers you give will only be used within the relevant scientific research and your identity will be kept strictly confidential. In order to support this confidentiality, we kindly request you not to write any signs in the questionnaire which may reveal your name or identity.

Thank you in advance for your valuable contribution to this scientific research.

Please answer the following demographic questions.

1.	Gender	1	Female ()	Male
2.	() Age		18-23 24-28 29-33 34-40 41-50	() () () ()
3.	Highest Level of Education	:	51 and above High School Bachelors Degree Masters Degree Ph.D	()
4.	How long have you been in working life?	:	2 years or below 3-7 years 8-12 years 13-17 years 18-25 years 26 years or above	() () () ()
5.	How long have you been working in your current company?	:	2 years or below 3-7 years 8-12 years 13-17 years 18-25 years 26 years or above	() () () () ()
6.	Current Position	:	Managerial Role Non-Managerial Role	()
7.	What is your nationality?	:		

APPENDIX B.

Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire

Thefollowingstatementsrepresent the opinions that YOUmayhave aboutworkingatyouremployingorganization.Please indicate thedegreeofyouragreement or disagreement with eachstatement.	Strongly <u>Agree</u>	Agree	NeitherDisagree nor Agree	Disagree	Strongly <u>Disag</u> <u>ree</u>
1. My organization cares about my opinions.					
2. My organization really cares about my well-being.					
3. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.					
4. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.					
5. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.					
6. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.(R).					
7. My organization shows very little concern for me. (R).					
8. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.					

APPENDIX C.

Organizational Cynicism Questionnaire

Thefollowingstatementsrepresent the opinions that YOUmayhave aboutworkingatyouremployingorganization.Please indicate thedegreeofyouragreement or disagreement with eachstatement.	Strongly <u>Agree</u>	Agree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Disagree	Strongly <u>Disa</u> gree
1. I believe that my organization says one thing and does another.					
2. My organization's policies, goals, and practices seem to have little in common.					
3. If an application was said to be done in my organization, I'd be more skeptical whether it would happen or not.					
4. My organization expects one thing of its employees, but rewards another.					
5. In my organization I see very little resemblance between the events that are going to be done and the events which are done.					
6. When I think about my organization, I get angry.					
7. When I think about my organization, I experience aggravation.					
8. When I think about my organization, I experience tension.					
9. When I think about my organization, I feel a sense of anxiety.					
10. I complain about what happened at work to my friends outside the institution I work for.					
11. We look at each other in a meaningful way with my colleagues when my organization and its employees are mentioned.					
12. I talk with others about how work is being carried out in the organization.					
13. I criticize the practices and policies of my organization to people outside the company.					

APPENDIX D.

Job Burnout Questionnaire

Thefollowingstatementsrepresent the opinions that YOUmayhave aboutworkingatyouremployingorganization.Please indicate thedegreeofthe frequency that you feel with eachstatement.	Strongly <u>Agre</u>	Agree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Disagree	Strongly <u>Disa</u>
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.					
2. I feel used up attheend of the workday.					
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.					
4. I can easily understand how my recipients feel about things.					
5. I felI treat some recipients as if they were impersonal objects.					
6. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.					
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my recipients.					
8. I feel burned out from my work.					
9. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.					
10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.					
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.					
12. I feel very energetic.					
13. I feel frustrated by my job.					
14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.					
15. I don't really care what happens to some recipients.					
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.					
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my recipients.					
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my recipients.					
	1		1		

19. I have accomplished many worth while things in this job.			
20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.			
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.			
22. I feel recipients blame me for some of their problems.			

APPENDIX E.

Openness to Change Questionnaire

Thefollowingstatementsrepresent the opinions that YOUmayhave aboutworkingatyouremployingorganization.Please indicate thedegreeofyouragreement or disagreement with eachstatement.	Strongly <u>Agr</u>	Widely Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Widely Disagree	Strongly <u>Dis</u>
1. I would look forward to such changes at my work.						
2. The changes would benefit my organization.						
3.I would resist the change.						
4. I don't like the changes.						
5. Most organization members would benefit from the changes.						
6. I would be inclined to try the changes.						
7. The changes would frustrate me if they happened in my organization.						
8. The changes would help me perform better at work.						
9. I would support the changes.						
10. The changes tend to stimulate me.						
11. Other people would think that I support the changes.						
12. I would suggest these changes for my organization.						
13. Most of the changes are irritating.						
14. The changes would help improve unsatisfactory situations at my organization.						

