

T.C.

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE ROLE OF PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS ON
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TENDENCY OF
STIGMATIZATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT: A RESEARCH ON ACADEMIC STAFF

PHD THESIS

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MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION





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ABSTRACT

The Role Of Personality Characteristics On The Relationship Between Tendency Of Stigmatization and Organizational Commitment: A Research On Academic Staff

In this study, the role of personality traits on the effect of stigmatization tendencies on organizational commitment was examined. The big five personality inventory, which is frequently used in the literature, and the concepts of organizational commitment and stigmatization were examined together, and the effect of stigmatization tendency on employees' organizational commitment and whether personality traits had a mediator or moderator effects were investigated.

Within the scope of the research, questionnaires were collected from 334 faculty members at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University and Kırşehir Ahi Evran University. The data obtained were analyzed with SPSS, Process Macro, and the sub-dimensions of all three variables and the mediator or moderation effects were examined.

According to the findings of the research, there are many mediator and moderator effects between discrimination, prejudice, labeling and psychological health, which are the sub-dimensions of stigmatization tendency, and affective, continuance and normative commitment, which are sub-dimensions of organizational commitment. Especially with the inclusion of five different sub-factors of personality, the results became more meaningful. One of the most important findings of the study is the presence of moderated mediation effect. The relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is mediated by emotional stability, while at the same time marital status plays a moderating role between emotional stability and continuation commitment.

In the literature, few studies have examined the relationship between discrimination and organizational commitment. The relationship between stigmatization types such as prejudice, labeling and organizational commitment was examined and also the effect of personality traits on this relationship was investigated. Numerous relationships have been identified and interpreted individually. In this research, which is expected to be an important resource for future researchers, the Bootstrap method has been used.

Keywords: Academic Staff, Big Five, Organizational Commitment, Personality, Stigmatization

ÖZET

Damgalama Eğilimi ve Örgütsel Bağlılık İlişkisinde Kişilik Özelliklerinin Rolü: Akademik Personel Üzerine Bir Araştırma

Bu çalışmada çalışanların damgalama eğilimlerinin örgütsel bağlılıklarına etkisinde kişilik özelliklerinin rolü incelenmiştir. Literatürde sıklıkla kullanılan büyük beşli kişilik envanteri ve örgütsel bağlılık kavramları ile damgalama kavramı birlikte incelenmiş ve çalışanların örgütsel bağlılıklarında damgalama eğiliminin ne kadar etkili olduğu ve kişilik özelliklerinin bu etkide aracı veya düzenleyici etkisinin olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır.

Araştırma kapsamında, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi ile Kırşehir Ahi Evran Üniversitesinde görev yapan toplam 334 öğretim elemanından anketler toplanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler SPSS, Process Makro ile incelenmiş, her üç değişkenin alt boyutlarının birbirleriyle olan aracı veya düzenleyici etkileri incelenmiştir.

Araştırmanın bulgularına göre, damgalama eğiliminin alt boyutlarından olan ayrımcılık, önyargı, etiketleme ve psikolojik sağlık ile, örgütsel bağlılığın alt boyutlarından olan duygusal, devam ve normatif bağlılık arasında çok sayıda aracı ve düzenleyici etki bulunmuştur. Özellikle kişiliğin de beş farklı alt faktörünün de araştırmaya dahil edilmesi ile sonuçlar daha anlamlı bir hale gelmiştir. Araştırmanın en önemli bulgularından biri de durumsal aracı etkinin varlığıdır. Önyargı ile devam bağlılığı arasındaki ilişkiye duygusal denge aracılık ederken, aynı zamanda medeni durumun bu ilişkide duygusal denge ile devam bağlılığı arasında düzenleyici rol üstlenmesidir.

Literatürde ayrımcılık ile örgütsel bağlılık kavramları arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen az sayıda araştırmaya rastlanılmıştır. Önyargı, etiketleme gibi damgalama türleri ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki incelenmiş aynı zamanda bu ilişkide kişilik özelliklerinin de ne derece etkili olduğu araştırılmıştır. Çok sayıda ilişki tespit edilmiştir ve bunlar tek tek yorumlanmıştır. Gelecekte benzer çalışma yapacaklar için önemli bir kaynak olması beklenen bu araştırmada Bootstrap metodu kullanılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Akademik Personel, Büyük Beşli, Damgalama, Kişilik,
Örgütsel Bağlılık

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- HRM : Human Resource Management
BCA : Bias-Corrected and Accelerated
CI. : Confidence Interval
EFA : Exploratory Factor Analysis
KMO : Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin



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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research Problem

The concept of stigmatization, first described by Eric Goffmann as negative feedback from social relations, has been the subject of many different disciplines such as psychology, sociology, health sciences and social sciences. Bos and his friends examined the articles published between 1963 and 2012 with the keyword stigma on the Psycinfo database, they reached 9939 articles and found that almost three out of four were written in the last ten years (1). In other words, there have been many publications in the field of health sciences and psychology and social sciences related to stigma in recent years and the issue of stigma has become widespread among the researchers.

In ancient Greek history, the concept of stigmatization, which was used to describe slaves, was later used to indicate the negative characteristics of individuals seen by society. Ragins defined the concept of stigmatization as the sum of the characteristics seen as the defects of individuals in social relations (2). Humphrey, on the other hand, defines stigmatization as the behavior of individuals as defected or non-defected behaviors, and defined as a process of creating a nerve between the stigmatized movement and the stigmatized person of the society (3). According to the German sociologist Falk, all societies tend to stigmatize certain behaviors and situations in order to be in solidarity with their own groups and to establish superiority against those of their own (4).

The people who are stigmatized by the society are humiliated by other individuals, avoided and excluded from social interaction (5). The stigmatization of individuals causes them to be discriminated against, to be exposed to decisive behaviors in the society, to become worthless, resulting in loss of reputation, financial problems, loss of jobs, unequal opportunities among others (6).

Society tends to stigmatize many individuals and groups in many subjects. People are generally against and tends to stigmatize to blacks (7), obeses (8), physically disabled people (9), mentally disabled peoples (10), homosexual individuals (11). The inclusion of people in

any of these stigmatized groups, or by stigmatizing them by including them in one of these categories, causes stigmatized individuals to become disadvantaged within the society and suffer certain economic losses (12).

Individuals tend to behave in a certain way and their genetic characteristics are effective in the development of their personality (13). Therefore, the stigmatization tendencies of individuals affect their relations with other individuals and institutions. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine whether the stigmatization tendency of individuals has changed according to personality traits and to determine whether they affect their organizational commitment at the same time.

The concept of stigmatization varies with context and time (14). Therefore, examining the concept of stigma introduced in the USA in the 1960s in different cultures is also very important for the generalizability of the concept. However, behaviors or physical characteristics that cause stigmatization in one culture may not be the reason for stigmatization in another culture (15). Research shows that the concept of stigma is examined with different groups and different results are obtained. Therefore, the concept of stigma first appeared in Europe and America and the possible causes and results were put forward according to those cultures. The effects of stigmatization on Turkish culture and whether the reasons and results in the literature are in Turkish culture can provide important inferences. Stigmatization consists of several factors. There are generally 3 different rounds of social stigmatization, situational stigmatization and structural stigmatization. However, the common output of the three factors is that it causes individuals to be excluded from the society (16).

Exposure to discrimination in the workplace harms many positive organizational outcomes. At the same time, psychological and physical damage to those exposed to discrimination has been revealed in research (17, 18). Therefore, it is very important to examine the stigmatization tendencies of the employees and to investigate the effect of these tendencies on their organizational commitment and to protect positive organizational outputs.

The success of organizations is directly proportional to how efficiently they use the human factor. One of the most basic prerequisites for individuals to be productive is their level of commitment to their organizations. Every organization wants to please its employees and get maximum efficiency from them. Therefore, they try to connect them to the

organization in different ways. One of the most important factors that can affect individuals' commitment to the organization is the personality traits of individuals.

Individuals are different from each other and this difference implies the necessity for everyone to behave according to their personality. The employment of individuals in appropriate positions, the correct punishment and rewarding affect the commitment of individuals. Although organizations take steps to connect their employees to the organization, this may not always bring success. Man is not a mechanical being. He is influenced by what is happening around him and reflects this on his behavior. In doing so, he tries to put people around him, his colleagues or institutions into various patterns or labels them. Although this labeling is sometimes positive, it is generally negative. It has the potential to criticize those who do not think like themselves, or those who do not live like themselves. While attending to appropriate groups and tending to continue their time in those groups, they may be hostile towards people who are not from their group.

According to this approach, which forms the basis of social identity theory, individuals have group belongingness and they tend not to support individuals who are not from their own group or organizations that are not supported by their own group. Individuals can see not only other individuals, but also organizations as an out group. They divide them into different categories and avoid contact with organizations that do not fit their own thinking.

Is it not possible for individuals to exhibit a negative attitude towards the organization they work for? Are there people around us who don't like the institution she has worked for years and criticize her mercilessly? Don't we ever come across companies that have a positive image of many people, and people who have a negative image, unlike them?

Is it because these organizations are really bad? Or is it because people are vulnerable to certain personality traits or negativities such as labeling, discrimination, prejudice? Do organizations really have a negative position that does not deserve the loyalty of individuals? Or do individuals' stigmatization tendencies affect their commitment?

Therefore, because of all reasons, which have been so far, the aim of this study is to investigate the effect of stigmatization tendencies on organizational commitment and to examine whether the personality traits of the individuals mediate this effect or whether there is a moderation effect on this effect.

1.2. Research Purposes

The relationship between employee personality traits and organizational commitment has been the subject of numerous scientific studies. Numerous articles and books have examined these two concepts in depth and explained many variables ranging from factor structures to interrelation. The model established in this research is not a previously studied model as far as I examine the literature. This has both advantages and disadvantages. It may be that one-to-one comparison of the disadvantageous results cannot be made.

In this study, there are three variables. Tendency of stigmatization, organizational commitment and big five personality inventory. The reasons of why these concepts have been selected and why these scales have been selected are that all three scales have been used previously and their validity and reliability analyses have been done.

One of its advantages is that it can fill a gap in the literature and serve as an example for further research. Another advantage is that the concept of stigmatization, which has been mentioned in the literature for a long time and which has been studied and which many researchers are not unfamiliar, is examined together with organizational commitment and the personality traits that have the power to affect both concepts in this relationship are examined together.

1.3. Importance of Research

Barak, Cherin, and Berkaman found that the researchers investigated the relationship between discriminatory perception of employees and organizational outputs by using different variables (19). When literature is examined, it is seen that the relationship between prejudice, discrimination and organizational commitment is examined by researchers. Imam, Raza, and Raza examined the relationship between perceived gender discrimination and organizational commitment (20). Olori and Confort examined the relationship between perceived discrimination in the workplace and organizational commitment. In this study, the relationship between stigmatization tendency and organizational commitment was investigated, and the mediator role of individuals' personality traits in this relationship was investigated. Some of the important features that distinguish this study from other studies in the literature are as follows:

- 1) Although discrimination and prejudice have been considered as separate variables in the previous studies, 4 different sub-dimensions of the stigmatization tendency were examined together in this study.
- 2) Although some dimensions of stigmatization tendency and organizational commitment have been discussed in the literature, there is no research examining the role of personality traits in this relationship.
- 3) The fact that the big five inventory, which is treated as a mediator variable, is closely related to both the tendency to stigmatization and the organizational commitment will make the research results even more meaningful.
- 4) Stigmatization tendency, big five inventory and organizational commitment variables will be examined on the basis of sub-dimensions and the established model will be used in future research and will lead to researchers model development.

Stigmatization affects the behavior of the individual being stamped. Once subjected to stigmatization, individuals begin to take into account the expectations of the person or society who stigmatized themselves. In fact, it affects not only the behavior of the individual stigmatized but also his emotions and thoughts (21). The fact that individuals are in a group that is stigmatized causes the society to behave against them and as a result of this, they become depressed (22). The social identity of the stigmatized individuals is also damaged. That is why identity theories and labeling theory can be used together because they have arguments that support each other.

Therefore, the effect of stigmatization tendency on organizational commitment and the mediator or moderating effect of personality traits will be examined for the first time in the literature and contributing to the literature can be shown as the importance of the research.

1.4. Organization of Chapters

This thesis consists of six main titles and references and appendices. In the first chapter, research problem, research purposes, importance of research, while giving information about the second chapter is examined under three sub-titles. In each subheading, the concepts of personality, organizational commitment and stigmatization and the theories and literature related to these concepts are examined in detail. In the third chapter, the material and methodology used in the thesis are discussed in detail. In this chapter, which

consists of eight sub-sections, information is given about sampling procedure, data collection methods, data analysis tools, data analysis, data cleaning process, reliability analysis, factor analysis and research models and hypotheses. In Chapter 4, the results of the research are examined under various sub-headings. The first is demographic information, and then independent t-tests are given to examine the differences between independent variables. There is also one-way ANOVA analysis in which the differences between the groups are examined. Then hypothesis tests were performed and the results were interpreted. In the last section of this chapter, mediators, moderators and moderated-mediation analyzes are performed with Process makro and each one is expressed individually. In the discussion chapter, the relevance of the research results to similar studies in the literature is examined and examples are given about the similarities and differences. In the conclusion and recommendation section, which is the last part of the thesis, what is aimed, what is achieved and the results of the research are summarized briefly.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Personality

The concept of personality comes from the Latin word “persona”, which was given to the masks worn by theater actors in ancient Roman times. Since each person represents a different role in the play, this word has been chosen to emphasize the different characteristics of the people (23). Even the individuals living in the same family in the same society, have different behaviors and personalities. In fact, we can see that even people who are very

similar in terms of physical appearance born as a twin baby can have very different personalities. Therefore, when examining personality, we can talk about the existence of many other factors rather than just environmental factors or familial factors. When we look at the factors that make up the personality, examined as a separate title below, we can say that personality is influenced by many factors such as both genetic characteristics, familial characteristics and environmental factors etc.

Human factors are at the center of the hypotheses put forward in almost all of the theories of personality (24). In these theories, factors that motivate people are handled in different ways. According to Freud, these factors were sex and aggression, according to Maslow it was self-realization, for White, it was the affectance, for Adler it was striving for superiority, for Hogan and his friends they were striving for power status and popularity (24).

Researchers have thought about the characteristics of human being separated from other living things and put forward different theories. They have discovered that personality traits as well as human genetic traits have different genetic structures (25). According to Hogan, the motivating factors of the human beings are status and popularity (26). In the early days, the most important problems that people had to solve were to establish solid relationships with other members of the group in order to survive and be strong against the hierarchy (26). Gaining status and popularity makes a better quality and safer life easier to access to other resources.

The concept of personality is a subject that is frequently studied by behavioral sciences that examine behavior in organizations such as competition and teamwork as well as the science of psychology which tries to make sense of individuals' behaviors (27).

2.1.1. Definition of Personality

As with other concepts in the social sciences, there is no single definition of personality that social scientists and psychologists agree. Even in ancient Greek sources some different definitions of personality have been found. Today, researchers are still examining personality, factors affecting personality, and elements that make up personality (28) and give different dimensions.

Allport compiled the definitions related to personality in his research and stated that the most common characteristics of these were the sum of the innate characteristics of individuals and the characteristics acquired afterwards (29). According to Cüceloğlu personality is the sum of stereotyped relationships, which is established with their environment, specific to the individuals (30).

In the concept of personality, researchers focused on individual differences rather than similar features. Although some characteristics of individuals are similar to each other, many other features are different from each other and these characteristics do not change in a short period of time, but any feature may change in the long term (31).

2.1.2. Factors That Make Up Personality

There are basically two factors that make up the personality; these are the genetic factors that are inherent and relatively difficult to change and the environmental factors that are affected by the environment (32, 33). While there has been a long-standing debate over whether genetic factors or environmental factors are more effective in the formation of personality, it is generally believed that both factors are very effective in the formation of personality.

Personality is not a concept happening at a given time. It is a set of behaviors that are affected by the present time coming from the past and which will affect the life of the person in the future. Although the personalities of individuals generally occur during childhood and adolescence, it is possible to witness the change of personality in later periods as well.

Because of the positive relationship between individuals' personality traits and job performance and job satisfaction (34), and because this situation also affects the performance of organizations, human resources management and its functions like the selection of employees or personnel in appropriate positions properties occupy an important place. The factors that make up personality can be grouped under five headings (35). These are:

2.1.2.1. Genetic and Physical Structure Factors

It refers to the physical characteristics of individuals such as height, weight, walking style, gesture and mimic, and emotional characteristics such as intelligence level, emotional state, and endurance. It has been stated in many studies that there is a relationship between

physical structure and personality traits of individuals. Some psychiatrists have stated that there is a connection between the body structure and personality of individuals and those physical characteristics affect the personality.

Many of the personality traits of individuals are inherited from their families and the personality traits of individuals born and raised in different families differ. It is stated that some abilities and traits are transferred to individuals through heredity and they affect the personality traits of individuals (36). Recent advances in biology have increased genetic research, it has been revealed that the genetic characteristics of individuals differ according to environmental conditions and this leads to differentiation of personality traits (37). Although the effect of genetic factors as well as environmental factors on the formation of personality is accepted by the researchers, the issue of how the interaction of genetic factors and environmental factors affect personality has recently been emphasized.

According to the thought that genetic factors have more effect on personality; it states that behavioral characteristics caused by innate differences are marked to human genetic codes (38). According to Rosenblad, who has a similar view, states that human personality is shaped by genetic characteristics at an early age and forms a behavioral integrity (39). In some studies, related to physical structure, a positive relationship was found between physical characteristics and leadership (40, 41). According to Riggio, physically attractive people have the advantage of having more capacity to affect others (42).

2.1.2.2. Socio-Cultural Factors

Individuals are under the influence of many segments in the society in which they live. Individuals are influenced by this cultural structure in which they live, and their personalities are shaped accordingly (43). Since individuals cannot choose in which culture they will be born before they are born and in which culture they will live until a certain age, they have to accept that cultural structure and live in accordance with it (44). The interests and expectations of people are shaped in the society in which they live and these affect their behavior.

In some countries and regions like United States and North American countries, society encourages people to be competitive in order to be independent and excellent, while also paying more attention to individual achievements, in Asia and in Africa as well as other

countries with a collective culture, including Turkey, to belong to a group more important than individualism and people attach importance to family and the group success and avoid competition. Cultural and social factors have an important place in the lives and experiences of individuals (45).

2.1.2.3. Family Factor

The family factor is undeniably important in the formation of individuals' personalities. Individuals are the first social group they have encountered since infancy. According to Luthans family is the most important factor in the formation of personality (46). Individuals spend most of their time with their families until a certain age and a significant portion of their personality is formed during this period.

The state of the relationships within the family occupies a great place in the personalities of individuals. In families with a democratic structure in their social relations, children are raised more freely, which gives the child objectivity and makes contact with others easier. In addition, children, who are growing up in the families, which are over-oppressive, obstructing the desires of the child and dictate their own life philosophy, have a shy and authoritarian personality (47).

Since families are the first social group for children, they learn many personality traits of their parents by imitating their values. Therefore, the family has a significant effect on the personality of the child (48).

2.1.2.4. Social Class Factor

Social class is a hierarchical classification in social sciences and political sciences, where individuals are generally divided into lower, middle and upper groups (49).

There is an inclusive culture in every society and subcultures within this cultural structure. With the formation of personalities, individuals participate to the groups that they feel close to them. After the family, individuals find themselves a social class. They come in and out of many social groups and thus form groups of friends. They pay attention to the social class to which they belong, when choosing their profession and even choosing their spouse. Therefore, friends, colleagues and other groups around individuals have a great impact on the formation of individuals' personalities. Social classes also affect the

educational opportunities of individuals, their view of life, the values they are interested in and their personal characteristics such as consumption habits (50).

2.1.2.5. Geographical Factors

The geography or region in which individuals live has a significant impact on the formation of their personalities. Personality characteristics of people living in hot and cold regions or people living in coastal and inland areas may be different (51). While people living in cold climates have a harder temperament, people living in hot and coastal areas have softer temperaments. Similarly, the emotional stability is higher in those living in the southern hemisphere than in the northern hemisphere (52). In another study supporting this idea, Phil and Caron stated that people adopted the personality traits of the regions they moved to (53).

2.1.3. Personality Theories

Personality theories are generally independent of the processes that make up personality (24). According to Epstein, one is motivated to evaluate his / her daily life emotionally satisfactorily. According to Epstein, personality theories have four main features (54):

- 1) Assimilating reality information,
- 2) To provide an acceptable balance of pleasure-pain,
- 3) Connect with others,
- 4) To achieve acceptable self-esteem.

These features were then discussed in detail and the pros and cons aspects of each were discussed. For example; Different opinions have been put forward about establishing relationships with others and five different types of relationships have emerged. These are, dyadic relationship with alliances (55); hierarchical relationship (56); mateship (57); relationship with same genetic (58) and be a good individual of coalition (59).

These characteristics play an important role not only in establishing relationships, but also in gaining superiority over the other groups, protecting their own generation and

relatives and providing resources against non-group or enemies (24). After studying with human factor and investigating different types of personality and the underlying causes, studies were conducted on which tactics and strategies people developed. The common point of this research is that people develop cognitive, motivational, emotional and behavioral strategies to achieve their goals (60).

When we examine the personality literature, it is seen that the theories put forward are divided into certain categories. Psychoanalytic approach led by researchers such as Sigmund Freud, Alfred Adler, Horney, Erikson and Sullivan; behavioral approach developed by Pavlov, Watson, Hull, Skinner, laid by Thorndike; humanitarian approach or self-realization theory put forward by researchers such as Maslow, Kelly, Rogers; the trait approach of researchers such as Allport, Murray and Cattell. Some of the prominent personality theories will be explained in the following sub-sections:

2.1.3.1. Psychoanalytic Approach

The main idea of psychoanalytic approach is unconscious (61). In other words, individuals are not aware of the most important reasons for their behavior or movement (37). Therefore, their understanding is limited and often incorrect. Freud argues that unconscious consists of sexual and aggressive desires that reasonable individuals will not accept. Jung, who opposes his idea, rejects sexual motives and states that he is composed of general motivations with spiritual contents.

In particular, psychoanalytic researchers argued that the subconscious had a great impact on the shaping of personality. It is the uncovering of immoral impulses, selfish desires, sexual desires and conflicts that underlie consciousness. The aim of the psychoanalytic approach is to enable people to confront their repressed emotions and learn how to deal with them. In this way, people will learn to control their behavior and desires that can harm themselves. In order to find a solution to the psychological problems of people, it recommends going down to the origin of the problem. Although psychoanalysts have some disagreements, they can meet in common ground at several points (37):

- 1) Personality is affected by unconscious factors.
- 2) Unconscious is dynamic and is in the opposite pole with some of the factors of consciousness.

3) Unconscious emerges in early experiences.

Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory

Freud argued that the mind had three parts. According to him, the human mind is like an iceberg. He calls the part of the glacier above the water conscious. A part of the iceberg sometimes stays above the water and sometimes sinks into the water. This level also means preconscious. The third part, which forms the majority of the mind, is called unconscious. Conscious section includes experiences that the individual is aware of. In the preconscious section, there is information that individuals cannot easily remember at the first moment. The Unconscious section is the most critical and individuals are not aware of the information contained in this section.

Sigmund Freud, who is accepted as the founder of psychology, is also accepted as the founder of psychoanalysis (62). S. Freud developed a triple and dynamic personality theory consisting of id (lower self), ego (super) and super ego (23). It is a focused approach on the subconscious field (63). People come to the world equipped with instincts and impulses, and act with the principle of pleasure to satisfy their desires as soon as possible. These three systems must be in harmony together otherwise the person becomes unhappy (64).

ID; it is the most primitive part of the personality of a newborn child, and then develops from the ego and the superego (65). ID, is composed of basic biological impulses such as the innate need for eating, drinking, avoiding pain and obtaining sexual pleasure (66). Freud said that aggression is also a fundamental biological impulse (67). ID wants these impulses to be immediately satisfied and tries to avoid pain and enjoy pleasure, regardless of external conditions (67).

EGO; It acts as an intermediary between the demands of ID and Superego. It deals with the demands from the ID and the integration of the super ego (68). As the young child learns to take into account the demands of reality, a new part of personality develops, ego (69). The ego obeys the principle of reality. Satisfaction of the impulses should not be delayed until appropriate environmental conditions are found. Ego is basically the "ruling" part of personality. Because it decides which movements are in place and which impulses are satisfied (70).

SUPEREGO; The third part of personality, superego, is an internalized representation of society's moral codes and values as taught by the parents and others (71,72). It is basically the conscience of the individual. The superego decides whether a movement is right or wrong (73). Id seeks pleasure, the ego tests reality, and superego seeks excellence (74). Superego develops in response to the parents' rewards and punishments. Superego includes all movements in which the child is punished or scolded and rewarded. Initially, the mother and father supervise the child's behavior directly with reward or punishment. When the standards of the parents include the superego, the behavior is under self-control.

Carl Jung's Analytical Psychology

Basically, it adopts Freud's approach, but differs from it in its emphasis. Like Freud, Jung sees important parts of personality as unconscious and self. He stated that the personality traits of individuals were transferred from generation to generation. Unlike Freud, he claimed that the most important personality development was not in childhood but in adulthood (37). The concepts of race and heredity are very important in personality development. Jung claims that individuals are born as introverted or extroverted (75). These two tendencies coexist in each individual. But one of them always outweighs. According to Jung, the individual should strike a balance between these two features, otherwise various problems will arise (76). Jung defined four main functions of personality. These:

- 1) Sense: Perception by sensory organs (vision, hearing, perception, smell, taste).
- 2) Feeling: The ability to evaluate oneself and others.
- 3) Thinking: Meaning and understanding.
- 4) Intuition: Consciousness is the realization of truth outside the grasp.

Alfred Adler's Individual Psychology

Adler, like Jung, basically embraced Freud's philosophy, but the most fundamental point he left was the struggle for superiority (77). According to him, the desire of individuals to establish superiority to each other precedes all other requests (78). According to Adler, the feeling of inferiority prevails when these individuals' feelings of superiority are not satisfied (79).

Adler stated that when people were born, they were pampered by the attention of their families, and in the case of a later sibling, when the love of the family was given to the new baby, the inferiority of the other child developed. According to Adler, almost everything is designed to build an upper hand over the obstacles in life and to get rid of feelings of inferiority. The sense of inferiority may be due to a physical problem, familial reasons, or the weight of social effects (80). Why work hard to get high marks, to be successful in sports, to have power? Because achieving them takes us one step ahead of feelings of inferiority. In fact, the lower the individual sees himself, the greater the effort of superiority (81).

He stated that if they want their children to be superior to other children, it is necessary to use appropriate methods for children's development. Dreikurs and Soltz summarized Adler's recommendations for raising healthy children in their study (60, 82).

- Don't be oppressive,
- Respect the child,
- Create a routine,
- Emphasize the importance of cooperation,
- Don't pay too much attention to the child,
- Don't engage in a power struggle with the child,
- Not by speaking, but by your behavior,
- Don't offer too much sympathy,
- Be consistent.

Eric Berne's Phenomenological Approach

Berne, like Freud, examines personality in three parts. It is significantly different from Freud, which he was inspired only in terms of the idea of deprivation of love. Therefore, although he has produced an interesting view, Berne is not a well-known thinker because he has not received as much criticism as Freud. According to Berne, personality consists of the following three parts (83):

- 1) Ancestor (grinding part)

- 2) Maturity (adult part)
- 3) Childhood (immature part)

Berne examined the factors that make up personality in three parts. He named the factors Freud called id, ego and superego as child, adult and parent, respectively (84). Childhood is the part where an individual has some personal desires and acts as he wishes to reach them and satisfy himself. Here, the individual acts as he wishes without thinking about the consequences of his behaviors without considering the society. The part of maturity fulfills the task of moderating the tendencies that discipline the childhood part of the human being in accordance with the environment. Thus, the things that human beings cannot do naturally are pushed to the subconscious and kept under pressure by this part. The third part is the state of making ancestry, guiding and advising the presidents in every person.

Berne's most important contribution in the field of psychotherapy is the intrapsychic phase, in which he adds interpersonal and social dimensions. In this respect, he developed a four-fold ego state scheme (85). This scheme starts with behavioral diagnoses and continues with social, historical and phenomenological diagnoses. Until that time, clinicians had used the diagnosis of behavior that examined patients' behavior and the historical diagnostic method that examined the origin and experience of patients' movements. Berne was the first to put forward the social diagnosis that examined how others reacted to one's behavior and the phenomenological diagnosis that examined what the person experienced.

Karen Horney's Interpersonal Psychoanalytic Theory

Horney, who criticized Freud's sexist approach, opposed Freud's idea that men and women were born with different personalities and stated that the difference between the genders was due to cultural and social differences (86). According to Horney, the main factors that make up personality are anxiety and fear. Individuals develop various behaviors to get rid of their anxiety and fears. The most important ones;

- 1) Extrovert behavior that alleviates anxiety and fears through affection and affinity to people,
- 2) An introvert behavior that allows people not to interfere and act independently and to be free from worries and fears,
- 3) It is the behavior of being angry that aims to make people accept that they are strong by entering the struggle with them (86).

According to Horney, a healthy individual can use one of his strategies, such as going to people, resisting people or getting away from people. Horney proposed three different solutions for self-effacing (60). These:

- 1) The compliant personality which means moving toward people,
- 2) The aggressive personality which means moving against people,
- 3) The detached personality which means moving away from people.

Cloninger’s Psychobiological Personality Theory

Cloninger Psychobiological theory is also known as character and temperament theory. He stated that personality consists of character and temperament (87). He mentioned that personality is a process that occurs throughout the lives of individuals and not in a certain period. He proposed tridimensional model.

He listed the dimensions of the temperament as follows:

- 1) Novelty seeking
- 2) Harm avoidance
- 3) Reward dependence

Temperament dimensions can occur in many combinations. Temperament is a starting point for personality. Social learning builds on this and contributes to the formation of the personalities of adults (88). The character's dimensions are as follows: Self-direction, Collaboration, Self transcendence. Cloninger's model has no direct effect on the lives of individuals, experiences are important.

Table 1: Implications to major theoretical questions (the psychoanalytic perspective)

	Freud	Jung	Adler	Horney
Individual Differences	People differ in the mechanism of ego defense.	Whether people are introverted or extroverted varies from person to person throughout their lives.	Individuals are different in their goals.	Individuals vary in how they define themselves in their relationship. He uses different ways to reduce his fears.

Adaptation and Adjustment	Psychoanalysis offers a method for unconscious psychological confusion.	Unconscious has an important place in healthy maturation and must be discovered through symbolism.	Health covers money, work and social interaction and is the responsibility of each individual.	Healthy relationships play a key role in adjustment and depend on one's self-acceptance.
Cognitive Processes	Because of the unconscious defense mechanism, conscious experiences cannot be trusted.	Analytical thinking, concrete attention to detail should be developed.	Conscious experiences and opinions are important.	The defense mechanism restricts vision, but courageous self-examination can lead to progress.
Society	Societies deal with universal human dilemmas.	Cultural myths and rituals lead the way dealing with unconscious.	Society affects individuals through social roles.	Culture is very important in the development of personality.
Biological Influences	Psychiatric symptoms are explained by psychodynamics. Biological factors are the basis of personality.	Physical characters are inherited.	Organ inferiority leads to personality development.	Biology is less important than the claims of psychoanalysis.
Child Development	The first five years of childhood are vital in the formation of personality.	First experiences do not matter.	Families have a significant impact on their children and there are techniques of being a good parent.	Love and nurturance are important in the development of the child.
Adult Development	Adults have little personality change.	It involves exploring the creative potential of the unconscious.	Throughout his life, man forms his own personality.	There are very few significant changes in personality after childhood.

Source: Cloninger (2004). The table above was created by the author using the information given by Cloninger (2004).

2.1.3.2. Behavioral Approach (Learning Perspective)

These are theories that explain personality in terms of learning and include behavior and cognitive elements in understanding personality. This approach looks the reason of individuals' behaviors at the learning history of individuals (89). According to the theory, personality is not different from other types of behavior and can be explained by the concept of learning. According to behavioral researchers, they emphasized the necessity of examining the internal processes of individuals and focused on the cognitive and personal causes of behavior.

Eysenck's Personality Theory

Eysenck's biological model of personality is based on Pavlov's analysis (90). He especially referred to Pavlov's strong and weak nervous systems (91). He developed a

different perspective on personality and stated that individuals with strong nervous system have extroverted, weak nervous system individuals have introverted personality traits (61). Although extrovert and extrovert personality traits are generally considered in terms of behavior, Eysenck links their differences to biological causes (91).

The factors that make up the personality are arranged on a hierarchical, detailed basis (92). In this hierarchy which has 4 stages, the first stage is the lowest level of personality and this stage includes hereditary characteristics of individuals (93). The second stage is that individuals develop behaviors similar to the same situation as a result of the knowledge and experience they obtain from their environment, in other words it relates to habits. In the third stage, the genetic characteristics of the individuals and the tendencies that arise as a result of their habits are examined. In the fourth stage, the distinct types of individuals appear. According to Eysenck, these four stages have an effect on the formation of individuals' personalities, but the most important issue is which stage affects more than others.

According to Eysenck, personality has four dimensions. These:

- 1) Cognitive Dimension
- 2) Evaluator Dimension
- 3) Emotional Dimension
- 4) Somatic Dimension

Skinner's Radical Behaviorism Theory

Skinner, who opposes metaphysics, approaches personality with a deterministic approach and argues that human behavior is observable and can be scientifically examined (94). He stated that behaviors should be explained not by physiological reasons but by the effect of environmental factors. He stated that classical and operant conditionings are the basis of personality. Skinner was only concerned with observable behavior and pointed out the importance of rewarding (95).

Skinner, who has an important place in the field of psychology, did not examine the causes of individuals' behaviors within their personalities. He did not even see the concept of personality as a theory or discipline (37). He opposed the idea that behaviors developed depending on personality traits and emphasized that the causes of behaviors should be investigated in the external world, not in individuals. Skinner has been opposed to show that

the behavior is connected to internal causes and feelings and thoughts as the cause of the behavior (96).

Bandura's Personality Theory

In the behavioral approach, while focusing on the causes of behavior, researchers like Skinner attribute this to environmental factors, and some researchers have linked it to the emergence of internal factors and external factors rather than just external factors (97). It was Albert Bandura who developed this way of thinking, which also led to the emergence of a socio-cognitive approach. According to Bandura, human beings can develop different behavior models in different situations, and people learn from experience and learn by observing the behavior of others. He calls this indirect learning (98). In addition to the classical and operant conditioning that Skinner often emphasized, he developed an approach to learning by observing (76).

Table 2: Implications to major theoretical questions (the learning perspective)

	Skinner	Dollard & Miller	Bandura	Kelly
Individual Differences	Individuals vary in their behavior depending on their background.	Individuals are different in their behavior and consciousness because of learning.	The behaviors of people vary according to their aims and abilities.	Individuals differ in their personal cognitions that they reflect in their experiences.
Adaptation and Adjustment	Instead of thinking about health or illness, it is necessary to think about which behavior should be abandoned and which learning methods should be done.	Learning principles suggest therapy techniques such as learning discrimination.	Therapies using modeling have been found to be effective.	Constructs that estimate a wide range of experiences can be more easily adapted than constructs that estimate less experiences.
Cognitive Processes	Studying mental processes is difficult because it is difficult for the scientist to reach them.	Because of inadequate labeling, most of the motivation is unconscious.	Conscious processes form the center of personality.	Cognition is the center of personality.

Observable behaviors need to be focused.

Society	As society determines the conditions of learning, it is also effective in shaping personality.	Personality development develops in a social context.	Modeling has important implications for society.	Social relationships require individuals to understand the constructs of other individuals.
Biological Influences	Individuals have both biological differences that they are affected and affected by themselves.	Biological factors also form the basis of early personality development.	Self-efficacy has been found to improve the immune system.	Biological factors alone do not matter.
Child Development	Children learn which behavior to be rewarded and which behavior to punish and act accordingly.	Freud's concept of early child development was re-conceptualized by adding conflict.	Children learn more by modeling.	Children are trying to make sense of their relationship with people, although there is no particular attention to childhood.
Adult Development	It is based on early learning depending on child development.	Learning is lifelong and child development is more important than adult development.	Learning lasts a lifetime. Expectations change as a result of experiences.	Adults continue to use their previously developed personalities.

Source: Cloninger (2004). The table above was created by the author using the information given by Cloninger (2004).

2.1.3.3. Humanitarian Approach

The humanistic approach emerged as an alternative to the shortcomings of the psychoanalytic and behavioral approach (99). The humanistic approach has examined the genetic potentials of individuals (100). The concepts such as the free will, the meaning of life, and the centralism of the human beings that existed by the existentialist writers formed the basis of the humanistic approach. The founders of the humanistic approach are Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Maslow and Rogers have developed a humanistic approach as a reaction to the pessimistic view of psychoanalysis (101). According to the Bugental, humanistic approach has five basic assumptions (102):

- 1) Human is aware of his / her consciousness in relation to other people.

2) Human is created in a way different from other living beings and has the right to exist within human limits.

3) Human is a whole composed of many parts, and must be examined as a whole.

4) Human beings are aware that he is responsible for the future events and tries to make sense.

5) Human beings have the ability to make choices and are therefore responsible.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow did not trust the methods used by psychology. He opposes method-centered traditional science and expresses problem-centered approach to understanding human behavior would be a more accurate choice (37). Although he does not completely discard the traditional method, he said that the traditional method should be supported by an experimental method based on the foundations of the problem. He said that individuals cannot be understood by observing their behavior and that the most effective and correct way to learn the reason of their behavior is to ask individuals what they are experiencing.

While Maslow put forward the hierarchy of needs related to personality development, he mentioned that the physiological needs that are at the bottom of the hierarchy and that all humans need are also the needs of animals. This hierarchical structure consists of five steps (Figure 2). The physiological needs at the bottom step, the security needs on it, the need for belonging and love in the third step, the need for esteem in the fourth step and self-actualization in the top step.

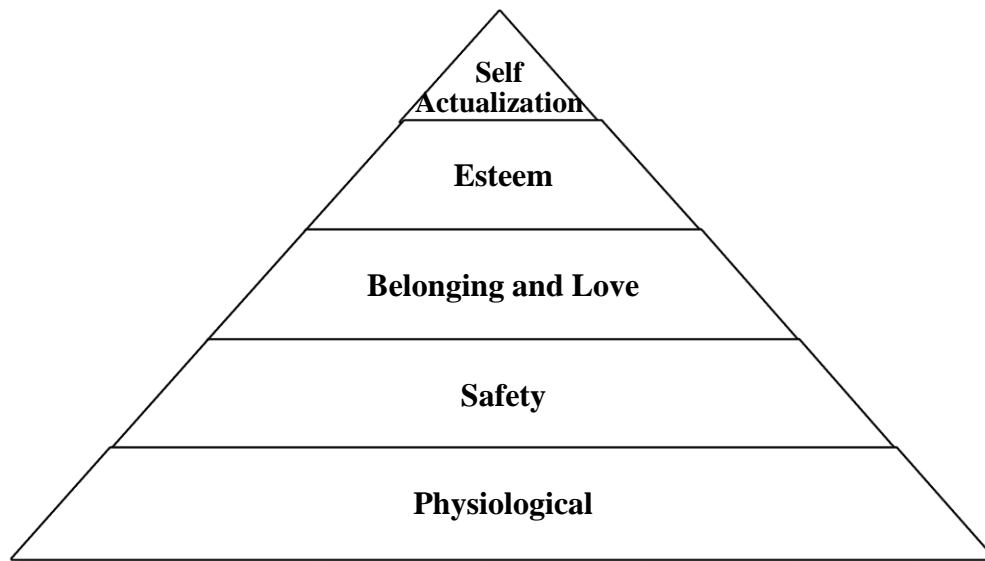


Figure 1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Self-actualization approach includes the common assumptions of personality theories such as the concepts rationality, readiness to change, holistic understanding (103). Maslow's personality theory, which is one of the most important representatives of the humanistic approach, has two most important assumptions. One of them is based on the needs of individuals, that is, the reason for their behaviors is to meet their needs. Another one has a certain degree and ranking of these needs of individuals. While the most important needs are at the bottom of the needs that can be thought of as a step, it is meaningless to meet the needs of the upper step before these needs are met. According to Maslow's theory, when the needs of a certain level are met, the ability of that need to mobilize individuals and direct their behavior disappears and individuals begin to develop new forms of behavior to fulfill the needs of the next level.

Rogers' Theory of Personality

According to Rogers, all sources of motivation are gathered in a process that he calls self-actualization. People who tend to actualize themselves, eating-drinking, sexuality, security, while trying to reduce impulses, on the other hand, curiosity, creativity, such as impulse-enhancing behavior develops (104). Self-actualized individuals bear features such as being free creative, innovative, confident, (37). According to Rogers, the characteristics of self-actualized individual are as follows (105): Openness to experiences, Creativity, Full life, Trust in your own instincts, Freewill.

Table 3: Implications to major theoretical questions (the humanistic approach)

	Rogers	Maslow
Individual Differences	Although they are said to be different in the stages of individuals' development, they did not pay attention to these differences.	Individuals vary according to their position in the needs hierarchy.
Adaptation and Adjustment	He gave information about patient-centered therapy.	Very few people can reach the highest level of development.
Cognitive Processes	By accepting the messages of others about what we should be, thoughts and feelings can be impeded.	Self-realizing individuals can read the world correctly and are creative.
Society	An individual-oriented approach can give important implications for the development of society.	A better society can be imagined.
Biological Influences	Biological factors are not important.	Biological factors make up personality.
Child Development	Children can be alienated if they are raised under appropriate conditions.	Psychological, safety, love and esteem needs of children should be met.
Adult Development	As individuals grow, they become more free.	Few adults can fully develop their potential.

Source: Cloninger (2004). The table above was created by the author using the information given by Cloninger (2004).

2.1.3.4. Trait Approach

The theory of traits has brought regularity to personality theories. The theory of traits is based on research aimed at determining the qualities of personality. According to this theory, the qualifications of people are important determinants of personality.

The theories of Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell and McCrae and Costa are the most well-known theories of differential properties. Intuitive considerations are widely used in the theory of traits. These theories adopt the continuity of personality. Proponents of property theory have moved away from analytic and comprehensive personality theories.

They considered unconscious elements and abstract explanations of behavior as insignificant. It has become the most commonly used approach in personality measurement because it provides more opportunities for experimental research.

The theory of differential properties has two important assumptions. First, he admits that personality traits have not changed over time. Second, personality traits show stability in many different situations (106).

Allport's Personality Theory

Gordon Allport in 1921 with his work has laid the basis of the approach to the distinctive features (76). In order to explain motivation in normal adults, Gordon Allport proposed the concept of functional autonomy, which suggests that a motivation is not functionally related to any childhood life. Human motives are independent of the environment in which they arise.

In Allport's view, the track of motivation is not traced in childhood, but can only be understood in terms of one's current behavior and intentions. He stated that personality has a dynamic structure and that there are systems that determine individuals' thought structure and behavior. He examined personality traits in three groups. These:

- 1) J. Cardinal features showing lifetime impact
- 2) Central features such as sensuality and aggression
- 3) Less frequently used secondary features

Murray's Personality Theory

It emphasized the psychological needs of people rather than basic needs such as eating and drinking (76). According to Murray, psychological needs are defined as the state of being ready to respond in a certain situation and conditions (76). It is not possible to draw a hierarchy of needs that apply to everyone because everyone's needs and the desire for these needs are different. According to Murray, people's needs are divided into several categories. These are:

Needs for inanimate objects (107): Needs of acquisition, Needs of conservance, Needs of order, Needs of retention, Needs of construction.

In need of success (107): Needs of superiority, Needs of inviolate.

As the need to protect power (107): Needs of dominance, Needs of deference, Needs of autonomy, Needs of contrariance.

According to Murray, each need has two dimensions. One is direction and the other is intensity. Direction is the knowledge of where and how to meet this need when there is a need, and intensity refers to the degree of need (108).

Cattell's Personality Theory

He did not adopt the many approaches used by personality researchers and stated that they should focus on the results using experimental methods instead of trying to validate the opinions about how personality should be.

He examined personality according to objective criteria and included biological factors affecting behavior. He tried to determine the main factors of personality by using factor analysis and paved the way for the use in intercultural research with the technique he developed. Since it examines personality under 16 factors, 16 factors are also called personality theory. He examined personality under three headings. These:

- 1) Temperament characteristics are related to how a person behaves,
- 2) Dynamic properties refer to movement leading to a specific purpose,
- 3) Ability is related to characteristics, skills leading to purpose.

In Cattell's personality theory, it is seen that personality takes the whole life of the individual into consideration and that environmental factors affect personality traits as well as genetic factors.

McCrae and Costa's Five Factor Theory

McCrae and Costa are the founders of the five-factor personality theory, one of the most widely used personality theories. Although Goldberg also contributed greatly at the beginning, McCrae and Costa are credited as the founders of the five-factor personality theory because of their definition of personality and efforts to develop scale. The five factor personality traits which were previously defined as Lewis Goldberg's distinctive personality traits are listed as follows:

- 1) Introversiion, 2) Intellectual imagination, 3) Compatibility, 4) Emotional balance,
- 5) Responsibility.

Later, McCrea and Costa revised Goldberg's personality traits and grouped them as follows:

- 1) Extraversion- Introversion
- 2) Agreeableness-Hostility
- 3) Conscientiousness-Undirectedness
- 4) Neuroticism-Emotional Stability
- 5) Openness to Experience-Unintelligence

In this study, since the five-factor personality scale of McCrea and Costa will be used, the factors of this theory will be examined in detail.

Table 4: Implications to major theoretical questions (the trait perspective)

	Allport	Cattell and McCrae & Costa
Individual Differences	Individuals are different in their characteristics that dominate their personalities.	The traits that can be measured by personality tests vary from person to person.
Adaptation and Adjustment	Psychology makes mistakes if it deals with only illnesses.	Neurosis and psychosis can be defined as the sum of traits and is influenced by genetics.
Cognitive Processes	Individuals' own values are usually taken from their visible values.	Mental abilities can be measured objectively.
Society	Adapting to society is the most important issue.	There are differences between groups and cultures and these differences can be measured.
Biological Influences	Some of the behaviors are affected by genetic factors.	Genetics affects many personality traits.
Child Development	The ego and the self develop gradually, but have not been studied in detail.	Some traits are affected by early experiments.
Adult Development	Adult development involves being integrated with previous development.	Some traits may change during adulthood.

Source: Cloninger (2004). The table above was created by the author using the information given by Cloninger (2004).

2.1.4. Big Five Personality

When we look at the personality scales, we see that the scales have a comprehensive approach to measure many different features together (i.e. Woodworth's personality inventory). Later on, researchers switched from multidimensional personality scales to

narrower scale studies. However, unlike previous scales, they examined each dimension of personality more deeply (28).

The studies of Galton, Digman, Klages, Baumgarten, Allport and Odbert, Thurstone constitute the first steps of the five-factor personality model (109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114). Galton developed the lexical approach and stated that we should pay attention to the words that individuals use when looking at personality traits (109). Allport and Odbert produced a more comprehensive list of words than Galton (113). Later, this list was categorized, and the list was reduced to 4500 words at the beginning of the list of 18000 words (115). In 1933, Thurstone made a list of 60 adjectives with five factors. Cattell reduced the list of 4500 words prepared by Allport and Odbert and developed a 16-factor scale of 200 words. A similar application was made by Eysneck and developed a three-factor personality scale (23). Later, Costa and McCrea (116, 117) evaluated this list as five factors and became an accepted scale.

Table 5: The big five factors of personality

Factor	Description of High Scorer	Description of Low Scorer
Extraversion (E)	Talkative Passionate Active Dominant Sociable	Quiet Unfeeling Passive
Agreeableness (A)	Good-natured Soft-hearted Trusting	Irritable Ruthless Suspicious
Neuroticism (N)	Worrying Emotional Vulnerable Anxious	Calm Unemotional Hardy Self-controlled Sense of well-being
Openness (O)	Creative Imaginative Prefers variety	Uncreative Down-to-earth Prefers routine
Conscientiousness (C)	Conscientious Hard-working Ambitious Responsible	Negligent Lazy Aimless Irresponsible

Source: Cloninger (2004)

Recently, the idea and understanding that personality consists of five factors has started to dominate in the field of management sciences besides psychology and sociology. The support of the model in different cultures increased its acceptability and became a model used by scientific circles all over the world. Although personality is not limited to five factors

as in the five-factor personality model, there are several reasons why the five-factor personality model is a very important model in explaining personality. According to Buss these can be listed as follows (57):

1) These factors represent significant differences in the strategies people use to achieve their goals,

2) Signify mere noise system variations that were neutral with respect to natural selection,

3) Five factors can summarize the most important dimension of the social space in which people have to adapt.

According to the author, the most important of them is the adaptation dimension of personality, third reason. People, like other living things, live in groups. Historically, groups have had various benefits in the form of protection from predators and cooperative hunting (24). However, sometimes there are several disadvantages to being in groups. Lack of resources and aggression by members of other groups can be considered.