15. I would do whatever possible to support the changes.			
16. I would find going through these changes to be pleasing.			
17. I would benefit from the changes.			
18. I would hesitate to press for such changes.			

APPENDIX F.

Demografik Soruların Anket Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, iş yaşamınızdaki uygulamalara ilişkin bir çalışmadır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda hazırlanmış olan anket formunda sizden istediğimiz, soruları kendi fikirlerinizi ve yaklaşımlarınızı dikkate alarak doldurmanızdır.

Bize vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece ilgili bilimsel araştırma dahilinde kullanılacak ve kimliğiniz kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. Cevaplarınızın gizli tutulacağına dair bize olan güveninizi sağlamak için sizden isminizi veya kimliğinizi açığa çıkartacak herhangi bir işareti anket formu üzerine yazmamanızı önemle hatırlatırız.

Bu araştırmaya vereceğiniz katkı için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz Erkek ()	:	Kadın	()
2. Yaşınız	:	18-23	()
•		24-28	()
		29-33	()
		34-40	()
		41-50	()
		51 ve üstü	()
3. En son mezun olduğunuz eğitim kurumu	:	Lise	()
		Üniversite	()
		Yüksek Lisans	()
		Doktora	()
4. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız?	:	2 yıl ve altı	()
4. Kaç yıldır çarışına nayatındasınız:	•	3-7 yıl	()
		8-12 yıl	()
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	()
		13-17 yıl	()
		18-25 yıl	()
		26 yıl ve üstü	()

5. Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?:	2 yıl ve altı 3-7 yıl 8-12 yıl 13-17 yıl	()
	18-25 yıl 26 yıl ve üstü	()
6. Mevcut organizasyondaki rolünüz	: Yöneticilik Rolü Yönetici Olmayan Rollei	()
7. Uyruğunuz ?		

APPENDIX G.

Algılanan Örgütsel Adalet Anket Formu

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelerle ilgili görüşünüzü "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" dan "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1.Çalıştığım kurum fikirlerimi önemser.					
2.Çalıştığım kurum refahıma gerçekten önem verir.					
3.Çalıştığım kurum benim amaçlarıma ve değerlerime büyük önem verir.					
4. Herhangi bir sorunla karşı karşıya kaldığımda çalıştığım kurum yardıma hazırdır.					
5.Çalıştığım kurum yaptığım dürüst bir hatayı bağışlayacaktır.					
6.Çalıştığım kurum fırsat bulsa beni istismar eder.					
7.Çalıştığım kurum bana çok az ilgi gösteriyor.					
8.Çalıştığım kurum özel bir iyiliğe ihtiyacım olursa bana yardım etmeye isteklidir.					

APPENDIX H.

Örgütsel Sinizm Anket Formu

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelerle					
ilgili görüşünüzü "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" dan "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" a doğru	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden	Kesinlikle atılıyorun	atılıy	Karar	ti m	Kesinlikle
birine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	-	꾀		Χ	Ka
1. Çalıştığım kurumda, söylenenler ile yapılanların farklı olduğuna inanıyorum.					
2. Çalıştığım kurumun politikaları, amaçları ve uygulamaları arasında çok az ortak bir yön vardır.					
3.Çalıştığım kurumda, bir uygulamanın yapılacağı söyleniyorsa, bunun gerçekleşip					
gerçekleşmeyeceği konusunda kuşku duyarım.					
4. Çalıştığım kurumda, çalışanlardan bir şey yapması beklenir, ancak başka bir davranış ödüllendirilir.					
5. Çalıştığım kurumda, yapılacağı söylenen şeyler ile gerçekleşenler arasında çok az benzerlik görüyorum.					
gordyorum.					
6. Çalıştığım kurumu düşündükçe sinirlenirim.					
7. Çalıştığım kurumu düşündükçe hiddetlenirim.					
8. Çalıştığım kurumu düşündükçe gerilim yaşarım.					
9. Çalıştığım kurumu düşündükçe içimi bir endişe duygusu kaplar.					
10. Çalıştığım kurum dışındaki arkadaşlarıma, işte olup bitenler konusunda yakınırım.					
11. Çalıştığım kurumdan ve çalışanlarından bahsedildiğinde, birlikte çalıştığım kişilerle anlamlı bir					
şekilde bakışırız.					
12. Başkalarıyla, çalıştığım kurumdaki işlerin nasıl yürütüldüğü hakkında konuşurum.					
13. Başkalarıyla, çalıştığım kurumdaki uygulamaları ve politikaları eleştiririm.					