According to the Buss (34) extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are the primary factors of Big Five factors. This is because it answers important questions about adaptation. Who is higher in the social hierarchy, who is going down ?, who will rise in the future ?, who will be a good member of the group ?, who will provide the resources I need ?, who will share the resources with me ?, with whom should I share my resources? Who should I go to when I need ?, Who should I marry ?, Who can hurt me ?, Who should I trust? The basis of personal differences can be analyzed in three main categories (24):

1) People may differ in using adaptation strategies,

2) Personal differences may be incidental in the strategy differences of the products,

3) Personal differences can also be the product of noise in the system.

The five-factor personality model is based on the assumption that individuals can comprehend and express themselves. Various researchers gave different names to each of factors of big five personality. many different researchers have given different names to factors on the big five scale. The Table 6 is based on information compiled from John (118).

Table 6: Other names given each factor of big five personality facets

Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Openness	Conscientiousness
Dominance-Submissiveness	Social Adaptability	Emotional Stability	Culture	Dependability
Surgency	Likability	Emotional Control	Intellect	Impulse Control
		Ego Strength	Intellectual Interests	Will to Achieve
			Intelligence	
			Imagination	

Source: John (1990)

2.1.4.1. Extraversion- Introversion

Extraversion was a variable of the big five personality scale and was found to be a factor in most of the personality related scales (119). In this dimension of personality, the sociality of individuals shows that they are active, talkative and sociable (117, 120, 121). Extroverted individuals are energetic, sympathetic, and happy (122). Raja defined it as desire and assertiveness (123). They can easily communicate with people.

They tend to exceed their performance at work (124). It was found that extroverted individuals had higher job performance (125, 126). They want to lead the environment. They try to make the environment around them more enjoyable by socializing the people around them (127). They emit positive energy around them and have a positive mood (128). It is a feature that can take risks, is more prone to changes and can easily express its emotions (129, 130). They also attract more attention in society (131). Hirsh and his friends stated that the rewarding system attracts more extroverted individuals (132).

Extroverted individuals are confident and attach importance to teamwork (133). People who are prone to cooperation and socialization (134). Extroverted individuals have voluntary participation behaviors and sacrifice characteristics in social services (135). It has been found that extraversion is the cause of many positive emotions (136). It has been found that they are more optimistic towards people with different cultures and this enables them to be more successful in their cultural adaptations (137).

This dimension of personality, which Costa and McCrea divided into extraversion and introversion, has been categorized differently by some other researchers. Eysenck, as sociality and reactivity; Hogan, sociability and assertiveness; McFatter, hasty and social; Goldberg identified dominance and activity. One view that many researchers agree is that sociality starts from the childhood of individuals and then evolves into extroversion and is a trait that continues throughout the lives of individuals (138).

Introverted individuals are considered to be very shy (139). It is defined as silent that does not easily explain their feelings and thoughts towards people (140). They prefer to be alone and communicate less with people (141). Introverted individuals do not mean having opposite behaviors of extrovert personality traits, nor are they unhappy or pessimistic (142).

2.1.4.2. Agreeableness-Hostility

Agreeableness includes personality traits such as safe, gentle, open-hearted, compassionate (143). It also includes collaborative, supportive, character-specific personality traits (144, 145). It can evaluate motivation as high, obedient (146). Individuals who are not agreeableness personality traits or in other words incompatible individuals are cold, irritable and rough (147, 148). They are selfish and hostile to their environment, avoiding cooperation (149). Skeptic, unreliable (150), pessimistic, self-interest (148). Agreeableness individuals are also defined as highly interacting individuals. They also respect the cultural values of others (151). It has characteristics such as benevolence and protecting the surroundings (152). Having a positive attitude and empathy in interpersonal relations is also a characteristic of agreeableness people (153).

As opposed to the above studies, which express many positive traits of agreeableness personality traits, there are also studies that state that individuals with agreeableness traits are insensitive, arrogant and insincere (154, 155). It was found that when people sacrifice their personal interests for the interests of the groups they are affiliated with and when the groups adopt their goals, they perform the group actions in the best way (156). Individuals who have high agreeableness, have high job satisfaction in business life (157).

Individuals' assessment of personal differences within the scope of agreeableness is vital in deciding whether or not to be included in the group (24). This personality trait, also called softness, helps to reveal the human side of individuals (158). Mildness reduces

conflicts and tendencies of fighting and helps them gain more support in society (159). There is a negative relationship between agreeableness personality trait and internet addiction (160).

2.1.4.3. Conscientiousness-Undirectedness

This personality trait relates to certain characteristics such as obedient, regular, disciplined and responsible. People with high conscientiousness are ambitious, success-oriented while low ones are considered unplanned and undisciplined (161). People have to consider conscientiousness in choosing who they trust (162).

Conscientiousness persons are more willing to do the task assigned to them, willing to take responsibility and follow the rules (163). While some researchers define the conscientiousness factor as the desire for success (164), some researchers have defined it as reliable, paying attention to details (138). Individuals who have high conscientiousness are those who know both their responsibilities in private life and their responsibilities in social life and spend their energy on these works (165). It has been found that individuals who have low conscientiousness tend to give up quickly in the face of difficulties and postpone their work continuously (166).

While there is a positive relationship between conscientiousness personality trait and reliability and taking the job seriously, there is a negative relationship between laziness, forgetfulness and frivolity (167). Conscientious persons are described as being ethical (158), more successful in all kinds of work (168), organized and programmed (169).

2.1.4.4. Neuroticism-Emotional Stability

Individuals with emotional problems and experiencing excessive emotional change have high scores. This dimension is higher in individuals with more fragility, low score indicates individuals who do not have adaptation problems (76).

A positive and strong relationship was found between neuroticism and continuance commitment (170). The positive characteristics of the managers in terms of emotional balance provides positive results for both themselves and the people they manage (171). Individuals with high emotional consistency are both self-confident and confident. However,

individuals experiencing emotional imbalance, have difficulty in establishing and maintaining relationships with people (172).

Emotionally unstable individuals are more vulnerable in stress-generating situations and tend to move away from stress-creating environments. In case of failure to move away from such environments, they enter into depression (173). As they are generally responsive, their potential for understanding and solving events is weak. They generally approach things negatively. It has negative features such as acting thoughtlessly, hatred and depression (174). Individuals who do not have emotional imbalance characteristics are calm and less angry (175).

Emotional unbalanced individuals have feelings of inferiority, insecurity, hatred and aggressive attitudes (176). When they have problems, it is more emotional to look at things instead of solving problems (177), not wanting to share information, making more hasty decisions than thinking when making decisions (178) are some of the features seen in people with high imbalance levels.

2.1.4.5. Openness to Experience-Unintelligence

This factor was defined as intelligence by some researchers (179, 180), Norman defined it as culture (181), McCrea and Costa defined it as openness to experience (182). The dimension of openness to experiences implies openness to new experiences rather than openness to relationships among individuals (183).

Individuals with high openness to experience are open to new ideas, tend to change their thoughts and movements, are adventurous, curious, open-minded and creative (184, 185, 186). People with low openness to experience are non-change-minded, hard-minded, narrow-minded, and not interested (187, 188). They do not want to disrupt their usual order, they are closed to innovation (189). Because they depend on their own ideas, they are not easily influenced by others' ideas and do not change their thoughts (190).

Individuals with high openness to experience are adventurous, open to artistic activities and new experiences (182). Open-minded people develop more innovative ideas and more curious, while people with low openness to experience are less flexible in changing their thoughts and decisions (184). It was found that individuals who could be considered as creative exhibited a questioning and positive attitude towards life (191).

Due to the fact that the openness to experience is not easily observed from outside, different results can be obtained regarding the existence of different cultures (192). McCrae and Costa stated that there are six sub-dimensions of openness to experience in their studies (193). These are:

- 1) Emotional
- 2) Idea owner
- 3) Aesthetic
- 4) Active
- 5) Fantastic
- 6) Value Owner

2.2. Organizational Commitment

In analyzing the concept of organization, it is concluded that the organization has a meaning with the individuals forming the self rather than an independent singular institution. It is not possible to think organization independently without employees (194). The relationship between employees themselves and their organizations has become an important issue. The fact that this relationship is healthy and efficient will increase the loyalty of employees to their organizations. Therefore both the individual and the organization will be positively affected. In recent studies, the happiness of the employee is still a big concern for the business world. According to a Mercer LLC survey in 2010, 32% of employees in the United States were ready to leave work. (195). According to the employee engagement report by BlessingWhite (2011), 31% of employees were engaged globally (196).

Mowday, Porter and Steers defined organizational commitment as employees' belief in the aims and values of the organization and their efforts to remain within the organization (197). Meyer and Allen stated that organizational commitment is the behavior of employees to ensure that they are part of the organization (198). Organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee establishes a link with the organization (199). It is the sum of pressures internalized by individuals to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization (200).

When the literature on organizational commitment is analyzed, Meyer and Herscovitch list commonly held definitions of commitment which are presented in a table (see appendix

1) (201). The table, which contains the definitions of researchers with different perspectives and interests, also helps to understand the concept of organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment has been a central concept within the management, organizational behavior and organizational sociology, and HRM literature (202, 203). This importance comes from two types of behavior: Turnover intentions and real turnover (204). Recently, organizational commitment has emerged as various forms of work and nonwork employee behaviors (205, 206, 207). Another reason why organizational commitment is so important in organizational behavior literature is that organizational commitment affects many concepts such as turnover, absenteeism, performance, job satisfaction, counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior (208). Commitment has been used for a variety of topics such as power, religion, political behavior, etc (209). Commitment is a very important concept for institutions who want to get maximum benefit from their employees. Organizational commitment can be defined as a psychological link between employees and the organization, making it difficult for employees to leave their companies voluntarily (204). According to another definition, organizational commitment is the psychological situation between the individuals and their institution, which enables individuals to continue to work in their institutions. (210).

In the first studies, although organizational commitment is a one-dimensional concept, which is often the subject of discussion, it is now dealt with as multi-dimensional business behavior (204, 211, 212, 213, 214). Therefore, this conceptual change has brought along many studies about how organizational commitment should be measured. One of them and among the most important is Allen and Meyer who developed in 1990. According to them, psychological ties between employees and their organizations arise in three different ways. These concepts that shed light on organizational identity studies: Affective commitment can be defined as an emotional connection between employees and their identities with the identities of their organizations. Therefore, it is possible for the employee to remain in the organization or, in other words, to be attached to the organization only if employee wants it. The continuance commitment is that the employee is aware of the cost when he or she leaves the company. Employees are obliged to have a commitment to the organization considering these costs and to work where they are located. The third and last dimension is normative commitment refers to the fact that the employee is bound by the sense that he or she is indebted to the organization. Meyer and Herscovitch summarized the multidimensional

models proposed in the literature on organizational commitment (see appendix 2) (201). Meyer and Allen reported that the dimensions of organizational commitment they developed have four common sides (198). These are:

- 1) Reflect psychological status.
- 2) Demonstrate relationships between individual and organization.
- 3) Concerned with the decision to continue as a member of the organization.
- 4) Have effects on the reduction of the labor force.

Employees, who have strong commitment to their organizations, are likely to have high motivation. This commitment may not be about financial issues but psychological reasons. Organizational commitment affects many factors such as; performance, organizational citizenship behavior, intention of quit, and is a concept that can have very important results affecting both the organization and the individual (215).

In the literature, it can be seen that some important studies have made a substantial contribution to the development of this concept. The first studies related to organizational commitment contribute to develop the sub-dimensions and classifications of organizational commitment (209, 216, 217). Some of the important studies that stand out on the basis of organizational commitment; moral commitment, calculative commitment, alienating commitment (218, 219); continuity commitment, cohesion commitment, control commitment (217); emotional commitment, attitudinal commitment (197); adherence to compliance, commitment to identification, commitment to internalization (220).

Organizational Commitment is affected by two views: Site bet or Calculative approach and the moral or attitudinal approach (221, 222). Attitudinal commitment is about how employees see themselves with the organization, behavioral (site-bet) commitment is about how employees suffer when they are locked in certain organization (223). Affective and normative commitments are concepts that overlap more about attitudinal approach whereas continuance commitment covers site-bet or calculative approach (224).

While many studies related to organizational commitment in the literature are usually about the intention to quit or to quit, the most important issue is the differences between the different concepts of organizational commitment rather than this similarity. These differences include psychological factors in commitment and the circumstances that cause

these factors and behaviors that are the result of commitment. These conceptual differences have also caused much confusion about how the concept should be measured.

2.2.1. Emotional Commitment Approaches:

2.2.1.1. Mowday, Porter & Steers Classification

One of the first studies in the organizational commitment literature is the approach made by Mowday and his colleagues, which considers organizational commitment as attitudinal and behavioral commitment. Organizational Commitment studies are shaped around the work of psychologists who focus on employee behavior and organizational behavior research, which focuses on employee attitudes (223). In the classification made by Mowday et al., two different organizational commitment dimensions have emerged. According to this:

1) Attitudinal Commitment: Attitude is the stimulus that people take to display certain behaviors. There are three components of attitude. These; cognitive element, behavioral element, and sensory element (225). The cognitive element is the sum of people's beliefs about other people, events or objects. The behavioral element is the reflection of the attitudes of the people. The sensory element is the emotional consequences of the attitudes of the individuals. The attitude commitment is related to how the individual is integrated with the organization and the goals and values of the organization (226). The attitude commitment has many desirable organizational implications, such as an increase in people's performance, decrease in job intention to leave, and in job leaving (227). In the attitude commitment, the conditions affect the psychological situation and the psychological situation affects the behaviors (214).

2) Behavioral Commitment: Researchers who study psychology in particular have emphasized the need to focus on their behaviors rather than their attitudes. Organizational Commitment is a concept that occurs as a result of people's behavior, and people behave differently under different conditions and attitudes arise as a result of these different behaviors (214).

2.2.1.2. Etzioni (1975) Classification

Etzioni stated that the organizational commitment has changed according to the people's approach to the organization and the organizational commitment is divided into three groups as the moral commitment, the calculative commitment and the alienative commitment.

1) Alienative Involvement: It is to adopt and internalize the goals and actions of the organization. The commitments of the employees are increasing especially in organizations that are doing useful works for the community. Commitments are increasing due to the value that people give to their work and they do their jobs devotedly (228). Employees exhibit positive behaviors as a result of identifying their values with their values and make personal sacrifices (229).

2) Calculative Involvement: There is an interest-oriented relationship with people's organizations. In other words, employees feel the commitment to their organizations because of the benefits of their organizations to give them and their achievements (230, 231).

3) Moral Commitment: When people's behavior is limited, their attitudes towards the organization weaken and the person feels unfamiliar with the organization (232). However, although people feel foreign to their organizations, their commitment to the organization continues due to the lack of alternative employment opportunities or some environmental factors (233).

2.2.1.3. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) Classification

They argued that the commitment to the organization was psychological and that it had three dimensions.

1) Compliance Dimension: Commitments to individuals' organizations depend on the awards and penalties they receive, rather than the aims and objectives of the organization. Therefore, individuals are in harmony to be rewarded or to be punished (234).

2) Identification Dimension: Employees are pleased to be present in the organization, they feel connected to their institutions and identify the goals and objectives of the organization and their goals and objectives.

3) Internalization Dimension: The employee internally internalizes the goals and objectives of the organization and is committed to it. There is a perfect harmony between the goals and objectives of the employees and the organization.

According to the study there is unrelated relationship between compliance dimension comitment and extrarole behaviors or actual turnover. On the other hand, identification and internalization dimension of commitment are positively related to prosocial behavior, while they are negatively related to actual turnover.

2.2.1.4. Katz and Kahn Classification

1) Instrumental Commitment: Employees increase their Commitments with the awards given by the organization.

2) Expressive Commitment: Employees are internally motivated, and those with such affiliation do not consider transition to other organizations as they are closely linked to their organization (235).

2.2.1.5. Wiener Classification

1) Normative or Moral Commitment: Employees are internally dependent on the organization and the aims and values of the organization are at the forefront. There is an emotional and moral connection between the organization and the employees rather than the financial expectations, and this bond contributes to the employees' behaviors that are desired by the organization.

2) Instrumental Commitment: Parallel to the expectations of the employees from the organization, they express their commitment to the organization at the rate of their expectations. There is a mutual gain between the organization and the employee. As long as both parts of the balance are balanced, the employee's commitment to the organization continues.

Therefore, in the loyalty of employees who have instrumental commitment, personal outfits come to the forefront, while the normative commitment of the outfits of organization comes to the fore.

2.2.1.6. Cohen (2007) Classification

Suggested model has two dimensions- the timing of commitment and bases of commitment. Timing of commitment has two dimensions, too. One of them commitment propensity, which develops before entry the organization and organizational commitment, which occurs after entry the organization. Bases of commitment differs between instrumental commitment and psychological commitment. Therefore, the model has four types of commitment: First two is before the entry to the organization and last two is after the entry to the organization.

1) Instrumental Commitment Propensity: Individuals` expectations, such as benefits and rewards, with the organization may get it.

2) Normative Commitment Propensity: Individuals` moral obligation to the organizations.

3) Instrumental Commitment: The results of individuals` perceptions about the balance between their contributions and the rewards they receives.

4) Affective Commitment: Psychological attachment to the organization, includes emotional involvement, sense of belonging.

These four components of organizational commitment are related with each other because before entry commitment determinants of after entry commitment. Commitment propensity is affected by individual differences (236).

2.2.1.7. Kanter (1968) Classification

Kanter classified organizational commitment into three categories.

1) Continuance Commitment: Protecting individual`s positive thinking about being a member of organization as profitable considering rewards and cost. This type of commitment does not include emotional attachment to the organization rather individual prefer cognitive-continuance commitment because it is seen as profitable. There is a reward associated with membership of organization and cost associated with leaving the organization. Sacrifices and investment support the continuance commitment. Sacrifices means giving up something valuable to continue the membership of organization. Investment means individual provides times and energy for organization in order to gain benefits future so leaving may be costly.

2) Cohesion Commitment: Attachment and emotion to the group. Individual bound to social relationships, and maintain brotherhood within the group. There are two processes support the cathetic-cohesion commitment: renunciation, which involves staying away any relationship that potentially harmful for group cohesion. Organization forbid its members to stay away any relationship that conflict with organization values to support internal cohesion. Communion means that individual becomes the part of the group and leaving individual differences aside for the sake of group.

3) Control Commitment: It is a kind of commitment to social norms involves obeying the system is necessity. Individual personality should be attached to the norms of system and this attachment gives meaning to individuals life. Mortification and surrender support the control commitment. Mortification represents individual weaknesses or least importance than organization and considering the demands of organization as necessity. It also suggests that individual is not important without the guidance of organization. Surrender involves the giving decision of individual to the power of organization. Identity of individuals depends on whether they carry out demands of system or not.

2.2.1.8. Allen and Meyer (1990) Classification

“Employees with strong affective commitment because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, those with strong normative commitment because they ought to do so” (214). Each employee feels these three psychological states at different levels. For example; some employees may feel loyalty to the institution they are in, just because they want it, although there is no need or necessity. Some employees may, although they do not wish, be loyal to their institution because they have to or need it. The sum of all three types of commitment affects the overall level of commitment of individuals. However, as each employee feels different in each engagement, the fact that each engagement has different causes and consequences makes it necessary to measure these three commitments separately.

Figure 2 shows models of organizational commitment. In the middle of the model, the circle represents core essence of commitment (i.e. affective, continuance, normative). The inner circle shows the behavior that is the reasons of the commitment.

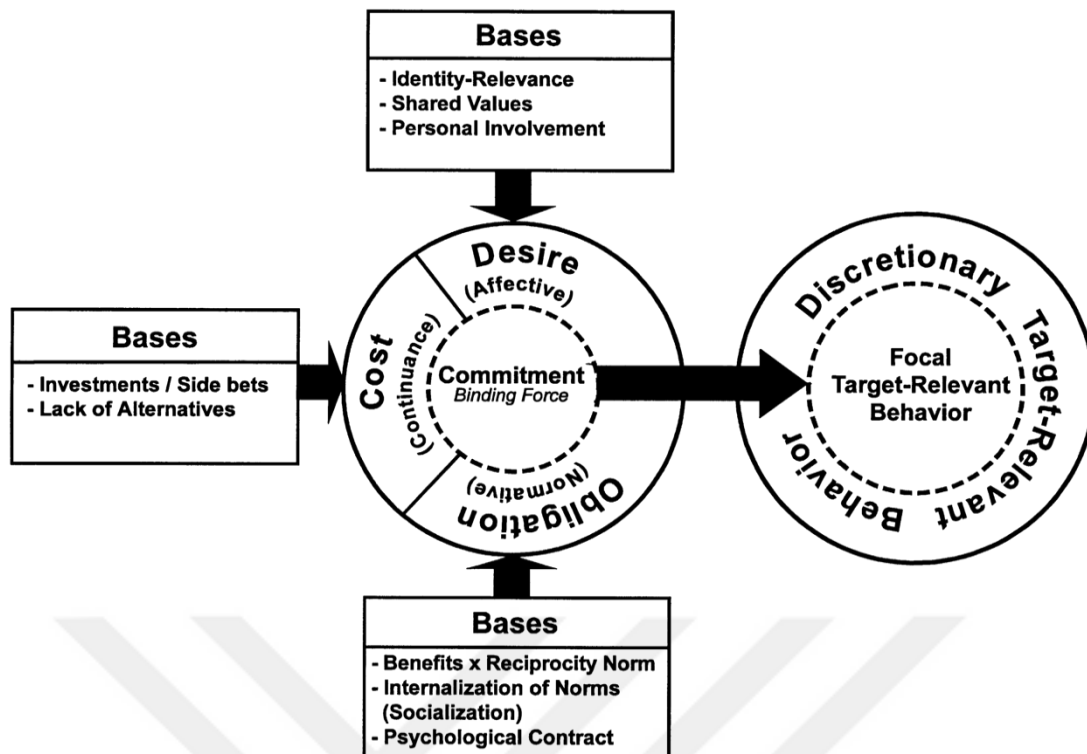


Figure 2: A general model of workplace commitment.

Source: Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001.

Affective Commitment:

Affective or emotional commitment means that employees identify themselves with the institution they work for, are strictly committed to their institution, and are happy to be a member of that institution. Effective adherence was first proposed by Kanter and was defined as cohesion commitment, which expresses the commitment of individuals effectively and emotionally to a group (217). It was then conceptualized by Buchanan and stated that the effective commitment of individuals as a partisan in the goals and objectives of their institutions, and that the interests of their institutions were superior to their own interests (237). Effective attachment, however, is perhaps best described by Porter and his friends. According to them, effective commitment is expressed as the relative strength of their association with their institutions (226). Porter and his friends developed a 15-question organizational commitment survey and was used in many researches. According to Mowday and his friends, the reasons for affective commitment can be categorized under four headings: personal characteristics, characteristics of work, work experience and structural

features (214). Porter et al. argue that there are three key elements of affective commitment (226):

- 1) A strong belief and acceptance of the aims and values of the organization.
- 2) Volunteer to make more efforts for the benefit of the organization.
- 3) Desire to maintain membership.

Employees with a high level of affective commitment keep the interests of the organization in front of their own interests and, consider the organization's success like their own success, and the failure of the organization as their own failure (238). Affective commitment is an active link where individuals can make some sacrifices to make the organization more successful rather than blindly connected to the organization (239). Employees with affective commitment have high performances and tendency to stay in the organization. Since employees feel responsible for the success of the organization, organizations with employees with this commitment can be expected to be more successful. Therefore, it is very important that organizations have employees who have an effective commitment to continue their own success and, more importantly, to survive. In this respect, many organizations organize trainings, offer different opportunities that other organizations do not, and make satisfactory plans for the material and spiritual needs of employees.

When we examine the factors that affect affective commitment, two factors emerge: personal characteristics and characteristics of the organization. Some of the personal characteristics that affect affective commitment are; sense of accomplishment, (240); relations with colleagues, structure and characteristics of work, perception of the individual against the attitudes of the organization (241); wage, the roles within the organization (242). Allen and Meyer listed factors that affecting affective commitment as; the difficulty of the job, role openness, openness of objectives, difficulty of objectives, openness to new ideas, trust in the organization, organizational justice, the importance of the individual to the organization and feedback. Studies have shown that affective commitment is more related to outcome measures than continuance and normative commitment. (243, 244). One of the reasons for this may be a more comprehensive definition of affective commitment and more implementation. Another reason may be that the employees are willing to rely on commitment because they desire rather than cost or necessity.

In the literature, it has always been argued that which sub-dimensions of organizational commitment consists of. The focus of these discussions is that the two sub-dimensions should be considered as one dimension together, since affective commitment often gives close results with normative commitment. The other discussion is that affective commitment should be a separate sub-dimension compared to the other two types of commitment. One of the most important results that emerged in many studies is that many models include the sub-dimension of affective commitment. Affective commitment in these studies is called affective commitment (212, 245), value commitment (246), moral commitment (230), and normative commitment (247), the common point is the desire of decision-makers to continue working in the institution they are in.

Continuance Commitment:

Continuance commitment was developed based on the side betting theory. This theory was also earliest attempt to develop framework about commitment (236). According to this theory, individuals have hidden investments, they have made to their organizations and they would lose this investment, site bets, if they leave the organization (209, 236). Along with the risk of losing investment, lack of alternatives makes individuals commit to the organization.

Some researchers who attempt to conceptualize organizational commitment have argued that effective commitment has a small role in the commitment of individuals on their institutions and that organizational commitment is not to continue to work in the institution they are in, in other words, to be aware of the costs that are expected of leaving the institution and to be in appropriate actions for this awareness (209, 214). Kanter defined continuity commitment as cognitive-continuity commitment and said that if people continue to work in their institutions, they are aware of the fact that they will have profitability and the cost of a price when they think about leaving (217). According to Stebbins, the continuation of the commitment is that it is impossible for the person to choose another social identity because of the heavy penalties (248). Employees, rather than their affective commitment to their institution, have a high level of continuance commitment to their institutions due to the high amount of investment they have made to their institutions and lack of employment opportunities.

Continuance commitment was usually studied with the revised version model developed by Hrebiniak and Alutto and by Ritzer and Trice (249). However, it has received numerous critiques and affective commitment is more appropriate than continuance commitment (212). Boichuk and Menguc, in their study with 50 travel company employees have found that when employees receive high continuance commitment and high executive support, they are more willing to participate in the company's service development programs (196). Again, in the same study, they showed that employees had more voice behaviors due to private investments they have made to the organization or high unemployment rates.

The adherence to continuance commitment is generally studied under two sub-headings in the literature: the amount of investment that individuals acquire and the lack of alternatives. (209, 250). If an employee believes that he / she is spending a lot of time and energy to learn a job and cannot carry those skills to another company easily, then he / she will want to continue working in the company. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between the labor of the employee and his willingness to work in the company (209). In addition to the labor given to the organization, the high unemployment and the lack of different job opportunities are among the factors that increase the continuance commitment of the people (250). Therefore, the continuance commitment of the employee who thought that he could not find another job easily will be increased (214).

Although there is a sub-dimension of organizational commitment and continuance commitment as a single sub-dimension, there are also researchers in the literature who say that continuance commitment should be investigated in two sub-dimensions (251, 252, 253). According to the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyzes of these researchers, it has been stated that it is more appropriate to examine continuance commitment in two sub-dimensions related to cost of leaving. One of these two sub-dimensions is that the employee feels that the cost of leaving the job will be high due to the lack of alternative employment opportunities; another is the fear of losing personal ties, such as breaking ties with colleagues or retirement benefits. However, whether the continuation commitment should be considered as one dimension or two sub-dimensions, in many models of organizational commitment, as in affective commitment, it is concluded that employees' continuance commitment to the organization is high because they are aware of the cost of leaving. The researchers gave different names to continuance commitment; continuance commitment (212, 244), alienative commitment (230). Jaros studied continuance commitment in two sub-dimensions and

examined the effect of each dimension on intention to leave (254). He conducted his study twice in two months apart with two different samples and concluded that affective commitment was the most important factor. He also found that the two sub-dimensions of continuance commitment were related to the intention to quit separately.

Normative Commitment:

The normative commitment, which is less visible than affective and continuance commitment, refers to the responsibility of the individual. One reason why it is less visible in the literature is that it shows many similarities with affective commitment and the other reason is that it does not explain reasons of work behaviors beyond other types organizational commitment (255).

According to Wiener, organizational commitment is the sum of internal normative pressures that people have made to act in accordance with their organizations' goals and expectations and that they have to make these behaviors accurately and morally (200). Some researchers have stated that individuals continue to work internally in the institution they are in, which is not a commitment; however, this is related to personal value judgments. Employees who have normative commitment to their institutions consider commitment to their institution as an obligation or liability.

Normative commitment has long history dating back 1960s and 1970s (255). At first, not all researchers called it as 'Normative' but the underlying mechanisms behind it was very similar. At first studies, normative commitment was described as; evaluative-control commitment, which means to show commitment to norms and values and inner motivation that obligate individual to their institutions (217); moral involvement that internalize organization's values and norms (218, 219); lifetime commitment that employees consider to work at their current organization as moral right (256). Then in the 1980s, researchers define the normative commitment as; the sum of internal normative pressure that make employees to meet organization' goals and values (200, 257); a stabilizing force that make employees to act in a certain way (258); a belief of employees the right and the moral to stay in the organization (259); 'a sense of obligation to provide support for the change' (260).

Normative commitment depends on the previous sensations of individuals related to organizations and organizational socialization after joining the organization. If a person

starts work in an institution where his / his family or a group of friends is working, or if his / her family or friends are making statements that emphasize the importance of that company, this is also one of the factors that increase normative commitment (200, 214). Sometimes, institutions make their employees to feel commitment to the organization is very important through various activities or trainings. This is another factor that affects the normative commitment of employees to the organization. Therefore, it can be said that the normative commitment of the employees has increased in parallel with the previous experiences and expectations of the organization after starting the work or the rhetoric of the people around it. Employees with a strong normative commitment have the idea that not leaving the organization is a moral requirement (198). Moreover, employees act with a deep responsibility towards the organization and the idea that there is a huge burden on their shoulders, and they believe that it is imperative to stay in the organization. Employees perceive commitment to the organization as a task rather than a desire or an alternative job.

Normative commitment emphasizes the dedication of individuals to their institutions (200). It also includes the behaviors that are consistent with the organization's mission, goals and objectives and that are internalized by the individual. As a result, organizational identity is revealed. The understanding and norms, such as not harming the relations within the organization, protecting the interests of the organization, sacrificing their interests if necessary, for the organization, not leaving from the organization even if there is a better opportunity, affect the organizational commitment (261, 262). Another factor is the organization's help to employees, which is normally difficult to achieve. In this case, the employee continues to stay in the organization as a result of gratitude (231).

There is a negative relationship between each type of commitment and intent to quit to job. This means that employees, who have strong commitment to their institutions, do not consider leaving the organization. This commitment sometimes comes from the request of the person, sometimes from compulsion and sometimes from loyalty. It is very important for organizations to develop a more accurate approach to their employees to know what reasons their employees feel loyalty to themselves. For whatever reason employees feel commitment to their institutions, they can be expected to act accordingly. Therefore, it becomes more important for employees to develop what kind of behavior they have at work rather than to continue to work in their institutions or, in other words, to show commitment to their institutions. As there is no consensus related to the definition of normative commitment,

more than one scale has been developed about how normative commitment should be measured. The first of these is Marsh and Mannari's four-item lifetime commitment scale with three-item normative commitment scale (263), which Wiener and Vardi developed (257). Then Allen and Meyer propose eight-item normative commitment scale, which was revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith as a six-item normative commitment scale (264).

2.2.2. Studies Related to The Relationship of Three Types of Commitment

Studies have been carried out to discover the importance of the relationship between the power of three types of commitment and the behavior of employees at the workplace. There is a positive relationship between managers' evaluation of work performance of employees and affective commitment of employees and negative relationship with continuance commitment (265). Allen and Smith found that there was a positive relationship between measurement of innovation of employees and affective commitment, and a negative relationship between continuance commitments (266). In the same study, they found a positive relationship between the measurement of innovations of the colleagues and the effective use of time, and the affective and normative commitment, and a negative correlation between the continuance commitments. According to the Devece, Marques, and Algucial, affective and normative commitment have shared many similar employee behaviors in unemployment environment, but they share less in a high employment environment (224). In the same study, they have found that the continuance commitment increases in high unemployment environment (224).

One of the most important findings in the organizational commitment literature is the assumption that each organizational commitment sub-dimension has an impact on the decisions of the employees to leave or stay. Employees, whether it be for their own wishes, whether they have to, because they see it as necessary the decision they make will be to continue or leave. Whitener and Walz found a negative relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit, they could not find a significant relationship with continuance commitment and intention to quit (267). Meyer, Allen, and Smith stated that there is a strong and negative effect of affective commitment on the intention to quit from the organization (264). Although normative commitment is not as strong as affective commitment, it still has a statistically significant negative effect on intention to quit and

there was no statistically significant effect of continuance commitment on intention to quit (264).

Somers examined the relationship between affective, continuance and normative commitment and stay in the organization, and found that affective commitment and normative commitment had a significant effect on staying in the organization, while found that continuance commitment did not include any prediction of staying in the organization (268). He also found a statistically significant interaction of affective and continuance commitment to predict the desire to remain. Accordingly, they have concluded that if the employees' affective commitment is poor, there is a significant, strong, and positive relationship between continuance commitment and outcome measure. Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf found a negative relationship between the intention to quit and affective, continuance and normative commitment (269). According to Jaros, there was a meaningful and strong relationship between continuance and normative commitment in predicting the intention to quit (254). While there is a negative relationship between the intention to quit the job, actual leaving and each type of organizational commitment, the strongest relationship was found between affective commitment and desired work behaviors, followed by normative commitment. However, a meaningless or negative relationship was found between continuance commitment and desired job behavior (270).

The strongest correlation with affective commitment is overall job satisfaction (270). Demographic variables are the least important factors in the development of organizational commitment (271). There is a positive and strong correlation between work experience and affective commitment (272). When the relationship between work experience variables and affective commitment is examined, there is a strong relationship between perceived organizational support which is one of the variables of work experience and emotional commitment (270, 271). A significant and strong relationship was found between affective commitment and types of organizational justice and transformational leadership (270). There is a negative correlation between affective commitment and stress and work-family conflict (270). But the feeling of employees being trapped in the workplace can cause stress and a conflict at home. Dhar found that the perception of employees towards training program offered by their organization increases the commitment of employees (272). Employees think that they develop their skills and get benefits from the training program and this make them to be loyal to their organization.

2.2.3. Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is examined on the basis of sub-dimensions and the effect of each of them on various organizational outputs is used extensively in research. In addition, there are also factors affecting organizational commitment. These factors affect organizational commitment differently and various researches are carried out on the effect of each factor on organizational commitment. Maslach and Leiter is one of them to propose a classification (273). Accordingly, factors affecting organizational commitment can be classified as workload, control, reward, justice, belonging and values (273). The workload can be defined as the total work volume that should be done in a standard quality for a certain period of time. Control can be defined as taking decisions, selecting, solving problems and fulfilling their responsibilities. While reward means the material and spiritual gains of the employee due to his contributions to the organization, belonging indicates the closeness of the employees to the people and groups they cooperate with. The concept of organizational justice is frequently considered as a conceptual value in the literature of organizational behavior. There is a broad literature on the types of organizational justice and the factors affecting it and its possible consequences. According to this, the concept of organizational justice means that the organization uses the opinions of its employees, values their opinions and has equal and consistent rules for each individual within the organization. Value is the sum of the beliefs that the person exhibits is positive or negative.

One of the most important research questions in the literature is the way in which employees show their commitment to whom or what (274). Employees display a commitment to their behavior or the institution they work with. Is this commitment attitude or behavioral? When the literature on organizational commitment is examined, it is concluded that individuals depend on both behaviors and entities. The entities used here represent organizations, institutions, or unions, whereas behaviors represent tasks or perform policies. (201). It can be said that the aim and goal compliance between employees and their organizations, the participation in decisions and the need for success have an effect on organizational commitment (275). According to Salancik, there are four factors that affect organizational commitment: Recognition, Openness, Indispensability and Request (276). Mowday, Porter and Steers examined the factors affecting organizational commitment in three groups as personal factors, organizational factors and non-organizational factors (223). Mathieu and Zajac summarize the literature to find out the antecedents and consequences of

organizational commitment (241). They conducted 48 meta-analyses and found 26 variables, under five main categories (personal characteristics, job characteristics, group-leader relations, organizational characteristics, role states), which are antecedents of organizational commitment. They found eight variables consequences of organizational commitment (i.e. other's rating, output measures, attendance, intention to leave, turnover, etc.). Moreover they found 14 correlates with OC such as motivation, stress, job satisfaction, promotion, etc. Moreover, they stated that personal differences moderate the influence of situational variables on commitment (277).

Mayer and Schoorman examined the antecedents of organizational commitment in two groups; continuance commitment, influenced by factors such as total working year, education, retirement benefits and age and attitude commitment that is affected by factors participation in work, prestige, job involvement and role ambiguity (278). Iverson and Buttigieg studied multi-dimensionality of organizational commitment and found three antecedents categories of it (279):

- 1) Personal values, which includes individual characteristics, education, job expectations, values, work motivation, etc.
- 2) Job related variables, comprising co-worker and supervisory support, job security, stress, justice, etc.
- 3) Environmental variables, which covers nonwork setting such as job opportunities.

Iverson and Buttigieg found three outcome variables of organizational commitment; turnover intentions, absenteeism, and acceptance of change (279). Their results also support that affective and normative commitment are associated with positive organizational outcomes while lack of alternatives, which is one sub-category of the continuance commitment, creates lower acceptance of change. Meyer Irving and Allen tested work related experiences on commitment and found that affective commitment was moderated by employees' work values (277). They have found that employees, who have positive work experiences, have strong affective commitment. Although it is stated that organizational factors have more effect on the organizational commitment of employees (241, 254); the effect of individual differences on organizational commitment is undeniable (277). There are studies suggesting that the harmony of personality traits with organizational values and norms will have a positive effect on organizational commitment (280, 281, 282).

2.2.4. Behavioral Implications of Commitment

On the basis of employees' commitment to the organization, behavioral commitment is understood to be the continuation of membership in the organization. However, if we talk about commitment to the organization rather than a behavioral commitment, then the meaning of commitment is changing and contributes to the results of various organizational behavior such as reduction in absenteeism, reduced job change or job change intention, and performance improvement. On the basis of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment, we can say that the behavioral consequences of continuance and normative commitment are more pronounced than the behavioral consequences of affective commitment (201). However, the behavioral outcomes of affective commitment were found to be wider and various than the other two types of organizational commitment. It can define commitment as demonstrating specific behaviors in order to realize the goals and objectives of the organization and to realize the goals in the minds of individuals. It is a difficult process to define and decide what actions to take to achieve these goals. For example; change the attitudes and behaviors of employees about customer satisfaction may vary depending on what purpose. If it wants customer satisfaction and it has priority, it should have the understanding of directing the customer to another company in order to receive exactly the desired products and services. If the employee's priority is the profit of the organization then their behavior will be different (201). According to Figure 3, focal and discretionary behavior can be expected to be at the highest level when there is pure affective commitment (201).

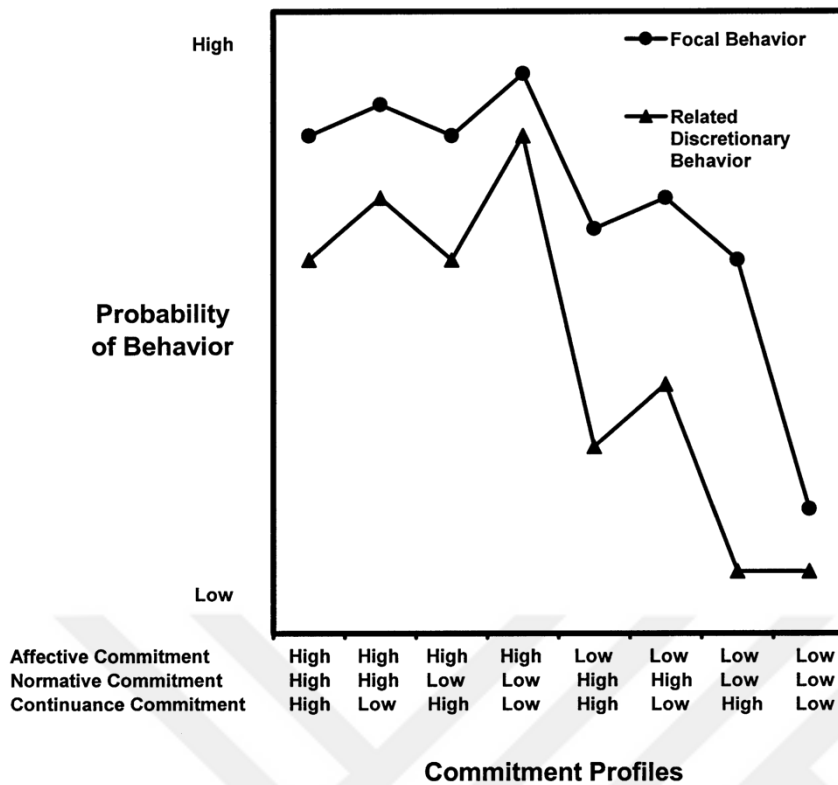


Figure 3: Commitment profiles

Source: Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001.

Commitment is consistent behavior that persists for a long time. Sociologists try to understand the mechanics of consistent behavior of people. They use social control and social sanction concept to explain it. These theories argue that people express consistent behavior because of their society or group they attach otherwise they know that they will be punished (209). Sociologists were not in the same boat to explain the consistent human behavior. Commitment is a concept that emerged at this stage and tried to explain consistent human behavior. When people change their decisions, they often act by considering possible side bets. For example, a new employee may receive a better offer from another institution, but may reject this offer as a side bet with the concern that his / her reliability and image will be damaged. Because someone who has just started work can immediately change his/her job and move to another institution. Since (s)he thinks that he will seriously affect his credibility and loyalty, and that the general social expectations are in that direction, he will not be able to make this change easily. Therefore, people act by considering the side effects and, as a result, take into account the positive or negative conditions that await them. Side effect means, what a possible change a person would make will cost for her/him (209). Employees make some investments in their organizations. The fact that these investments

will be lost in possible business changes and that they cannot use many of these investments in the organization, will force them to be connected to the organization. These loyalties are reinforced, especially in the absence of alternative job opportunities or the possibility that they will not be able to carry their investments or earnings in the organizations they work with to new organizations.

2.2.5. Negative Aspects of Organizational Commitment

Although there is often a positive relationship between organizational commitment and many of the organizational factors, and although many studies support the results, it may not be a valid finding at all times. Organizational commitment is said to have a positive effect on many organizational elements, but in some researches there are claims to the contrary (223, 293, 294, 295). In other words, organizational commitment may not be as beneficial or positive for organizations and employees as it is said to be. Some researchers claim that employees with high organizational commitment will have high performances, have high productivity. They also mention these employees do not intend to quit. However, some other researchers express their opinions on the contrary, have put forward the claim that these features do not have good results for the employee and may cause harm to them. In particular, they stated that employees with high continuance commitment experienced more stress than those who were not high, they were exposed to work-family conflict and their life satisfaction levels were low. (270, 286). The reasons of continuance commitment, which are the lack of alternatives and the investments made by the employees to the organization will cause the employees to fear losing their jobs and this will cause them to feel stuck in the organization. (287, 288).

Low commitment can be source of creativity and innovation (289). Individuals who have low commitment look for alternative employment and it may be effective way of using human resources (256). Low commitment employees may have positive effect for the organization itself. Especially employees, who have counterproductive work behavior and poor performance, may leave the organization and this improve organization effectiveness (285). Geneviciūte-Janoniene and Endriulaitiene found that the continuance commitment caused the to increase resistance to change, emotional exhaustion and cynicism (290).

2.3. Stigmatization

About 65 years ago, Gordon Allport asked his readers a question. The question was: 'Imagine that if someone, especially citizens of your own country told you again and again that you were crazy, and that you couldn't change what you do - for example, your skin is black - what impact would this have on your personality?' (291). With this question, the term stigma has been used frequently in the literature and it has been the subject of research in which people belonging to different groups or people with physical and mental defects are stigmatized. Stigmatization is a challenging process for individuals. The social identity of the stigmatized individuals and their membership within the group begin to be questioned and individuals are seen as worthless and problematic in the eyes of others (292). Stigmatization also brings personal, interpersonal and social problems. When we look at the history of stigmatization, we see that it was first used by the Greeks. The Greeks engraved various signs on the bodies of slaves, criminals or people whom they believed to act contrary to social values, causing them to be isolated from social life and easily distinguished by other people. Later, those who suffered from epidemics or those with mental illness were stigmatized on the grounds that they suffered from the wrath of Allah and that they were harmful (293). Throughout history, many diseases have caused stigmatization of those caught with that disease. It is known that people suffering from mental illness are more exposed to stigma. (294, 295).

The recommended treatments against stigmatization often build the stigmatization process and its results on individual differences (296). Prejudice and stereotyping have become accepted as a reflection of personal characters (297). Views about the stigma and its results have changed recently. Previously, exposure to stigmatization was inevitably seen as a consequence of personality, but recently it has become commonplace that stigmatized individuals develop some strategies such as unstigmatized individuals when they experience psychological problems and threats (296). Stigmatization is a concept that includes general attributions and perceptions that are relevant to character and identity. It was called as labeling, stereotype (298), deviant behavior (299), and prejudice (300). However, although it is generally used as prejudice and deviant behavior, it actually means more than these two concepts (296). Stigmatization varies from culture to culture and from time to time. A physical property or behavior that causes stigmatization in one culture may not be a reason for stigmatization in another culture. Or the physical property or behavior that causes stigma

once in the same culture may not be seen as stigmatization at another time. Sociologists have been studying stigma and its consequences for a long time. Although it has been used firstly by sociologists, nowadays many researchers from different disciplines, such as psychology, medicine, health, organizational behavior, study stigma (301). The means of stigma firstly used as wound, sign but now it refers to low reputation, humiliation (302). While people were initially part of social life and were considered normal by those around them, they were reduced to a level that was not worthy of consideration after stigmatization. (302). Much of the theorizing of individual responses to stigma builds on labeling theory (303). Attaching a negative labeling to an individual usually results in identity deviance, status loss and discrimination (304). Van Laar and Levin stated that the effect of stigma depends on three things (291). These are:

1) Characteristics of stigma: It is important to avoid stigmatization whether stigmatization is done according to a specific group or character, or if there is stigmatization in a wider environment on a global basis. Those, who are exposed to the stigmatization within a narrower scale and fewer people know that stigmatization, may be able to escape stigma more easily.

2) Characteristics of individual: The effect of stigmatization depends on the character of the stigmatization as well as the character of the stigmatized individual. Individuals attached to a stigmatized group may be said to be subject to more stigmatization due to their popularity or strong belonging within the group (305).

3) Characteristics of condition: The effects of the conditions on the stigma were investigated and the effects of environmental factors on the stigmatized individuals were investigated and whether this effect caused stigmatization in a certain situation was discussed. Inzlicht and Good used the term threatening environment and defined it as a condition in which individuals can be stigmatized because of their social identity (306).

One of the misconceptions about stigmatization is that society has a consistently negative attitude towards the stigmatized person. However, a sense of sympathy may prevail in society against an individual stigmatized by a physical defect, or certain attitudes towards blacks can trigger a sense of justice (307). In such a case, the society may show a positive attitude towards individuals who have been exposed to stigmatization, which they do not show to non-stigmatized individuals (308).

2.3.1. Labeling Theory

There are several theories on which the concept of stigma is based. Some of them are; Labeling Theory, Social Identity Theory, Social Representation Theory. On the other hand, the main theoretical root of stigma is lying on labeling theory from the sociology (309, 310). When label was first used, a marking would be made by the social authority for the person who committed the crime to be recognized in the public sphere. Thus, people can easily distinguish criminals and protect themselves from them (311). Prisoning of criminals or hospitalization of people with infectious diseases is to protect the community against the damages that may arise from them (312).

Becker has put the basis of labeling theory (304). According to Lemert, labeling theory has been expressed with the idea that the person who attaches negative and insulting adjectives adopts that title and after a while it turns to crime (313). In such a case, stigmatization of the person by his / her initial actions is considered as primary heresy, and then accepting and continuing the behaviors or behaviors attributed to him and causing him to be stigmatized are considered as secondary heresy (314). Stigmatizing the person once makes it difficult to easily peel off the stigma, whether for a valid or invalid reason. For example: The stigmatization of a student who misbehaves at school may affect the student's entire life and cause him / her to be a crime-prone person. Nobody in the society can be said to obey all the rules of society (314). We may all have broken the simple social rules of crossing the red light, either stepping on the grass, or throwing trash on the floor. Sometimes people commit crimes, but they cannot be labeled because they are not caught. Therefore, it can be said that labeling constitutes the deviant behavior of the perpetrator and other actors (315).

In labeling theory, those who do not obey the rules of the society, and make these irregularities habitual willingly or unintentionally labeled as deviant (304). This labeling means that other members of the society have knowledge about these criminals and aim to isolate them from the society. Those who act in accordance with social rules remain in the system, while those who act contrary to them are pushed out of the system. Labeling theory also plays an important role in understanding the relationship between guilt and power. Those with lower status in social life may find it difficult to resist labeling as they are both weaker and have less social resources (315). According to the labeling theory, individuals are aware of their label and use stigma management strategies to deal with the threat of

rejection or social discrimination that the label causes. These stigma management tactics could be education, withdrawal and secrecy (316). The other root of stigmatization comes from mental illness (317). According to Goffman, stigma is a kind of signal of a person and this signal might relate to physical characteristics, deviant behavior and or group membership (318). In sociology of religion, stigma can be seen at individual level.