APPENDIX I.

Mesleki Tükenmişlik Anket Formu

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelerle ilgili görüşünüzü "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" dan "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle <u>Katılıyorum</u>	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. İşimden soğuduğumu hissediyorum.					
2. İş dönüşü kendimi ruhen tükenmiş hissediyorum.					
3.Sabah kalktığımda bu işi bir gün daha kaldıramayacağımı hissediyorum.					
4. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların ne hissettiğini hemen anlarım.					
5. İşim gereği karşılaştığım bazı kimselere sanki insan değillermiş gibi davrandığımı farkediyorum.					
6.Bütün gün insanlarla uğraşmak benim için gerçekten çok yıpratıcı.					
7. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların sorunlarına en uygun çözüm yollarını bulurum.					
8. Yaptığım işten yıldığımı hissediyorum.					
9. Yaptığım iş sayesinde insanların yaşamına katkıda bulunduğuma inanıyorum.					
10.Bu işte çalışmaya başladığımdan beri insanlara karşı sertleştim.					
11. Bu işin beni giderek katılaştırmasından korkuyorum.					
12. Çok şeyler yapabilecek güçteyim.					
13. İşimin beni kısıtladığını hissediyorum.					
14. İşimde çok fazla çalıştığımı hissediyorum.					
15. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlara ne olduğu umrumda değil.					
16.Doğrudan doğruya insanlarla çalışmak bende çok fazla stres yaratıyor.					
17. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanlarla aramda rahat bir hava yaratırım.					
18. İnsanlarla yakın bir çalışmadan sonra kendimi canlanmış hissederim.					
19. Bu işte kayda değer birçok başarı elde ettim.					

20. Yolun sonuna geldiğimi hissediyorum.			
21. İşimdeki duygusal sorunlara serinkanlılıkla yaklaşırım.			
22. İşim gereği karşılaştığım insanların bazı problemlerini sanki ben yaratmışım gibi davrandıklarını hissediyorum.			

APPENDIX J.

Değişime Açıklık Anket Formu

Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelerle ilgili görüşünüzü "Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" dan "Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle <u>Katılıyorum</u>	Büyük Ölçüde Katılıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Büyük Ölçüde Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Değişim şirketin yararına olacaktır.						
2. Değişiklikleri pek sevmem.						
3.Değişim, eğer benim bölümümde oluyorsa, rahatsız olabilirim.						
4. Ben de şirketimde değişiklikler olmasını öneririm.						
5. Genelde değişiklikler rahatsızlık yaratır.						
6. Değişikliklerde önde olmak konusunda duraksarım.						
7.Şirketimde değişim olmasını dört gözle bekliyorum.						
8. Değişime direnç gösteririm.						
9.Şirketteki bir çok çalışan değişimden olumlu etkilenecektir.						
10. Değişiklikleri denemeye eğilimli olacağım.						
11. Değişimi desteklerim.						
12. Diğer çalışanlar, benim değişimi destekleyeceğimi düşünüyor.						
13. Değişim daha yüksek performans göstermeme yardımcı olacaktır.						

14. Değişimin beni olumlu yönde ateşleyici etkisi vardır.			
15. Değişim, şirketteki istenmeyen durumların iyileştirilmesine yardımcı olacaktır.			
16. Değişimi desteklemek için ne gerekiyorsa yaparım.			
17. Olası bir değişimden kazançlı çıkarım.			
18. Değişimden geçmenin, kişisel olarak beni mutlu edeceğini düşünüyorum.			