Sociologists advocating the labeling theory state that individuals are more courageous to exhibit behaviors that cause stigmatization if individuals are faced with social stigmatization and act in accordance with perverse behaviors (319). Initially, if the individual exhibits a simple deviation behavior that is not very serious by the society, it may not be immediately stigmatized by the society, even if it is stigmatized, the stigmatization on it may disappear after a certain time. However, if the same individual shows different deviation behaviors, this may cause more serious stigmatization. When he repeats the same behavior repeatedly, his reputation is shaken and the label attributed to him becomes a part of it.

2.3.2. Organizational Stigma

In recent years, stigma has been studied at the organizational level. Devers and his friends define the stigma as “a label that evokes a collective stakeholder group-specific perception that an organization possesses a fundamental deep-seated flaw that deindividuates and discredits the organization” (318). Organizational stigma is a labeling and association process (320). This process leads stakeholders to stereotype the organization. An organization distinguishes itself from other organizations by its organizational stigmatization, not its own characteristics (321). As a result, a stigmatized organization is seen as imperfect and stigmatized when it is seen as belonging to a category that is viewed by the stakeholders as being basically opposite to their expectations or values (320). Thus, organizational stigmatization is based on applying social and economic sanctions depending on the negative evaluations of the stakeholders (322).

The labeling of an organization as an incongruity with an organization makes it easier for stakeholders to identify that organization and to have an open mind about the identity of the organization (323, 324). Stakeholders' effective behavior is one of the most important parts of organizational stigmatization (325). Research shows that stigmatization can be very dangerous and threaten the survival of the organization (321, 326). Muslims in US have been

faced discrimination at the workplace after 9/11 because they have been stigmatized. The stigma is not about the specific action or practice of organizations but rather about negative evaluations of organizations` core essence (320). Moreover, organizational stigma is not about a specific single organization, but it is about whether an organization belongs to a stigmatized category (327). Therefore, stigmatization does not come from negative evaluation or spoiled identity of organization, but those stigmatized organizations are excluded from the society because society sees them like it (328).

One of the important antecedents of organizational stigma, which threaten the survival of organization, is the perception of stakeholders that organizations do not follow the existing social order (329). On this regard, organization stigma can be easily acquired because stigmatization depends on general perceptions of value incongruence (330) and this may happen quickly by a particular event (330). This particular event leads to social and economic problems for organizations such as foreign capital organizations. Once an organization is considered within a stigmatized category, many stakeholders cut down the business with stigmatized company and even rumoring the organization and its manager and this directly threaten the survival and success of organization (322). Moreover, when a company is stigmatized, its uniqueness goes away in the eyes of stakeholders (321). The debates about organizational stigma concern the role of legitimacy and notion of multiple types of stigma (331). According to Hudson, stigmatization should be thought of as negative legitimacy (330). Stigma and legitimacy along with other social evaluations has been studied in the study of Jensen and Roy, in which they tried to show how status and reputation affect the auditor firm selection (332). Organizations are stigmatized for many reasons such as unethical activities (331). Organizations remove the stigma by scapegoating (333), and decoupling (334). Power is necessary for the production of stigma because stakeholders, who are powerful than targeted organization, can stigmatize that organization (321). If we consider executives and the board within organization and who will be bear the most direct stigmatization, following argument may be proposed: If executives are more powerful than the board, individuals` managers most likely to lose their positions, however if the board is more powerful than executives, resulting in managers or executives lose their position at the organization (328). Organizations try to be together or associate with other organizations they perceive as legitimate or they try to confirm acceptable standards of society so as to be thought as legitimate and also organizations try to be separate from other organizations they take as illegitimate (328, 335). Being associated with stigmatized, organizations identity

could be affected or damaged. Because of this, once an organization is being stigmatized, other organizations, which are close relationship with stigmatized organization, try to get away from it.

Although some of the violation of individuals do not make organizations being stigmatized, sometimes because of the lack of organizational monitoring and control systems, it is not possible to blame to single person, but the trustworthiness of entire organizations is called into question and result in stigmatization (328). However, the legitimate mistake from normal business practices, organizations cannot be stigmatized because those mistakes are uncontrollable (336). Organization stigmatization also has a potential to threat the individual's identities, in other words, association with stigmatized organization would stigmatize individuals, too. Once organizations become stigmatized at the organizational level, individuals within those stigmatized organizations could become stigmatized as well. Therefore, organizations may remove potentially problematic agents in case of them deflect behavior which may be source of being stigmatized of organizations or individuals may depart from the organization which they think they will be stigmatized because some of the practices of organization. In both cases, if actions are successful, both parties could be prevented from being stigmatized or at least decreases the severe of being stigmatization. On the other hand, if an individual, who has an important position in the organization, is forced by organization, he or she may bear all the effects of stigmatization and leave the rest of his or her colleagues unprotected or leave them to have a chance of being stigmatized.

According to Ashforth and Humphrey, it may be interesting research to study labeling contest that organizations engage when trying to stigmatize or avoid being stigmatized (337). This kind of study may show us why some groups of organizations are fully risked of being stigmatized; some organizations are able to avoid stigmatization, while others become stigmatized. A manager of a home country company is sent to another country to share his or her knowledge with employees of foreign country companies. Here home country refers to the country, where the company is originally established and foreign country refers to the country, where the company established new business at other countries other than original country. Foreign organizations would encounter different problems from home country nationals such as foreign national's stigmatizing marks based on external characteristics or their nationality, religious beliefs (338, 339). The fit between home country culture and

foreign country culture is important for organizations success (340). The characteristics that are stigmatized may vary across time and culture, so what makes individuals and organizations become stigmatized should be studied in different context (341).

Domestic employees` lack of cultural flexibility and cultural, economic distance between companies` original country and domestic country are two factors the lack of integration of companies (342). When companies come to home country from other country, the people at home country are more likely label the foreign companies as outsider and they do not easily accept those companies` existence and they can easily stigmatize them (330). If the source of the stigmatization is addressed successfully, it could faster the process of being accepted by foreign country nationals (343, 344). Therefore, the companies, which have accepted by other cultures, can make significant difference among other organizations. These organizations would have competitive advantage, too. There are expectations from researchers about the factors that may cause stigmatization of organizations and how organizations struggle against stigmatization (345, 346). Organizations may be stigmatized by certain groups due to various anomalous events or ordinary work and actions (347).

2.3.4. Social Identity Theory

The social identities of individuals depend on the groups to which they are attached or the positions in the workplace (348). Social category theory and social identity theory stated that individuals classify themselves according to social categories using visible characters such as age or race (349). Invisible social identity and status may be the cause of stigma (350). However, it is more difficult for individuals to be stigmatized than for visible features. Therefore, invisible features cause individuals to be stigmatized more difficult at the beginning and also have a positive effect on avoiding the problems they will face due to stigmatization. Considering the possible costs of stigmatization, individuals with invisible social identities may have the advantage of choosing where and when to reveal their differences (351). Visible characteristics of individuals may become problematic when stigmatized (350). Social identity determines who people are and helps their harmony with their environment. According to the Robbins and Judge some of the reasons people keep their social identity at the forefront are (352):

- 1) Similarity, which refers to identifications increases as values and properties are similar.

- 2) Clarity, which refers to different features from other groups is more easily noticed.
- 3) Status, which refers to people try to relate to individuals or groups who have with high status.
- 4) Reduce uncertainty, which refers to people who know who they are by their identities and adapt to social rules.

Stigma-related studies generally focus on stigmatization of people's physical characteristics or individuals or groups who make certain choices that are contrary to society's value judgments. For example; Many studies have been conducted on the possibility of stigmatization of sexual preferences of people at work. In some of them they stressed that people could get out of the stigmatization by changing their jobs (353, 354), In some studies, it has also taken into account the benefits of this for society (355). What most of these studies have in common is that stigmatization is explained by social identity theory at the organizational level (356). Another common point of these studies is that they are related to invisible social identities. Chronic illnesses, addictions, religious identities, preterm birth, retirement status are potential stigmatization areas and people tend to hide these identities consciously or unconsciously (357).

There is also a tendency for individuals to express physical and psychological disorders or characteristics that may be subject to stigmatization, and vice versa. This retention trend has two common characteristics: the contradiction between the identity that is attempted to hide and the actual identity that is known, the other is the expectation that the expected or dominant character in a given social context will match the character of the person (357). Stigmatization also causes the depreciation of individuals' social identities (292). It is also related to other concepts that people misrepresent themselves, which may cause them not to comply with society's expectations or dominant behavioral patterns. These are emotional labor (358), covering (302), compliance (359), impression management (360), and fecades of conformity (361).

- 1) Emotional labor refers to individuals express emotions with consistent what their organizations expect them even if they actually do not express their actual emotions.
- 2) Covering refers to individuals reveals a stigmatized identity but they cover some part of that identity to minimize the problem that they may face in social

interactions.

- 3) Compliance refers to individuals change beliefs because of external pressure even if they do not hold the same belief internally.
- 4) Impression management refers to individuals hold same ideas as their managers even if they do not believe those ideas.
- 5) Facades of conformity refers to individuals hold values that are not represent their own values to establish conformity with their organizational values.

One way of hiding the behaviors that can cause people to be stigmatized is to try to develop positive behaviors in the community. Although people think that they get rid of punishment by hiding the behaviors that will cause them to be stigmatized by the society, they apply to the way of rewarding by developing positive behavior. Hiding their identities can have serious consequences. Once identities are revealed, it is impossible to retrieve it again, or at least in the culture in which identity is revealed. There are various organizational outputs and mediating factors of individuals' tendency to hide their identity or behavior that may cause stigmatization (357). According to Mead, these factors are grouped under three groups (362). These:

- 1) Objective Self Responses: Lack of self-verification, Isolation, and Alienation
- 2) Subjective Self Responses: Ego Depletion, and Taxed Information Management
- 3) Subjective/Objective Dissonance Responses: Reveal (change behavior), Change identification/value, Introduce new cognitive element (357).

From these factors, each of them has some consequences for individuals. For example the consequences of objective self responses is disengaged from social context. While the results of ego depletion are emotional exhaustion and reduced self-regulation, the results of taxed information management is reduced cognitive capacity. Moreover, the consequence of subjective/objective dissonance responses is altered perception of organizational setting or increased boundary management. Therefore, the results of these consequences determine individual performance. According to the Tajfel and Turner, in social identity theory, individuals from the beginning divide events, people and groups into groups like us and others (363). While developing a positive attitude towards those from their own group, they can develop a negative attitude towards those outside their own group (364). People sometimes want to enter a positive community for their image to be positive (365). They

consider the group they are in superior to other groups and start to think that the people in the other groups are alike (366). The fact that individuals are members of good status groups is a result of their self-esteem needs (367).

2.3.5. Stigmatization Types

Goffman stated that stigma can be examined under three categories (302):

- 1) Stigma due to physical deficiencies or problems of individuals,
- 2) Stigma caused by individuals' weaknesses or weaknesses as characters (Alcoholic, drug addict, prisoner, etc.)
- 3) Stigma arising from race, national identity or religious affiliation to a particular group.

According to the literature, stigma may occur in three different forms (340). Physical forms, personal traits such as mental illness, or tribal appearances such as ethnic groups, religious identity are all the sources of stigmatization (296). Although researches are mainly focus on both first two subjects, mainly about personal traits as in psychology and health science, there are not enough researches about tribal appearances especially within the context of organization itself. Some of dimensions of stigmatization, which is used in the literature, is given in Table 7.

Table 7: Dimensions of stigmatization

Goffman (1963)	Jones et al. (1984)	Crocker et al. (1998)
Physical Deformities	Concealability, (Visible Characteristics)	Visibility
Deviant of Individual Character	Course of Mark (Is mark salient?)	Controllability
Tribal Identities	Disruptiveness (Stigmatizing character interferes with interpersonal relationship)	
	Aesthetics (Subjective Reactions towards Stigma)	
	Origin (of the Stigmatization)	
	Peril (Perceived danger of	

Source: Dovidio, Major, & Crocker, 2000.

2.3.5.1. Goffman`s Classification

Visibility: It can be seen that people cannot escape discrimination or stereotypes. there are features suitable for stigma and features that are suitable for public storage (364). Visible features include physical features that can be easily noticed from the outside, while concealable features are not visible at first glance, such as ideology and homosexuality. While visible features cannot be hidden in society, people tend to hide their concealable features from society as much as possible.

Controllability: Stigmatization that occurs as a result of people's own choices and beyond their own control. While determining the party to which they are a member according to their preferences, whether to smoke or not are considered as controllable stigma, the race or gender to which they belong can be considered as uncontrollable stigma. Although people receive less criticism due to uncontrollable stigma, those with controllable stigma can be criticized more (364).

Heredity: It is about stigmatization of people because of their innate characteristics and stigmatization because of the behaviors they acquired afterwards.

2.3.5.2. Pryor and Reeder`s Classification

Primary Stigmatization: Stigma, which is also referred to as direct labeling, is the stigmatization made directly against the people. Also known as felt or perceived stigmatization.

Secondary stigmatization: Indirect stigmatization of individuals not from individual stigmatization but from family members and close friends. Together with the person labeled here, the people around him are also affected by this stigma (301).

Social stigmatization: Society stigmatized people and groups. The stigmatization of the general population causes internalized stigmatization in the individual. Internalized stigmatization is also called personal stigmatization, which is the internal acceptance of

opinions or stigmatization directed to the person by other people or groups (368).

Structural stigmatization: A type of stigmatization arising from the inequality of opportunity created by the system or the state, especially for certain groups (369).

Institutional stigmatization: It is a kind of stigmatization that occurs during the services received from public institutions and organizations. Some psychiatric hospitals in Turkey as an example of corporate stigmatization. Institutional stigmatization also includes organizational stigmatization that causes sectoral stigmatization.

2.3.5.3. Williamson`s classification

Li and Walker summarized the Williamson stigmatization classification (370). According to them, stigmatization can be explained in three categories. These are as follows:

Personal stigma: It is embarrassing for people to try to gain benefit from their institutions. Personal stigma is about claiming benefits by welfare people are shameful (371).

Social stigma: Social stigma is behavior of non-recipients (372).

Institutional stigma: Institutional stigma has its root from framing, design of social assistance policies (373).

2.3.6. Reasons of Stigma

Factors causing stigmatization vary according to cultures. For example, obesity is a major problem in America and may cause stigmatization, but in another culture this may not be the reason for stigmatization (350). Another important dimension of stigmatization is that it is collective, that is, there is a tendency towards the stigmatized feature in society as a whole, not a group within the society. Public programs for a particular group alone can also cause stigma. The question of why the recipients of public aid, that is, state-assisted individuals are stigmatized can be examined in four groups:

1) The dependence of any public aid on the public due to its character can be stigmatized. The absence and illegitimacy of the father due to his imprisonment may serve as an example (374). The ideology of accusing the victim can also be considered in this group (375). According to this ideology, the poverty of society should be sought in the

mistakes of individuals, not in society.

2) In the second category, those who are economically self-sufficient, who take out professional individuals from normal social groups and put them in a situation that excludes them, are those who accept public aid (376). Being included in such a group with public aid is considered as a negative situation and low class for the society.

3) The third group consists of those who evaluate the stigma associated with public affiliation in terms of labeling theory. Such as the deviant evaluation of people living in community centers (377). Society has certain rules, and those who do not obey these rules are regarded as deviant and excluded from society.

4) In the fourth category, the stigma was largely committed against individuals receiving public aid. Dependence on public aid also includes stigmatization treatments given by creditors and police (378).

Stigmatized individuals are seen as worthless in society and often face prejudice and exclusion (379). While they have very little positive social relationships, they have great difficulties in accessing resources such as home ownership, business ownership and education (380). Stigmatized individuals face problems such as getting mental illness due to seeking treatment (381), and increasing stress levels due to stigmatization (382).

2.3.7. Strategies for Stigma

Stigmatization is harmful to individuals as it can lead to negative effects such as social exclusion and loss of status (321). It affects individuals' development negatively, prevents their progression and causes them to be isolated from society (383). Moreover, it also affects individuals' relationships and career development (353). However, we cannot say that all individuals actually experience all these negativities (379). Although stigmatized individuals can be socially excluded or difficult to access to social resources, there are few examples of individuals who can successfully manage stigma and survive the stigma. Shih pointed out that it is not right to address only the negative aspects of stigmatization, the importance of investigating how stigmatized individuals survived stigmatization and which methods they use, and that the stigmatized individuals adopted three different psychological processes (379). These are:

1) Compensation: Individuals who are stigmatized try to adapt by working hard and assertively by working harder. They also pay attention to how they present themselves. They are more careful in their social relationships and are more inclined to empathize (351).

2) Strategic interpretations of their social environment: Stigmatized individuals consciously and strategically manipulate the perceptions of their social environment in order to preserve their self-worth. Instead of comparing themselves with individuals in other groups, they compare themselves with members who are worse off in the same group (292). They also try to preserve their own values by denying or reducing discrimination and prejudice.

3) Focusing on multiple identities: Social identity theory and stigma theory are based on the fact that individuals have only one identity. However, individuals can actually carry more than one identity (384). Stigmatized individuals can also create multiple alternative identities to protect themselves.

In the literature, it is stated that individuals with invisible social identity follow two kinds of strategies when they are stigmatized (350). One is pass and the other is reveal. Once individuals reveal their hidden social identity, it may mean that they have to explain it to new people each time. In such a case, how and when to do this becomes important. Individuals sometimes do not want to explain their invisible social identities to anyone, sometimes they just explain to a certain group or they may not mind everyone knowing. Retention is not to reveal the invisible and unnoticed features of individuals at work and to eliminate any personal characteristics or objects that others may understand (385). For example, if he or she is taking medication for a psychological condition, to ensure that no one sees the drug, or if he is having a gay relationship, hiding a picture of his partner. Those who practice pass against stigma can use three different ways (386):

1) Fabrication, means that individuals consciously give false information about themselves. An example of this is when gays attend a corporate invitation with a woman to hide it and show her as a lover (387).

2) Concealment, it means that individuals work actively to prevent others from receiving information about themselves. It's like when individuals hide where they grew up, which schools they went.

3) Discretion, although it is not a conscious tactic like concealment, it does not actively work to prevent its identity from being revealed, it means avoiding dialogues that will reveal their identities in society. In any case, individuals have to live two different lives, regardless of which hide tactic they use (350).

Revealing is to ensure that everyone or a group of people know the normally invisible or hidden characteristics of individuals. It is stated in the literature that revealing can be used in three different methods (350):

1) Signaling is a fine line between completely revealing and hiding the invisible characteristics of individuals. Individuals express their characteristics that will cause stigmatization implicitly, by sending a message to the other person or by implication. For example, one's speculation about his preferences by expressing the book or genre he is listening to. (387).

2) Normalizing, reveals the invisible social identities of individuals and then normalizes these characteristics by expressing that many people have these characteristics (388).

3) Differentiating, means that individuals emphasize the different characteristics that can cause stigmatization, emphasizing that they are actually different from others that should not be stigmatized. One example of this is, physically disabled individuals, who state that they have equal rights in the workplace and that they must have fair working conditions like any other personnel. Clair, Beatty, and Maclean developed a conceptual framework. In this conceptual model given in figure 4, the reasons and results of custody and disclosure are given together (350).

A Conceptual Model of the Decision to Pass or Reveal

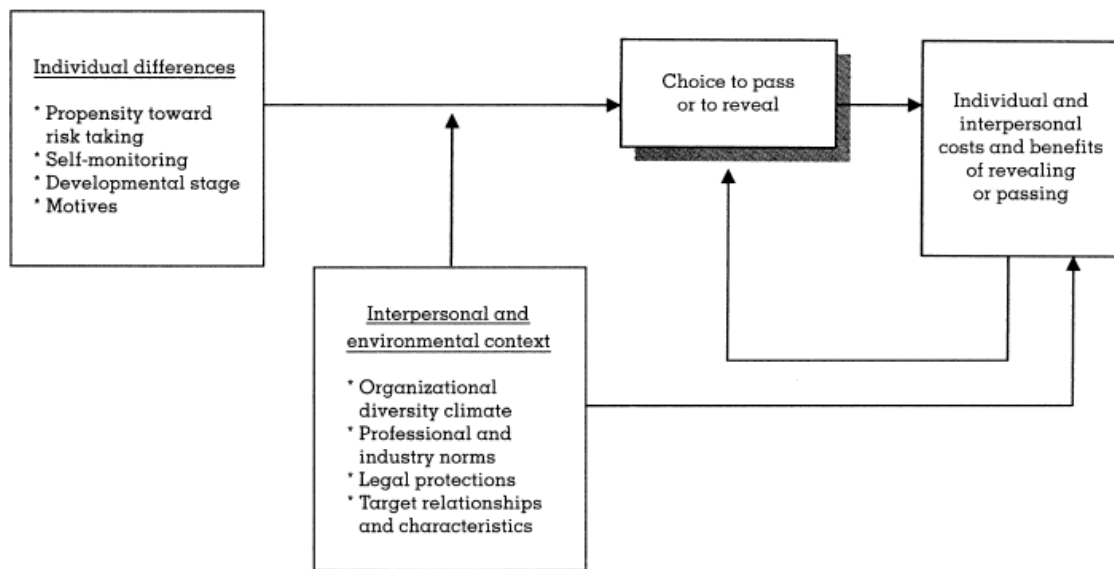


Figure 4: Conceptual model of the decision to pass or reveal

Source: (Clair, Beatty, & Maclean, 2005)

As it can be understood from the figure 4, individual differences such as personality can cause stigmatization. It is also worth investigating whether individuals have a stigmatization tendency in the relationship with organizational commitment used in the formation of the conceptual model of our thesis.

2.3.8. Relationship Between Personality and Organizational Commitment

Perceptions of individuals also indicate the degree of organizational commitment. How individuals perceive their events and their commitment to the institution they work in varies according to their personality traits. Because individuals with different personality traits interpret the events differently, their commitment to the organization may also be different. A decision taken within the organization can strengthen the organizational commitment of some employees and weaken some of them. There are two reasons for individual differences in understanding work behavior (136): Theoretically, attitude is called a psychological tendency expressed by the evaluation of a particular institution (389). Empirically, it has been proven that some individuals may be willing to experience increasing or decreasing job satisfaction levels (390). Therefore, when the factors affecting organizational commitment are examined in recent studies, the place of personality traits has

become undeniable (391). However, although the relationship between personality and organizational commitment is so important, it is seen that there are not many studies examining these two concepts together (136, 286).

Different forms of mind are important factors in the formation of different behaviors (201). It has been stated in many studies that personality is an important factor in understanding individual behaviors in the workplace (286). There was a significant relationship between the dimension of conscientiousness and normative commitment (259). In other words, individuals with responsible personality feel responsible to the institution in which they work and see separation as wrong. Although there are researches revealing the commitment of individuals with extrovert personality characteristics (392), there are also studies indicating that intention to quit because of continuous communication with people and being aware of alternative job opportunities due to good interpersonal relationships (293).

Extraversion was found to have a significant positive relationship with emotional, normative and continuance commitment, while a positive relationship was found between emotional balance, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and commitment to continuity (136). In the same study, it was concluded that compatibility and normative commitment were related. While there was a positive relationship between agreeableness and normative commitment and between conscientiousness and attendance commitment, there was a positive relationship between openness to experience and continuance commitment (136). In a study conducted on faculty members, a positive relationship was found between agreeableness personality trait and emotional and normative commitment, and a negative relationship was found between continuance commitment (393). It is concluded that individuals with high agreeableness personality and high emotional balance are more committed to their organizations because of their insightful, reassuring characteristics (394). In a study by Bozkaya, a positive relationship was found between extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and affective and normative commitment (395). There was a positive relationship between emotional balance and continuance commitment. Kumar and Bakshi found a positive relationship between extraversion and three sub-dimensions of organizational commitment, while they found a negative relationship between openness to experience and continuance and normative commitment (170). In the same study, they found a positive relationship between emotional

balance, continuance and normative commitment, and a negative relationship between affective commitment.

Sadeghi and Yazdanbakhsh found a positive relationship between extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, and organizational commitment, while negative correlation between emotional balance and organizational commitment (396). Khoeini and Attar found a positive relationship between extraversion and emotional and normative commitment, and between agreeableness and continuance commitment (397). Panaccio and Vandenberghe, made a research on 220 employees from different organizations examined the role of positive and negative emotions in the relationship between four-dimensional organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance-sacrifices, continuance-alternatives) and Big Five personality. According to the results of the analysis, they found a positive relationship between extraversion and agreeableness and affective, normative and continuance-sacrifices and that it strengthens positive emotions. They also stated that agreeableness was positively related to affective commitment but negatively related to continuances-alternatives commitment, which reduced negative emotions. Another finding of the study is that emotional balance affects affective commitment negatively but affects continuance-alternatives commitment positively (398).

Tziner and his friends examined the relationship between the big five model and organizational commitment. As a result of their study on 96 people working in two different public institutions, they found a meaningful relationship between agreeableness, openness to experience and conscientiousness and organizational commitment (399). Gelade, Dobson, and Gilbert stated that extroverted individuals are more dependent on their organizations and develop more positive behaviors, whereas individuals with high neurotics have low commitment and negative approaches to work (400). In a study in which the factors that increase and decrease the organizational commitment of teachers were examined, it was concluded that personal factors affect organizational commitment as well as factors such as professional development of employees and education system (401). In another study conducted on teachers, the reasons increasing organizational commitment were examined and it was concluded that interpersonal relations had a positive effect (402). According to Meyer and his friends, more empirical studies are needed to elicit the differences in organizational commitment in different geographical regions and in different cultures (270). One of the ways that can contribute to the literature in the development of normative commitment is to consider the personal differences that will affect cultural socialization

(270). There are studies showing that there is a positive correlation between personal differences and normative commitment (403, 404).

Ritzer and Trice was one of the first researchers to examine the relationship between site-bet theory and organizational commitment (405). While no relationship was found between the two variables, some alternative factors were emphasized. He stated that these variables, which can be categorized as socio-psychological factors, may have moderating or mediating effects. However, it was criticized in some later studies for the errors of Ritzer and Trice in distinguishing them from continuance and value commitment (248). In another study in which the arguments of Ritzer and Trice were tested, Alutto and his friends found a significant and positive relationship between organizational commitment and side bet theory (249). Shoemaker and his friends compared the claims of Becker and Ritzer and Trice in his study and found that both factors had an effect on organizational commitment (406). In summary, in some of the studies, it was found that the variables in Becker in side bet theory had significant contributions in explaining organizational commitment. In some studies partial relationships were examined, and in some studies, when other variables were examined with organizational commitment, the relationship was disappeared. Cohen and Lowenberg examined the relationship between organizational commitment and 11 variables in side bet theory in their meta-analysis and could not find a strong relationship (221). Although Ritzer and Trice regard age and working time as the best indicator of investment (405), Cohen and Lowenberg did not find the same result (221). However, in the same study, they concluded that there was an effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and side bet variables such as occupation type and rank.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Population and Sampling

The population of the research consists of academic staff working at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University and Kırşehir Ahi Evran University. There are approximately 1200

academic staff in Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, and approximately 900 in Kırşehir Ahi Evran University. The reason for the selection of these two institutions is both the ease of access to the population and the comparison of both institutions.

3.2. Data Collection Method

Survey technique was used to collect data. In order to apply the questionnaire, the ethics committee permission was obtained first (see appendix 4). Once the permission was taken (the permission that was taken from Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, also gave permission to apply the questionnaire to its academic staff). Moreover, the other permission was taken from Kırşehir Ahi Evran University (see appendix 5). Therefore the necessary permissions were obtained from both universities to conduct the survey.

Then, the questionnaire was prepared on Google Drive and sent to the email addresses of academic staff in the university web addresses. Academic staff who could not reach their e-mail addresses from the university website were also able to fill in the questionnaire by face-to-face survey technique. Firstly, the questionnaire was expected to be completed online and two more intervals were sent to the academic staff in the universe. During a two-month waiting period, 255 questionnaires were completed online. A feature of Google Docs is that you can't submit when you fill out the form incomplete. Therefore, the problem of missing value was prevented in the successfully submitted questionnaires.

The number of questionnaires required to be obtained according to the size of the population was calculated as 328 for 2100 academic staff, with 95% confidence interval and 0.5 margin of error. In addition to 255 questionnaires, the researcher increased the number of surveys by visiting both universities in the population to reach the minimum sample size. 85 more questionnaires were collected by face-to-face survey technique and data analysis was started with 340 questionnaires.

Because the questions asked in the research are sensitive, especially the questions related to the stigmatization increase this sensitivity, there is a danger of social desirability bias to appear more positive for the respondents, but the respondents were initially assured of confidentiality, the e-mail addresses of the respondents were not asked to registered and there were not any demographic questions were revealed respondents identities. Moreover, due to the high sensitivity of questions about stigmatization, some respondents overreacted

to the questions of stigmatization. Therefore, researchers who will use this questionnaire, better to prepare themselves for criticism about questions.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

The first part of the four-part questionnaire contains eight questions to obtain demographic information. These questions are gender, age, marital status, institutions and units worked, etc. In the following three sections, there is a five-point Likert-type questionnaire. These are 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Undecided, 4. Agree, 5. Strongly agree. In the second part of the questionnaire, there is a Big Five Personality scale consisting of 44 items. The third part consists of 18 items that measure organizational commitment. In the fourth and final section, there is a stigmatization scale which measures the tendency of stigmatization consists of 22 items.

3.3.1. Big Five Personality

McCrae and Costa developed the Big Five Personality scale (182) and later revised by Benet-Martinez and John revised it and reduced to 44 expressions (407). The scale was translated into Turkish and Sümer and Sümer analyzed validity and reliability (408). In the present study, the reliability values of the scale ranged from 0.70 to 0.79. Sherry and his friends found the reliability of Big Five inventory as extraversion was 0.80, agreeableness was 0.75, conscientiousness was 0.83, neuroticism was 0.85 and openness to experiences was 0.68. (409). In another study, reliability of each factors were found 0.66 for extraversion, 0.70 for agreeableness, 0.64 for conscientiousness, 0.59 for neuroticism, and 0.74 for openness to experiences (410). The scale consists of 44 expressions and five sub-dimensions. Some expressions are reverse statements. The expressions 2, 6, 8, 9, 12, 18, 21, 23, 24, 27, 31, 34, 35, 37, 41, 43 on the scale are the opposite. These are reverse coded at the beginning of the analysis.

Sub-dimensions and number of items as follows:

Extraversion 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36 (8 items),

Agreeableness 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, 42 (9 items),

Conscientiousness 3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, 43 (9 items),

Emotional stability 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39 (8 items),

Openness to experiences 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 41, 44 (10 items).

3.3.2. Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer developed organizational commitment scale consisting of three dimensions and 24 expressions (214). Later Meyer, Allen & Smith revised it as three dimensions consisted of 18 items (264). Wasti translated the scale into Turkish and performed its validity and reliability analyzes (411). Meyer and his friends reported coefficient alphas of affective commitment was 0.86, of continuance commitment was 0.58, and of normative commitment was 0.78 (264). Baysal and Paksoy found alpha 0.5705 as affective commitment reliability coefficient; alpha 0.7114 as continuance commitment reliability coefficient and alpha 0.7078 as normative commitment reliability coefficient (412). Ko and his friends conducted a study in South Korea using the Meyer et al. scales and reported coefficient alphas of 0.86 for affective commitment, 0.58 for continuance commitment, and 0.78 for normative commitment (413). Namasivayam and Zhao conducted among hospitality employees in India reported internal consistency reliabilities of affective commitment was 0.77, normative commitment 0.77, and continuance commitment 0.68 (414). The dimensions of the scale, which consists of three sub-dimensions, 18 expressions, and the expression figures represented in the analysis of the research are as follows:

Affective Commitment 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 (6 items)

Continuance Commitment 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 (6 items)

Normative Commitment 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 (6 items)

3.3.3. Stigmatization

Yaman and Güngör developed stigmatization tendency scale (415) with the participation of 780 administrators and teachers. It consisted of 22 expressions and four sub-dimensions. Does not include reverse statements. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale was found to be 0.85. Sub dimensions and expressions are as follows:

Discrimination 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 (6 items)

Labeling 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 (6 items)

Psychological Health 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 (5 items)

Prejudice 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 (5 items)

All three questionnaires were created in a five-point Likert style. The full version of the scale is given in the appendix 3.

3.4. Data Analysis

Bootstrap technique was used to test the relationships between variables, mediator and moderating analysis. The traditional approach of Baron and Kenny was not used in the mediation and moderation impact analysis, but the contemporary approach, which has been increasingly used recently, has brought serious criticism to the traditional method. Some of the criticisms of Baron and Kenny's traditional method are as follows:

- 1) In Baron and Kenny's method, full and partial mediation effects are determined according to the total effect value. However, even if the total effect is not significant, there is the possibility that the indirect effect is significant.
- 2) Since the magnitude of the indirect impact is not quantified in Baron and Kenny's method, there is no comparison between models with two or more mediators.
- 3) The difference between full mediator and partial mediation terms is conceptually meaningless.

As it is known, in Baron and Kenny's method, the relationship between independent variable and mediator variable and mediator variable and dependent variable is tested separately. However, the researchers advocating the contemporary approach, instead of looking at each relationship separately, all variables together in the analysis of whether the indirect effect is meaningful to express whether it would be a more accurate method.

Another criticism of Baron and Kenny's method is that if the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable is not meaningful, it is assumed that there is no mediating effect regardless of the mediating variable. In the contemporary approach, even though the relationship between independent and dependent variable is not meaningful, the effect of independent variable on dependent variable can be achieved through mediating

variable. Therefore, the existence of a significant relationship between the two variables should not be presented as a prerequisite (416, 417).

In the contemporary approach, it was not sought to ensure that the sequential steps in Baron and Kenny's method were provided individually, and whether the indirect effect was significant or not. It advocated the bootstrap method instead of the Sobel test. BCA CI confidence interval values are reported in the Bootstrap method (418). Accordingly, if the upper and lower confidence interval does not include 0 (zero) value, it is concluded that the indirect effect is meaningful, that is, the mediation effect exists. For all these reasons, bootstrap method was used in this study. The hypotheses were tested with Process Macro developed by Hayes and added as a patch to SPSS.

3.5. Data Cleaning Process

3.5.1. Reverse Coding

Of the three scales used in the questionnaire of the thesis, only some questions on the Big Five scale were prepared in reverse code. The first step of the analysis is the process of making these reverse coded questions correct in the analysis program by using reverse coding method. To do this, all the reverse coded data were selected using the recode into same variables command in the spss program and the following methodology was followed:

1>5, 2>4, 3>3, 4>2, 5>1. That is, 1 is given as 5, 2 as 4, 3 as 3, 4 as 2, 5 as 1. Thus, the first step of the data cleaning process was performed with reverse coded analysis. In the following list, the reverse coded expressions on the Big Five scale are given. The letter 'R' yanında next to the item numbers indicates that the item is an inverse question and should be encoded.

Extraversion-Intraversion: 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 36, 31R

Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42,

Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R

Emotional Stability: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39

Openness to Experience: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

Since there were no negative questions on the organizational commitment scale and the stigmatization tendency scale, there was no change related to reverse coding in both scales.

3.5.2. Missing Values

The missing data in the questionnaire form was examined and the surveys 276 and 296 were excluded from the scope of the analysis because they contain lost data in too many items. Since 255 people filled out the questionnaire online at Google drive and the Google drive was prevented from submitting the questionnaire, which had missing values, in the first place. Internet surveys have both cost and time advantages, and the loss data problem is minimal (419). Two of the 85 questionnaires (276 and 296) that only the researcher visited by the faculty members who participated in the study were deleted and some missing data were found in some questionnaires. The questionnaires with this small number of missing data were left unassigned. As the factors used in the analyzes rather than the items of the scales and the scale scores formed by the factors are used, it is not expected that these small numbers of missing data will affect the results of the analysis.

3.5.3. Outliers

Outliers can sometimes cause serious errors in scales. In particular, extreme outliers can compromise the reliability of the results of the analyzes. In addition, the outliers affect factor analysis and may prevent the scattering of substances into the required factors. For these reasons, all three scales used in the study were examined individually on the basis of sub-dimensions and especially extreme outliers, which disturb the normality and affect the results of the analysis, were examined in order to give the results of the analyzes healthy.

There are different views on how Outliers will be handled and evaluated. Some researchers have stated that the Z scores of the scale are outliers and values that are not between -3.29 and + 3.29 are outliers and these data should be removed from the data set. Some researchers (420) looking at the percentile of the scales by taking the value of 25% and 75% by multiplying each value by 1.5, subtracting from the value of 25% and 75% of the value found by adding the value of 75% that the values that are not between the two results are outliers and it is appropriate to subtract from the data set.

In their study conducted by Hoaglin and Iglewicz and published in the Journal of the American Statistical Association, they stated that multiplying Q1 and Q3 values by 2.2 is more accurate, and that values obtained from multiplication by 1.5 would sometimes cause deletion of non-outliers data (421).

According to this approach, it is recommended that the values of 25% and 75% should be multiplied by 2.2 and subtracting the result from the value of 25% and adding the value to the value of 75% can be considered as outliers and should not be included in the analysis. To put it in the form of formula;

$$\text{Upper} = Q3 + (2.2 * (Q3 - Q1))$$

$$\text{Lower} = Q1 - (2.2 * (Q3 - Q1))$$

In the above formula, the calculations are made by taking the Q1 and Q3 values of each measurement tool and the data other than the upper and lower values are considered as outliers and are excluded from the analysis. In this study, based on this approach, necessary analyzes were made and Q1 and Q3 values of each scale were separately taken and outliers were controlled.

3.5.3.1. Big Five Personality (Outliers)

Table 8: Percentiles (big five)

		5	10	25	50	75	90	95
Weighted Average (Definition 1)	Extraversion	2.5000	2.7500	3.1250	3.6250	4.0000	4.2625	4.6250
	Agreeableness	3.1111	3.3333	3.5556	3.8889	4.2222	4.4444	4.6667
	Conscientiousness	2.7778	3.0000	3.4444	3.7778	4.1111	4.5556	4.7778
	EmotionalStability	1.6250	1.8625	2.2500	2.7500	3.1563	3.5000	3.7563
	OpennesstoExp	3.0000	3.1900	3.4000	3.8000	4.1000	4.4000	4.6000
	Big Five Personality	3.0813	3.2172	3.3815	3.5344	3.7171	3.8952	3.9651

In Table 8, percentiles values of Big Five scale are given. 25% and 75% values of each sub-dimension were taken into consideration Hoaglin and Iglewicz by taking the necessary calculations based on the approach (421). Accordingly, the value of 25 in table 9 represents the value of 25% in the percentile and the value of 75 represents the value of 75%. 25% (Q1) was subtracted from 75% (Q3) and shown in the column called difference between 75 and 25. This difference was then multiplied by 2.2 and given in Multiply with 2.2. The value found in Q1 is written to the subtracted Lower column, and the column named Upper is

summed with the Q3 value. Tables of Organizational Commitment and Stigmatization scales were calculated and filled in the same way.

Table 9: Calculation of lower and upper limits of outliers (big five)

		25	75	Difference between 75 and 25	Multiply with 2.2	Lower	Upper
Weighted	Extraversion	3.1250	4.0000	0.875	1.925	1.200	5.925
Average	Agreeableness	3.5556	4.2222	0.666	1.467	2.089	5.689
(Definition 1)	Conscientiousness	3.4444	4.1111	0.667	1.467	1.978	5.578
	EmotionalStability	2.2500	3.1563	0.906	1.994	0.256	5.150
	OpennesstoExp	3.4000	4.1000	0.700	1.540	1.860	5.640
	Big Five Personality	3.3815	3.7171	0.336	0.738	2.644	4.456

The Table 10 shows the extreme values of the Big Five scale and its sub-dimensions. Lower and upper band were calculated in table above. According to these calculations when we check whether the outliers;

For the Extraversion, the lower band was 1.2 while the upper band was 5,925. In Table 10, the lowest value for extraversion was 1.63 and the highest value was 5. The lowest and highest values appear to be in the range of the lower and upper bands.

Table 10: Extreme values (big five)

			Case Number	Value
Extraversion	Highest	1	74	5.00
		2	127	5.00
		3	34	4.88
		4	75	4.88
		5	126	4.88 ^a
	Lowest	1	21	1.63
		2	173	1.75
		3	35	2.00
		4	325	2.25
		5	314	2.25 ^b
Agreeableness	Highest	1	189	5.00
		2	2	4.89

		3	12	4.89
		4	332	4.89
		5	95	4.78 ^c
Conscientiousness	Lowest	1	321	2.67
		2	115	2.67
		3	304	2.78
		4	32	2.78
		5	160	2.89 ^d
	Highest	1	34	5.00
		2	38	5.00
		3	181	5.00
		4	200	5.00
		5	230	5.00
Emotional Stability	Lowest	1	107	2.33
		2	327	2.44
		3	225	2.44
		4	73	2.44
		5	320	2.56 ^e
	Highest	1	134	4.75
		2	303	4.63
		3	253	4.50
		4	297	4.50
		5	305	4.38
Openness to Experience	Lowest	1	234	1.00
		2	171	1.00
		3	309	1.13
		4	206	1.13
		5	195	1.13 ^f
	Highest	1	122	5.00
		2	38	4.90
		3	103	4.90
		4	198	4.90
		5	262	4.90
Big Five Personality	Lowest	1	185	2.40
		2	241	2.60
		3	304	2.70
		4	157	2.70
		5	137	2.70 ^g
	Highest	1	100	4.29
		2	36	4.28
		3	297	4.28
		4	34	4.19
		5	303	4.09
	Lowest	1	241	2.87
		2	304	2.88
		3	185	2.90
		4	192	2.92
		5	160	2.94

a. Only a partial list of cases with the value 4,88 are shown in the table of upper extremes.

b. Only a partial list of cases with the value 2,25 are shown in the table of lower extremes.

In Table 11, the upper and lower bands of each of the Big Five and sub-dimensions and the lowest and highest cases of these dimensions are summarized.

Table 11: Lower and upper limits of outliers (big five)

		Lower	Upper	Lowest Case value	Highest Case Value
Weighted	Extraversion	1.200	5.925	1,63	5.00
Average	Agreeableness	2.089	5.689	2,67	5.00
(Definition 1)	Conscientiousness	1.978	5.578	2.33	5.00
	EmotionalStability	0.256	5.150	1.00	4.75

OpennesstoExp	1.860	5.640	2.40	5.00
Big Five Personality	2.644	4.456	2.87	4.29

As can be seen in Table 11, the lowest and highest values of each sub-dimension remain within the given limits. Therefore, it is difficult to speak of any outliers of the Big Five scale and its sub-dimensions. Outleirs were also checked on the histogram graph (see appendix 3) and the findings were confirmed to confirm the values shown in table above.

3.5.3.2. Organizational Commitment (Outliers)

Table 12: Percentiles (organizational commitment)

		Percentiles						
		5	10	25	50	75	90	95
Weighted Average (Definition 1)	Affective	1.5000	1.9833	2.8333	3.5000	4.0000	4.3500	4.8333
	Continuance	1.8333	2.1667	2.5000	3.0000	3.3333	3.8333	4.1667
	Normative	1.3333	2.0000	2.5000	3.1667	3.6667	4.1667	4.5000
	Organizational Commitment	2.0000	2.3333	2.8333	3.1667	3.5139	3.8333	4.0556

Table 13: Calculation of lower and upper limits of outliers (organizational commitment)

				Difference between 75 and 25		Multiply with 2.2	Lower	Upper
		25	75					
Weighted Average (Definition 1)	Affective	2.8333	4.0000	1.167	2.567	0.267	6.567	
	Continuance	2.5000	3.3333	0.833	1.833	0.667	5.167	
	Normative	2.5000	3.6667	1.167	2.567	-0.067	6.234	
	Organizational Commitment	2.8333	3.5139	0.680	1.498	1.336	5.012	

Table 12 shows the percentiles of organizational commitment and Table 13 shows the lower and upper bands for Organizational Commitment. The Table 14 shows the data that receives the lowest and highest values for Organizational Commitment and the values it receives. In Table 15, the lower and upper band values calculated for Organizational Commitment and the values of the lowest and highest data are summarized.

Table 14: Extreme values (organizational commitment)

Case Number	Value
-------------	-------

Affective	Highest	1	33	5.00
		2	34	5.00
		3	43	5.00
		4	49	5.00
		5	149	5.00 ^a
	Lowest	1	316	1.00
		2	208	1.00
		3	181	1.00
		4	115	1.00
		5	37	1.00
Continuance	Highest	1	149	5.00
		2	162	5.00
		3	257	5.00
		4	66	4.67
		5	196	4.67
	Lowest	1	322	1.50
		2	206	1.50
		3	2	1.50
		4	326	1.67
		5	178	1.67 ^b
Normative	Highest	1	34	5.00
		2	43	5.00
		3	149	5.00
		4	176	5.00
		5	195	5.00 ^a
	Lowest	1	316	1.00
		2	305	1.00
		3	273	1.00
		4	209	1.00
		5	181	1.00 ^c
Organizational Commitment	Highest	1	149	5.00
		2	257	5.00
		3	195	4.67
		4	43	4.44
		5	242	4.44
	Lowest	1	181	1.33
		2	23	1.44
		3	316	1.61
		4	305	1.67
		5	120	1.67

a. Only a partial list of cases with the value 5,00 are shown in the table of upper extremes.

b. Only a partial list of cases with the value 1,67 are shown in the table of lower extremes.

Table 15: Lower and upper limits of outliers (organizational commitment)

		Lower	Upper	Lowest Case value	Highest Case Value
Weighted	Affective	0.267	6.567	1.00	5.00
Average	Continuance	0.667	5.167	1.50	5.00
(Definition 1)	Normative	- 0.067	6.234	1.00	5.00
	Organizational Commitment	1.336	5.012	1.33	5.00

As it can be seen in table above, it is between lower and upper values of the lowest and highest data values of organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions. Therefore, the problem of outliers does not appear on the basis of organizational commitment and sub-dimensions. In addition, histogram graphs were examined and observations were obtained supporting the above table (see appendix 3).

3.5.3.3. Stigmatization (Outliers)

Table 16: Percentiles (stigmatization)

		Percentiles						
		5	10	25	50	75	90	95
Weighted Average (Definition 1)	Discrimination	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.1667	1.6667	2.0000	2.3333
	Labeling	1.0000	1.0000	1.1667	1.6667	2.3333	2.8333	3.1667
	PsychologicalHealth	1.0000	1.0000	1.6000	2.2000	2.8500	3.4000	3.8000
	Prejudice	1.4000	1.8000	2.2000	2.8000	3.2875	3.8000	4.2000
	Stigmatization	1.2746	1.3908	1.6729	2.0917	2.4417	2.8258	2.9758

Table 17: Calculation of lower and upper limits of outliers (stigmatization)

		Difference between 75 and 25				Multiply with 2.2			
		25	75	Difference	Multiply	Lower	Upper		
Weighted Average (Definition 1)	Discrimination	1.0000	1.6667	0.667	1.467	-0.467	3.134		
	Labeling	1.1667	2.3333	1.167	2.567	-1.400	4.900		
	PsychologicalHealth	1.6000	2.8500	1.250	2.750	-1.150	5.600		
	Prejudice	2.2000	3.2875	1.088	2.393	-0.193	5.681		
	Stigmatization	1.6729	2.4417	0.769	1.691	-0.018	4.133		

Table 16 shows percentiles of each factors of stigmatization. In Table 17, lower and upper bands are calculated for stigmatization.

Table 18: Extreme values (stigmatization)

		Case Number		Value
Discrimination	Highest	1	110	4.00
		2	304	3.83
		3	99	3.50
		4	270	3.50
		5	60	3.00
	Lowest	1	337	1.00
		2	334	1.00
		3	332	1.00

		4	331	1.00
		5	326	1.00 ^a
Labeling	Highest	1	43	4.33
		2	110	4.00
		3	134	3.83
		4	271	3.83
		5	299	3.83
	Lowest	1	313	1.00
		2	307	1.00
		3	306	1.00
		4	298	1.00
		5	297	1.00 ^a
Psychological Health	Highest	1	326	5.00
		2	288	4.60
		3	168	4.40
		4	305	4.40
		5	59	4.20 ^b
	Lowest	1	337	1.00
		2	331	1.00
		3	312	1.00
		4	293	1.00
		5	291	1.00 ^a
Prejudice	Highest	1	305	4.80
		2	43	4.60
		3	209	4.60
		4	254	4.60
		5	303	4.60
	Lowest	1	286	1.00
		2	272	1.00
		3	243	1.00
		4	198	1.00
		5	186	1.00 ^a
Stigmatization	Highest	1	110	4.00
		2	305	3.59
		3	43	3.38
		4	326	3.37
		5	276	3.21
	Lowest	1	286	1.00
		2	272	1.00
		3	186	1.00
		4	154	1.00
		5	65	1.00

a. Only a partial list of cases with the value 1,00 are shown in the table of lower extremes.

b. Only a partial list of cases with the value 4,20 are shown in the table of upper extremes.

In Table 19, the lower and upper limits values calculated for the stigmatization and the values of the lowest and highest data are summarized.

Table 19: Lower and upper limits of outliers (stigmatization)

		Lower	Upper	Lowest Case value	Highest Case Value
Weighted Average (Definition 1)	Discrimination	-0.467	3.134	1.00	4.00
	Labeling	-1.400	4.900	1.00	4.33
	PsychologicalHealth	-1.150	5.600	1.00	5.00
	Prejudice	-0.193	5.681	1.00	4.80
	Stigmatization	-0.018	4.133	1.00	4.00

As it can be seen, the lower value of the discrimination sub-dimension is -0.467 and the upper value is 3.134. In other words, the values should be between these two values in order not to evaluate any data as outliers. However, when we look at the table of extreme values (Table 18), it is seen that the values of the surveys 110, 304, 99, 270 are 4.00, 3.83, 3.50, 3.50 respectively. These values are outliers since the maximum value of the discrimination sub-dimension is greater than 3.134. Therefore, these surveys should be excluded from the analysis. Histograms graphs were also examined to make sure the outliers questionnaires (see appendix 3). In the future hypothesis analysis, four questionnaire were deleted from the dataset in order not to compromise the reliability of the analyzes and was not included in the analyzes.

3.5.4. Normality Tests

In order to use parametric tests, the scales must have normal distribution. Therefore, normality test was applied to each scale separately and the results were discussed. The normality analysis can look at many different variables. One of them is Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Shapiro-Wilk values. It is decided which value to be referenced according to the sample size. According to the common opinion, if the sample size is over 200, it is recommended to take Kolmogorov-Smirnov value as a reference. Both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk values should be considered when interpreting these values. The fact that these values are less than 0.05 meaning that the data distribution is significant indicates that the data are not normally distributed. If this value is greater than 0.05, then we can say that the data has a normal distribution.

Another approach is to look at Skewness and Kurtosis values. Some researchers found that Skewness and Kurtosis values were between -1 and +1 (422), some were between -1.5 and +1.5 (423), and some were between -2 and +2 (424) have recommended. In addition, it is stated that Skewness and Kurtosis values should be divided into Std Error and the value should be between -1.96 and +1.96 according to another widely accepted approach.

Another criterion used in the normality test is the approach regarding the difference between 5% Trimmed Mean and Mean. Accordingly, the closer these two mean values are, the higher the normal distribution of the scales can be said. Widening the difference between these two values both disrupts the normal distribution and indicates that there are serious outliers on the analyzed scale.

The Big Five Personality, Organizational Commitment and Stigmatization scales used in the thesis were examined one by one according to the above information and interpreted whether the data showed normal distribution.

3.5.4.1. Big Five Personality

Table 20: Descriptives (big five)

		Statistic	Std. Error	
Extraversion	Mean	3.5666	.03446	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.4988	
		Upper Bound	3.6344	
	5% Trimmed Mean	3.5721		
	Median	3.6250		
	Variance	.397		
	Std. Deviation	.62972		
	Minimum	1.63		
	Maximum	5.00		
	Range	3.38		
	Interquartile Range	.88		
	Skewness	-.229	.133	
	Kurtosis	-.202	.266	
Agreeableness	Mean	3.9043	.02481	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.8555	
		Upper Bound	3.9531	
	5% Trimmed Mean	3.9108		
	Median	3.8889		
	Variance	.206		
	Std. Deviation	.45335		
	Minimum	2.67		
	Maximum	5.00		
	Range	2.33		
	Interquartile Range	.67		
	Skewness	-.126	.133	
	Kurtosis	-.383	.266	
Conscientiousness	Mean	3.7873	.03088	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.7266	
		Upper Bound	3.8480	
	5% Trimmed Mean	3.7898		
	Median	3.7778		
	Variance	.318		
	Std. Deviation	.56435		
	Minimum	2.33		
	Maximum	5.00		
	Range	2.67		
	Interquartile Range	.67		
	Skewness	-.085	.133	
	Kurtosis	-.360	.266	
Emotional Stability	Mean	2.6984	.03726	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.6251	
		Upper Bound	2.7717	
	5% Trimmed Mean	2.6930		
	Median	2.7500		
Variance	.464			

Table 20: (Continued)

	Std. Deviation		.68103	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		4.75	
	Range		3.75	
	Interquartile Range		.88	
	Skewness		.114	.133
	Kurtosis		.079	.266
Openness to Experience	Mean		3.7759	.02617
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.7245	
		Upper Bound	3.8274	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.7769	
	Median		3.8000	
	Variance		.229	
	Std. Deviation		.47821	
	Minimum		2.40	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.60	
	Interquartile Range		.70	
	Skewness		-.021	.133
	Kurtosis		-.234	.266

Table 21: Tests of normality (big five)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Extraversion	.085	334	.000	.988	334	.007
Agreeableness	.067	334	.001	.989	334	.012
Conscientiousness	.062	334	.003	.990	334	.029
Emotional Stability	.049	334	.048	.993	334	.111
Openness to Experience	.060	334	.006	.994	334	.199

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

According to the normality analysis results of Big Five Personality scale, which is given in Table 21, Kolmogorov-Smirnov significant value was found to be 0.00 for extraversion, 0.001 for agreeableness, 0.003 for conscientiousness, 0.048 for emotional stability and 0.006 for openness to experiences. Since this significant values are less than 0.05, we can say that the data is not suitable for normal distribution. However, Skewness and Kurtosis values to check whether data has normal distribution. Considering Skewness and Kurtosis values, we see that Skewness values and Kurtosis values of each big five factors are given in Table 20. Since both values of each factors are between -1 and +1, we can say that they are suitable for normal distribution. In addition, all values of each factors' obtained by dividing the Skewness value to Std error and all values of each factors' obtained by dividing Kurtosis / Std error are between -1.96 and +1.96. This approach can also be said as evidence of normal distribution of data. Furthermore, when we look at the Mean and 5% Trimmed Mean values of the each factors of big five personality, we see that the difference between mean value and the 5% Trimmed Mean value is not big. The fact that both values are very close to each other indicates that the data shows normal distribution.

3.5.4.2. Organizational Commitment

Table 22: Descriptives (organizational commitment)

			Statistic	Std. Error
Organizational Commitment	Mean		3.1367	.03277
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.0722	
		Upper Bound	3.2011	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.1451	
	Median		3.1667	
	Variance		.359	
	Std. Deviation		.59884	
	Minimum		1.33	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		3.67	
	Interquartile Range		.68	
	Skewness		-.238	.133
	Kurtosis		.499	.266

Table 23: Tests of normality (organizational commitment)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Organizational Commitment	.085	334	.000	.987	334	.005

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

According to the normality analysis results of the Organizational Commitment scale, which is given in Table 23, Kolmogorov-Smirnov significant value was found to be 0.000. Since this significant value is less than 0.05, we find that the data are not suitable for normal distribution. However, it was checked with Skewness and Kurtosis values to ensure that it was suitable for normal distribution.

According to another widely used approach recently (422), Skewness and Kurtosis values are taken into consideration. Table 22 shows that organizational commitment's Skewness value is -0.238 and Kurtosis value is 0.499. Since both values are between -1 and +1, we can say that they are suitable for normal distribution. In addition, the value obtained by dividing the Skewness value to Std error has the value of Skewness / Std error of -1.79 and Kurtosis / Std error of 1.88. This approach can also be said as evidence of normal distribution of data. Furthermore, when we look at the Mean and 5% Trimmed Mean values of the scale, we see that the Mean value is 3,2011 and the 5% Trimmed Mean is 3,1451. The fact that both values are very close to each other indicates that the data shows normal distribution. As a result of the above data, we can say that the scale is suitable for normal distribution. Therefore, parametric tests were used to test hypotheses.

3.5.4.3. Stigmatization

Table 24: Descriptives (stigmatization)

		Statistic	Std. Error
Stigmatization	Mean	2.0749	.02865
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		
	Lower Bound	2.0185	
	Upper Bound	2.1312	
	5% Trimmed Mean	2.0685	
	Median	2.0833	
	Variance	.274	
	Std. Deviation	.52357	
	Minimum	1.00	
	Maximum	3.59	
	Range	2.59	
	Interquartile Range	.76	
	Skewness	.135	.133
	Kurtosis	-.531	.266

Table 25: Tests of normality (stigmatization)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Stigmatization	.049	334	.055	.990	334	.021

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

According to the normality analysis results of the stigmatization scale, which is given in Table 25, Kolmogorov-Smirnov significant value was found to be 0.055. Since this significant value is greater than 0.05, we find that the data is suitable for normal distribution. Skewness and Kurtosis values also checked to ensure whether they were suitable for normal distribution.

Considering the values of Skewness and Kurtosis, we see that Skewness value is 0.135 and Kurtosis value is -0.531 in Table 24. Since both values are between -1 and +1, we can say that they are suitable for normal distribution. In addition, the value of Skewness, Std error divided by the value obtained by the Skewness / Std error. 1.015, Kurtosis / Std error has the value of -1.99. This approach can also be said as evidence of normal distribution of data.

In addition, when we look at the Mean and 5% Trimmed Mean values of the scale, we see that Mean is 2.1312 and 5% Trimmed Mean is 2.0685. The fact that both values are very close to each other indicates that the data shows normal distribution.

3.6. Reliability Analysis

3.6.1. Big Five Personality

The reliability analysis of the scales was performed and it was found to be reliable in all three scales. Values for reliability analysis are given in table below.

Table 26: Reliability statistics (big five)

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Extraversion	.783	.786	8
Agreeableness	.608	.622	9
Conscientiousness	.786	.799	9
Emotional Stability	.808	.809	8
Openness to Experience	.715	.733	10
Big Five Personality	.714	.759	44

According to the Table 26, when we examine the Big Five scale, it is above 0.60 level of all values on the basis of sub-dimensions. According to the general approach in the literature, Cronbach's Alpha above 0.60 indicates that the scale is reliable. When the Big

Five Personality scale was evaluated with all sub-dimensions, namely 44 items, Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0.714. This value indicates that the scale is reliable. When other studies in the literature are examined, it is seen that the sub-dimensions of the Big Five Personality scale have values between 0.64 and 0.77 (425), and between 0.67 and 0.83 (426). Therefore, the reliability analysis results of the scale are similar to the results in the literature.

3.6.2. Organizational Commitment

Reliability analysis results of Organizational Commitment and its sub-factors are given in Table 27.

Table 27: Reliability statistics (organizational commitment)

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Affective Commitment	.927	.927	6
Continuance Commitment	.600	.576	6
Normative Commitment	.854	.854	6
Organizational Commitment	.846	.853	18

When we examine the whole Organizational Commitment scale and its sub-dimensions, it is seen that the whole scale has a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.854 and high reliability. However, when examined on a substance basis, the reliability of continuance commitment compared to other sub-dimensions is low. When we examine Continuance commitment on an expression basis to understand the reason for this, we see that the item 7 decreases the reliability and if it is deleted, Cronbach's Alpha value will increase to .714 level (Table 28). Exploratory factor analysis was also found to be a problematic item and was excluded from the analysis.

Table 28: Item-total statistics (organizational commitment)

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
C7	13.994	16.320	-.168	.135	.714
C8	15.166	11.009	.433	.216	.511
C9	15.078	11.825	.312	.362	.566
C10	15.157	10.217	.600	.427	.437
C11	15.352	11.866	.364	.175	.544
C12	14.831	10.564	.508	.304	.476

3.6.3. Stigmatization

Reliability analysis results of Stigmatization and its sub-factors are given in Table 29.

Table 29: Reliability statistics (stigmatization)

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Discrimination	.687	.713	6
Labeling	.737	.744	6
Psychological Health	.819	.822	5
Prejudice	.656	.657	5
Stigmatization	.852	.855	22

When we examine the Stigmatization scale, Cronbach's Alpha is above 0.60 level of all values on the basis of sub-dimensions and indicates that the scale is reliable. When the Big Five Personality scale was evaluated with all sub-dimensions, namely 22 items, Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0.852. This value indicates that the scale is reliable.

3.7. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is applied to the scales to check whether the data showed similar distribution to the original scale. Factor analysis has been performed for each scale separately. The aim of exploratory factor analysis is to reduce the number of factors and to measure the same concept with fewer factors and fewer items. In addition, the questionnaire was also validated and the compatibility of the scale with the data of the researcher was tested. In this direction, exploratory factor analyzes of the scales were performed individually and problematic items were removed from the data set.

3.7.1. EFA for Big Five Personality Scale

Table 30: Kmo and bartlett's test (big five)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.829
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4928.576
	df	946
	Sig.	.000

Table 31: Total variance explained (big five)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7.623	17.324	17.324	7.623	17.324	17.324	5.154
2	3.432	7.800	25.124	3.432	7.800	25.124	4.757
3	2.661	6.048	31.172	2.661	6.048	31.172	4.254
4	2.578	5.860	37.032	2.578	5.860	37.032	3.195
5	2.036	4.628	41.660	2.036	4.628	41.660	3.594
6	1.875	4.262	45.922				
7	1.528	3.472	49.394				
8	1.427	3.244	52.638				
9	1.203	2.733	55.371				
10	1.072	2.436	57.808				
11	1.019	2.315	60.123				
12	1.010	2.295	62.417				
13	.971	2.207	64.624				
14	.905	2.058	66.682				
15	.812	1.846	68.528				
16	.795	1.806	70.334				
17	.761	1.730	72.064				
18	.750	1.705	73.770				
19	.675	1.535	75.305				
20	.659	1.499	76.803				
21	.636	1.446	78.249				
22	.597	1.356	79.605				
23	.568	1.291	80.896				
24	.563	1.279	82.175				
25	.540	1.227	83.402				
26	.533	1.212	84.614				
27	.511	1.161	85.775				
28	.491	1.116	86.891				
29	.490	1.113	88.004				
30	.472	1.072	89.076				
31	.455	1.033	90.109				
32	.440	1.001	91.110				
33	.419	.952	92.062				
34	.406	.923	92.985				
35	.396	.900	93.885				
36	.372	.845	94.730				
37	.336	.763	95.493				
38	.334	.759	96.252				
39	.312	.708	96.960				
40	.305	.694	97.654				
41	.281	.639	98.292				
42	.279	.634	98.927				
43	.256	.581	99.507				
44	.217	.493	100.000				

According to Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test results, which is given in Table 30, KMO value of Big Five Personality scale was calculated as 0.829 and significant value was calculated as 0.000. In the literature, the value accepted as KMO value above 0.70 indicates that the scale is suitable for factor analysis.

Table 32: Pattern matrix^a (big five)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
K28	.765				
K23	.710				
K38	.693				
K33	.688				
K3	.617				
K5	.420				
K15	.419				
K8	.393	-.318			
K13	.367				.364
K18	.356	-.351		.310	
K40					
K19		.690			
K29		.663			
K39		.605			-.348
K24		.595			
K4		.574			
K9		.546			
K14		.530			-.391
K43	.474	-.491			
K34		.458			
K2		-.449	.336		
K37		-.364			.338
K21			-.699		
K1			-.661		
K6			-.653		
K16			-.493		
K31		-.363	-.484		
K11			-.429		.306
K12			.418		
K26	.305		-.377		
K35					
K30				-.704	
K44				-.630	
K41				-.611	
K10				-.458	
K25	.344		-.362	-.433	
K20				-.396	
K17					.630
K32					.533
K36			-.397		.533
K27			-.368	.333	.501
K22					.476
K7					.440
K42					.392

According to the Table 31, Total Variance Explained of Big Five Personality scale, it is seen that the data set has 12 factors with Eigenvalues value 1 and above. The 12-factor structure explains 62% of the total variance. However, since the original version of the scale has five factors, it is limited to five dimensions when performing extraction. In Table 32, we see the distribution of the items to the factors and the distribution of the factors to which factors. The substances and the factors they represent are as follows.

Extraversion: 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36

Agreeableness: 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, 42

Conscientiousness: 3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, 43

Emotional Stability: 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39

Openness to Experience: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 41, 44

Direct Oblimum was selected as the extraction method. The reason for this is the high level of relationship between the factors. If we expect a relationship between the factors, then the Direct Oblimum method is advised. to be used.

When the factor distributions are examined, it is seen that extraversion is between 0.377 and 0.699; agreeableness is between 0.392 and 0.699; conscientiousness is between 0.356 and 0.765; emotional stability is between 0.458 and 0.690; and openness to experience is between 0.396 and 0.704.

When the table is examined carefully, it will be seen that the items of scale 2, 5, 10, 12, 13, 15, 20, 25, 27, 35, 37, 40, 42 are not listed under the factors of the original. Although some of these items are listed where they should be, they seem to put loads equal or very close to different factors. Therefore, these substances were removed from the analysis one by one, each time the analysis was repeated and the final version was as follows.

Table 33: Kmo and bartlett's test (big five)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.820
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3175.672
	df	465
	Sig.	.000

Table 34: Total variance explained (big five)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	6.102	19.684	19.684	6.102	19.684	19.684	4.232
2	2.609	8.417	28.100	2.609	8.417	28.100	4.019
3	2.330	7.516	35.616	2.330	7.516	35.616	2.446
4	2.175	7.017	42.633	2.175	7.017	42.633	3.886
5	1.830	5.904	48.537	1.830	5.904	48.537	2.305
6	1.339	4.320	52.857				
7	1.112	3.586	56.442				
8	1.015	3.275	59.717				
9	.910	2.935	62.651				
10	.867	2.797	65.448				
11	.837	2.699	68.147				
12	.742	2.393	70.541				
13	.704	2.270	72.810				
14	.700	2.257	75.067				
15	.635	2.047	77.115				
16	.595	1.919	79.033				
17	.590	1.902	80.935				
18	.576	1.859	82.794				
19	.545	1.758	84.552				
20	.530	1.711	86.263				
21	.516	1.663	87.927				
22	.495	1.598	89.525				
23	.480	1.550	91.074				
24	.441	1.424	92.498				
25	.390	1.259	93.757				
26	.361	1.165	94.922				
27	.356	1.148	96.070				
28	.330	1.066	97.136				
29	.325	1.048	98.185				
30	.304	.981	99.165				
31	.259	.835	100.000				

According to the Table 33, KMO value was found to be 0.820 after removal of these substances. Table 34 shows that, the scale, which was initially divided into 12 factors, decreased to eight after removing the problematic items. However, it was forced to five factors when re-extraction. The five-factor structure explained 48.537% of the total variance. As a result, the distribution of the items to the factors was as follows.

Table 35: Pattern matrix^a (big five)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
K19	-.699				
K39	-.659				
K29	-.629				
K14	-.626				
K9	-.595				
K4	-.587				
K24	-.582				
K34	-.521				
K23		.754			
K28		.752			
K38		.705			
K33		.658			
K43		.563			
K3		.513			
K18		.484			
K8		.457			
K30			.832		
K44			.805		
K41			.801		
K1				.747	
K6				.689	
K21				.679	
K16				.570	
K31				.536	
K11				.536	
K26				.492	
K36				.477	
K17					-.668
K22					-.547
K32					-.546
K7					-.377

When we look at the distribution of the factors according to the Matrix table, which is given in Table 35, the factor loads of Extraversion dimension items are between 0.477 and 0.747; the factor loads of agreeableness dimension are between 0.377 and 0.6668; the conscientiousness items factor loads are between 0.457 and 0.754; the openness to experience items are between 0.601 and 0.801; emotional stability items vary between 0.521 and 0.699.

3.7.2. EFA for Organizational Commitment Scale

There are 18 items and three factors on Organizational Commitment scale. Each factor is represented by six items. The factors and the substances of these factors are as follows:

Affective Commitment: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

Continuance Commitment: 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12

Normative Commitment: 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18

Since the names of the expressions are very long, they are coded as C1, C2, ... so that they will be more comfortable in the analyzes. The names of the substances are given in the questionnaire in the appendix 3. The KMO and Bartlett's test of the Organizational Commitment Scale are given in Table 36.

Table 36: Kmo and bartlett's test (organizational commitment)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.913
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3323.535
	df	153
	Sig.	.000

Table 37: Total variance explained (organizational commitment)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7.267	40.374	40.374	7.267	40.374	40.374	6.714
2	2.699	14.994	55.369	2.699	14.994	55.369	2.637
3	1.248	6.935	62.304	1.248	6.935	62.304	4.886
4	.788	4.380	66.684				
5	.734	4.075	70.760				
6	.676	3.755	74.514				
7	.618	3.436	77.950				
8	.583	3.237	81.187				
9	.543	3.014	84.201				
10	.484	2.690	86.891				
11	.440	2.442	89.333				
12	.384	2.136	91.469				
13	.370	2.055	93.523				
14	.315	1.750	95.273				
15	.286	1.587	96.860				
16	.250	1.390	98.249				
17	.193	1.072	99.321				
18	.122	.679	100.000				

Accordingly, KMO value was found to be 0.913 and statistically significant. It shows that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Table 37 is the variance table.

According to Total Variance Explained table, when factor analysis is performed without any factor restriction, it is seen that the scale has a three-factor structure as in the original. The three-factor structure explains 62,304% of the total variance.

When the distribution of the factors was examined, Table 38 is obtained:

Table 38: Pattern matrix^a (organizational commitment)

	Component		
	1	2	3
C2	.892		
C4	.880		
C5	.868		
C7	.820		
C3	.802		
C1	.734		
C6	.725		
C10		.806	
C12		.764	
C8		.666	
C9		.575	
C11		.544	
C14			-.923
C15			-.758
C17			-.718
C13			-.708
C16			-.414
C18			-.378

When we look at the table above, we can see that the factors and the substances belong to are distributed correctly. Only the 7th item should be in Column 2, but it is listed below the factor in Column 1. The 7th item is ‘It is important to me where my institution will be in the future te and it seems problematic. This substance, which belongs to continuance commitment, was collected under affective commitment. Therefore, item 7 has been deleted from the data set for more accurate and reliable analysis. This deleted item was not used in all hypothesis theses that were used in all analyzes performed thereafter.

Table 39: Kmo and bartlett's test (organizational commitment)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.909
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3140.148
	df	136
	Sig.	.000

Table 39 shows that after removal of item 7, factor analysis was repeated and KMO value was found to be 0.909 and statistically significant ($p = .00$). When we look at the factors and the factors loaded the items, Table 40 is obtained.

Table 40: Rotated component matrix^a (organizational commitment)

	Component		
	1	2	3
C4	.876		
C5	.873		
C3	.839		
C2	.819		
C1	.753		
C6	.736		
C16		.510	
C18		.474	
C14		.849	
C15		.720	
C17		.714	
C13		.702	
C10			.793
C12			.757
C8			.665
C9			.585
C11			.545

As can be seen in Table 40, the scale is divided into three factors and the items that are required to be in each factor are collected under that factor. When we look at the distribution load of the factors affective commitment in between 0.736 and 0.876; continuance commitment in between 0.545 and 0.793; and normative commitment in between 0.510 and 0.702 shows.

3.7.3. EFA for Stigmatization

Finally, factor analysis was performed on the stigmatization scale. KMO and Bartlett's test results are given in Table 41.

Table 41: Kmo and bartlett's test (stigmatization)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.839
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2391.620
	df	231

According to KMO and Bartlett's test results, KMO value of the scale was found to be 0.839 and statistically significant. These values indicate that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. The variance values is given in Table 42.

Table 42: Total variance explained (stigmatization)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.814	26.427	26.427	5.814	26.427	26.427	5.042
2	2.380	10.819	37.246	2.380	10.819	37.246	3.298
3	1.607	7.306	44.551	1.607	7.306	44.551	2.785
4	1.299	5.904	50.455	1.299	5.904	50.455	1.761
5	1.146	5.207	55.662				
6	.971	4.413	60.075				
7	.902	4.098	64.173				
8	.857	3.894	68.067				
9	.791	3.597	71.664				
10	.731	3.321	74.985				
11	.688	3.128	78.113				
12	.668	3.038	81.151				
13	.624	2.837	83.987				
14	.546	2.482	86.469				
15	.507	2.306	88.776				
16	.445	2.023	90.799				
17	.441	2.004	92.803				
18	.401	1.822	94.625				
19	.369	1.676	96.301				
20	.318	1.446	97.747				
21	.282	1.280	99.027				
22	.214	.973	100.000				

According to the Total Variance Explained table, it is seen that the scale is grouped under five factors when the analysis is performed without factor extraction limitation. However, because the original scale had four factors and the four-factor structure in the data set explained 50.455% of the total variance, the scale was forced to four factors and extracted. The factors and items of the stigmatization scale are as follows:

Discrimination: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

Labeling: 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12

Psychological Health: 13, 14, 15, 16, 17

Prejudice: 18, 19, 20, 21, 22

Since the names of the items are very long, the items are coded as D1, D2, etc both for ease of analysis and to make the tables look clearer. Expansions of the substances are given in the appendix 3.

When we look at the factors and the distribution of the items in the factor analysis results, the Table 43 is obtained.

Table 43: Rotated component matrix^a (stigmatization)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
D12	.700			
D8	.628		.339	
D14	.610		.379	
D7	.571	.395		
D10	.515			
D11	.496	.323		
D9	.376			
D6		.334		
D2		.719		
D3		.717		
D5		.695		
D4		.631		
D1		.538		
D17			.855	
D16			.851	
D15			.508	
D13			.451	
D18	.395		.444	
D20				.693
D22				.688
D19				.681
D21				.481

In table above, it is seen that 14th and 18th items of Pschological Health are problematic. These items were deleted from the data set and the analysis was repeated.

Table 44: Kmo and bartlett's test (stigmatization)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.815
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1939.695
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

After the 14th and 18th items were excluded from the analysis, the analysis was repeated with the remaining 20 items. Table 44 shows KMO value was calculated as 0.815.

Table 45: Total variance explained (stigmatization)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.050	25.251	25.251	5.050	25.251	25.251	3.275	16.377	16.377
2	2.249	11.247	36.498	2.249	11.247	36.498	2.704	13.520	29.896
3	1.586	7.931	44.429	1.586	7.931	44.429	2.262	11.308	41.204
4	1.286	6.428	50.857	1.286	6.428	50.857	1.931	9.653	50.857
5	1.096	5.481	56.338						
6	.942	4.708	61.047						
7	.870	4.350	65.397						
8	.830	4.151	69.548						
9	.751	3.756	73.304						
10	.722	3.610	76.914						
11	.673	3.367	80.281						
12	.613	3.064	83.345						
13	.600	3.000	86.345						
14	.501	2.507	88.853						
15	.467	2.336	91.188						
16	.444	2.220	93.408						
17	.397	1.985	95.393						
18	.380	1.900	97.293						
19	.319	1.595	98.888						
20	.222	1.112	100.000						

According to the Total Variance Explained, which is given in Table 45, it explains 50.857% of the total variance of the four-factor structure.

Table 46: Rotated component matrix^a (stigmatization)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
D12	.733			
D8	.694			
D7	.627			
D10	.554			
D11	.478			
D9	.372			
D2		.730		
D3		.716		
D5		.696		
D4		.616		
D1		.556		
D6		.329		

D22			.694	
D20			.693	
D19			.686	
D21			.487	
D17				.838
D16				.832
D15				.396
D13				.352

When we look at the items according to the Matrix table, which is given in Table 46, it is observed that factor loads of discrimination items vary between 0.329 and 0.730; factor loads of labeling items range between 0.372 and 0.733; factor loads of psychological health items vary between 0.352 and 0.838; and factor loads of prejudice items vary between 0.487 and 0.694.

3.8. Research Model and Hypotheses

In many articles examining the relationship between discrimination and organizational commitment, researchers have found that discrimination is negatively correlated with all positive outcomes associated with the organization. The positive effect of organizational image on organizational identification was further strengthened in the case of low level discrimination. In cases where discrimination is high, the organizational image, which means how the organization looks from outside, has no significant effect on organizational identification (431). In a study in which Protestant clergy in Hong Kong was selected as a sample, it was found that gender had a moderating effect in the relationship between gender discrimination and organizational commitment. According to the results of regression analysis, justice and discrimination thought are closely related to business behavior (432). In their study of 349 civil servants, Olori and Confort examined the relationship between discrimination in the workplace and organizational commitment. According to the results of the analysis, they found a significant but negative relationship between discrimination in the workplace and organizational commitment. They stated that in order to increase employee loyalty, all forms of discrimination should be reduced (433). Messarra examined the effect of religious discrimination on the organizational commitment of employees in Lebanese firms and concluded that religious discrimination adversely affected the organizational commitment of employees (434). Discrimination does not only negatively affect the organizational results such as job satisfaction, job performance, intention to quit, but also the psychological status of the employees. In their meta-analysis, Pascoe and Richman found

that perceived discrimination harms employees' physical and mental health (435). In a study conducted on banking workers, the partial mediating effect of job stress was found in the relationship between gender discrimination and organizational commitment (436). Barak, Cherin and Berkman called on researchers to point out the importance of investigating the perception of discrimination and how this perception affects work behavior (437). Considering the call made here, the following models and hypotheses have been developed.

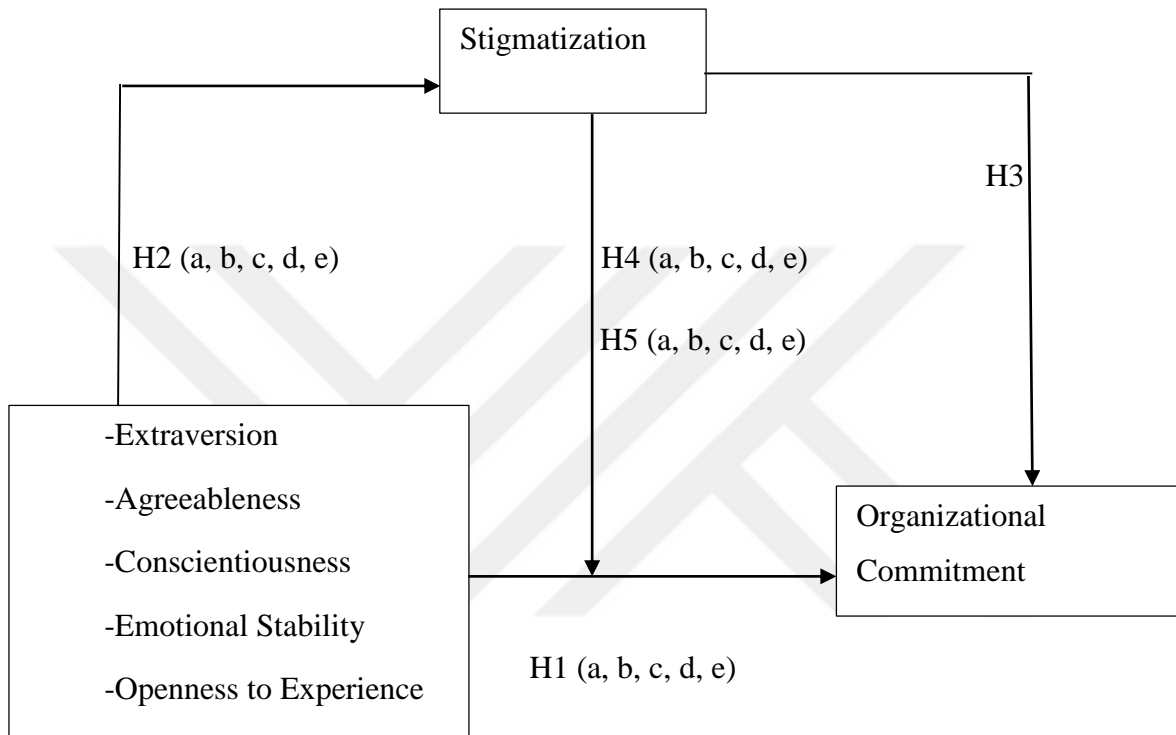


Figure 5: Research model 1

H1a: There is a significant relationship between extraversion and organizational commitment.

H1b: There is a significant relationship between agreeableness and organizational commitment.

H1c: There is a significant relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment.

H1d: There is a significant relationship between emotional stability and organizational commitment.

H1e: There is a significant relationship between openness to experience and organizational commitment.

H2a: There is a significant relationship between extraversion and tendency of stigmatization.

H2b: There is a significant relationship between agreeableness and tendency of stigmatization.

H2c: There is a significant relationship between conscientiousness and tendency of stigmatization.

H2d: There is a significant relationship between emotional stability and tendency of stigmatization.

H2e: There is a significant relationship between openness to experience and tendency of stigmatization.

H3: There is a significant relationship between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H4a: There is a mediating effect of tendency of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment.

H4b: There is a mediating effect of tendency of stigmatization between agreeableness and organizational commitment.

H4c: There is a mediating effect of tendency of stigmatization conscientiousness between and organizational commitment.

H4d: There is a mediating effect of stigmatization between emotional stability and organizational commitment.

H4e: There is a mediating effect of stigmatization between openness to experience and organizational commitment.

H5a: There is a moderating effect of tendency of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment.

H5b: There is a moderating effect of tendency of stigmatization between agreeableness and organizational commitment.

H5c: There is a moderating effect of tendency of stigmatization conscientiousness between and organizational commitment.

H5d: There is a moderating effect of stigmatization between emotional stability and organizational commitment.

H5e: There is a moderating effect of stigmatization between openness to experience and organizational commitment.

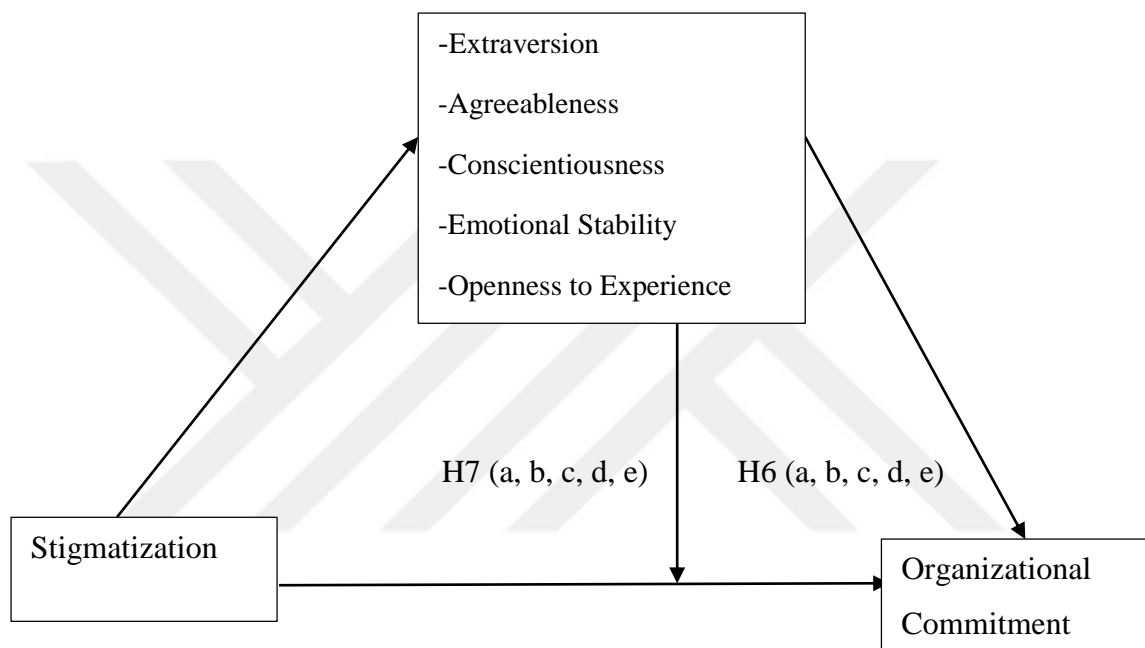


Figure 6: Research model 2

H6a: There is a moderating effect of extraversion between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H6b: There is a moderating effect of agreeableness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H6c: There is a moderating effect of conscientiousness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H6d: There is a moderating effect of emotional stability between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H6e: There is a moderating effect of openness to experience between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H7a: There is a mediating effect of extraversion between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H7b: There is a mediating effect of agreeableness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H7c: There is a mediating effect of conscientiousness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H7d: There is a mediating effect of emotional stability between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

H7e: There is a mediating effect of openness to experience between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Demographic Information

Findings of demographic information are given in table below. Table 47 shows that there are 334 samples who includes in the analysis. There are no missing values for all variables.

Table 47: Findings of demographic information

		Statistics							
		Gender	Age	Education	Marital Status	University	Department	Title	Working Years at University
N	Valid	334	334	334	334	334	334	334	334
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 48: Frequencies of demographic information

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Men	183	54.8	54.8	54.8
	Women	151	45.2	45.2	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	
Age	Up to 30's	66	19.8	19.8	19.8
	31 to 35	110	32.9	32.9	52.7
	36 to 40	72	21.6	21.6	74.3
	41 to 45	35	10.5	10.5	84.7
	46 to 50	23	6.9	6.9	91.6
	51 and above	28	8.4	8.4	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	
Education	Undergraduate	15	4.5	4.5	4.5
	Master's	81	24.3	24.3	28.7
	PhD	238	71.3	71.3	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	
University	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	32.6	32.6	32.6
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	67.4	67.4	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	
Department	Schools	29	8.7	8.7	8.7
	Vocational Schools	47	14.1	14.1	22.8
	Faculty	254	76.0	76.0	98.8
	Other	4	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	
Title	Research Assistant	100	29.9	29.9	29.9
	Lecturer	68	20.4	20.4	50.3
	Assistant Professor	98	29.3	29.3	79.6
	Associate Professor	39	11.7	11.7	91.3
	Professor	27	8.1	8.1	99.4
	Other	2	.6	.6	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	
Experience	Up to 5 years	147	44.0	44.0	44.0
	6 to 10 years	119	35.6	35.6	79.6
	11 to 15 years	22	6.6	6.6	86.2
	16 to 20 years	17	5.1	5.1	91.3
	21 to 25 years	18	5.4	5.4	96.7
	26 years and above	11	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	334	100.0	100.0	

Table 48: (Continued)

According to the Table 48, There are 183 men, and 151 women who filled out the questionnaire. 66 academicians' age is up to 30's years, 110 academicians are 31 to 35 years old, 72 academicians are 36 to 40 years old. 35 academicians are 41 to 45 years old. 23 academicians are 46 to 50 years old. 28 academicians are above 51 years old. 238 out of 334 academicians have PhD, 81 out of 234 academicians Master's degree, 15 out of 234 academicians have undergraduate. 245 out of 234 academicians are married and 89 out of 234 academicians are single. The sample consists of 109 academicians from Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University and 225 academicians from Kırşehir Ahi Evran University. Academicians who work at schools are 29 people, who work at vocational schools are 47 people, who work at faculty are 254 people, and who work for other are four people. 100 academicians work as Research Assistant, 68 academicians work as Lecturer, 98 academicians work as Assistant Professor, 39 academicians work as Associate Professor, two academicians work as other. Since both university are newly establishes, 147 academicians work at their university less than five years, 119 academicians work for six to ten years. 22 academicians work for 11 to 15 years, 17 academicians work for 16 to 20 years, 18 academicians work for 21 to 25 years, 11 academicians work for 26 years and above.

Table 49: Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Extraversion	334	1.63	5.00	3.5666	.62972
Agreeableness	334	2.00	5.00	4.0546	.51059
Conscientiousness	334	2.13	5.00	3.7068	.60858
Emotional Stability	334	1.00	4.75	2.6984	.68103
Openness to Experience	334	1.00	5.00	3.4251	.93725
Affective	334	1.00	5.00	3.3408	.92667
Continuance	334	1.00	5.00	2.8030	.80828
Normative	334	1.00	5.00	3.0779	.88914
Discrimination	334	1.00	3.00	1.3917	.44613
Labeling	334	1.00	4.33	1.8328	.71034
PscHealth	334	1.00	5.00	2.3466	.90369
Table 49: (Continued)					
Prejudice	334	1.00	5.00	2.8615	.82593
Big Five	334	2.62	4.38	3.4903	.29737
Organizational Commitment	334	1.40	5.00	3.0739	.58385
Stigmatization	334	1.00	3.60	2.1082	.51709
Valid N (listwise)	334				

In Table 49, there are descriptive statistics of factors and overall scales which have been used in this study. It shows minimum, maximum, mean and std. deviation value for all factors.

4.2. Independent T-Tests

4.2.1. T-Test Between Gender and Organizational Commitment

Table 50: Group statistics of gender and organizational commitment

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Affective Commitment	Men	183	3.4599	.86315	.06381
	Women	151	3.1965	.98189	.07990
Continuance Commitment	Men	183	2.7858	.79006	.05840
	Women	151	2.8238	.83200	.06771
Normative Commitment	Men	183	3.1453	.85058	.06288
	Women	151	2.9962	.93006	.07569
Organizational Commitment	Men	183	3.1303	.55955	.04136
	Women	151	3.0055	.60686	.04939

According to the Table 50, where group statistics are given, the mean of affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and organizational commitment of males is 3.46, 2.79, 3.15, 3.13, respectively. These values are 3.20, 2.82, 3.00, 3.01 for women, respectively.

Table 51: Independent samples test of organizational commitment and gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper	
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	2.690	.102	2.608	332	.010	.26346	.10100	.06477	.46214	
	Equal variances not assumed			2.577	301.311	.010	.26346	.10225	.06224	.46468	
Table 51: (Continued)											
Continuance Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.235	.628	-.428	332	.669	-.03805	.08897	-.21307	.13697	
	Equal variances not assumed			-.426	313.303	.671	-.03805	.08942	-.2139	.13788	
Normative Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.862	.354	1.527	332	.128	.14902	.09756	-.0428	.34093	

	Equal variances not assumed			1.514	307.697	.131	.14902	.09840	-.0446	.34263
Organizational Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.498	.481	1.953	332	.052	.12481	.06392	-.0009	.25055
	Equal variances not assumed			1.937	308.958	.054	.12481	.06442	-.0019	.25156

When we look at the values given in Table 51, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances helps us to understand whether the data is distributed homogeneously. We see that each of the dimensions Affective, Continuance, Normative and Organizational Commitment is not statistically significant. The lack of statistical significance indicates that the data is distributed homogeneously. Due to the homogeneous distribution of the data, the first row of the two-tailed significance value is being looked at. This information will not be repeated in future t-tests.

When we examine these values, it is seen that the significant value of affective commitment is 0.01. A value of less than 0.05 indicates that it is statistically significant. In other words, there is a significant difference between men and women in terms of affective commitment.

4.2.2. T-Test Between Marital Status and Organizational Commitment

Table 52: Group statistics of marital status and organizational commitment

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Affective Commitment	Married	245	3.4211	.92126	.05886
	Single	89	3.1199	.91044	.09651
Continuance Commitment	Married	245	2.8041	.81873	.05231
	Single	89	2.8000	.78335	.08303
Normative Commitment	Married	245	3.1280	.88037	.05624
	Single	89	2.9401	.90357	.09578
Organizational Commitment	Married	245	3.1177	.59560	.03805
	Single	89	2.9533	.53505	.05672

According to the Table 52, in which the group statistics are given, the mean of affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and organizational commitment of married people is 3.42, 2.80, 3.13, 3.12, respectively; these values are 3.12, 2.80, 2.94, 2.95 in the singles, respectively.

Table 53: Independent samples test of marital status and organizational commitment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.097	.755	2.650	332	.008	.30124	.11367	.07764	.52483
	Equal variances not assumed			2.665	157	.009	.30124	.11304	.07797	.52450
Continuance Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.057	.811	.041	332	.968	.00408	.10019	-.19300	.20116
	Equal variances not assumed			.042	162	.967	.00408	.09814	-.18971	.19787
Normative Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.038	.846	1.712	332	.088	.18788	.10973	-.02796	.40373
	Equal variances not assumed			1.692	152	.093	.18788	.11107	-.03155	.40732
Organizational Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.811	.369	2.290	332	.023	.16440	.07180	.02315	.30565
	Equal variances not assumed			2.407	172	.017	.16440	.06830	.02959	.29921

When we examine the two-tailed significance values in Table 53, it is seen that there is a significant difference between married and single in terms of affective commitment ($p = 0.08$) and organizational commitment ($p = .023$). In other words, there is a significant difference between married and single people in terms of affective commitment and organizational commitment.

4.2.3. T-Test Between University and Organizational Commitment

Table 54: Group statistics of university and organizational commitment

	University	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Affective Commitment	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	3.3471	.92327	.08843
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	3.3378	.93035	.06202
Continuance Commitment	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	2.7651	.82365	.07889
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	2.8213	.80194	.05346
Normative Commitment	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	3.2586	.86082	.08245
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	2.9904	.89131	.05942

Organizational Commitment	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	3.1236	.56203	.05383
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	3.0498	.59387	.03959

According to the Table 54, in which group statistics are given, the mean of affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and organizational commitment of the academic staff working in Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University is 3.35, 2.77, 3.26, 3.12, respectively; these rates are 3.34, 2.82, 2.99, 3.05 for the academic staff working in Kırşehir Ahi Evran University, respectively.

Table 55: Independent samples test of university and organizational commitment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.041	.840	.086	332	.931	.00932	.10830	-.20373	.22236
	Equal variances not assumed			.086	215.269	.931	.00932	.10802	-.20359	.22222
Continuance Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.227	.634	-.595	332	.552	-.05620	.09442	-.24193	.12954
	Equal variances not assumed			-.590	208.748	.556	-.05620	.09530	-.24407	.13168
Normative Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.615	.434	2.607	332	.010	.26819	.10287	.06583	.47055
	Equal variances not assumed			2.639	220.621	.009	.26819	.10163	.06790	.46849
Organizational Commitment	Equal variances assumed	.040	.841	1.083	332	.280	.07377	.06812	-.06022	.20777
	Equal variances not assumed			1.104	224.729	.271	.07377	.06682	-.05791	.20545

When we examine the two-tailed significance values in Table 55, it is seen that there is a significant difference between the groups regarding normative commitment ($p = 0.01$). In other words, there is a significant difference between the academic staff working at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University and the academic staff working at Kırşehir Ahi Evran University in terms of normative commitment.

4.2.4. T-Test Between Gender and Stigmatization

Table 56: Group statistics of gender and stigmatization

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Discrimination	Men	183	1.4599	.46380	.03429
	Women	151	1.3091	.41024	.03338
Labeling	Men	183	2.0719	.72679	.05373
	Women	151	1.5430	.57008	.04639
Psychological Health	Men	183	2.5328	.93263	.06894
	Women	151	2.1209	.81489	.06631
Prejudice	Men	183	2.8087	.74331	.05495
	Women	151	2.9255	.91460	.07443
Stigmatization	Men	183	2.2184	.51460	.03804
	Women	151	1.9746	.48941	.03983

According to the Table 56, in which group statistics are given, the mean of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization of male academic staff is 1.46, 2.07, 2.53, 2.81 and 2.22, respectively; these rates are 1.31, 1.54, 2.12, 2.92 and 1.97 for female academic staff, respectively.

Table 57: Independent samples test of gender and stigmatization

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Discrimination	Equal variances assumed	4.858	.028	3.116	332	.002	.15088	.04842	.05563	.24612
	Equal variances not assumed			3.153	330.377	.002	.15088	.04785	.05674	.24501
Labeling	Equal variances assumed	10.912	.001	7.282	332	.000	.52890	.07263	.38603	.67177
	Equal variances not assumed			7.451	331.186	.000	.52890	.07098	.38927	.66854

Table 57: (Continued)

Psychological Health	Equal variances assumed	1.698	.193	4.251	332	.000	.41193	.09690	.22131	.60254
	Equal variances not assumed			4.306	330.894	.000	.41193	.09566	.22375	.60010
Prejudice	Equal variances assumed	5.831	.016	-1.287	332	.199	-.11675	.09071	-.29520	.06169

	Equal variances not assumed									
			-1.262	287.640	.208	-.11675	.09251	-.29884	.06534	
Stigmatization	Equal variances assumed	.887	.347	4.404	332	.000	.24374	.05534	.13487	.35260
	Equal variances not assumed									
			4.426	325.353	.000	.24374	.05508	.13539	.35209	

When we examine the two-tailed significance values in Table 57, it is seen that discrimination ($p = 0.002$), labeling ($p = 0.00$), psychological health ($p = 0.00$), stigmatization ($p = 0.00$) are statistically significant. In other words, there is a significant difference between male workers and female workers in terms of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization.

4.2.5. T-Test Between Marital Status and Stigmatization

Table 58: Group statistics of marital status and stigmatization

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Discrimination	Married	245	1.4469	.47034	.03005
	Single	89	1.2397	.32852	.03482
Labeling	Married	245	1.9075	.72495	.04632
	Single	89	1.6273	.62766	.06653
Psychological Health	Married	245	2.4776	.90224	.05764
	Single	89	1.9860	.80865	.08572
Prejudice	Married	245	2.8704	.76975	.04918
	Single	89	2.8371	.96832	.10264
Stigmatization	Married	245	2.1756	.51329	.03279
	Single	89	1.9225	.48348	.05125

According to the Table 58, in which group statistics is given, the mean of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization of married academic staff is 1.45, 1.91, 2.48, 2.87 and 2.18, respectively; these rates are 1.24, 1.63, 1.99, 2.84 and 1.92 for single academic staff, respectively.

Table 59: Independent samples test of marital status and stigmatization

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper	
Discrimination	Equal variances assumed	24.421	.000	3.830	332	.000	.20724	.05412	.10079	.31369

	Equal variances not assumed			4.506	223.205	.000	.20724	.04600	.11660	.29788
Labeling	Equal variances assumed	4.072	.044	3.231	332	.001	.28014	.08669	.10960	.45068
	Equal variances not assumed			3.456	178.814	.001	.28014	.08107	.12017	.44011
Psychological Health	Equal variances assumed	2.001	.158	4.522	332	.000	.49160	.10872	.27774	.70545
	Equal variances not assumed			4.759	172.839	.000	.49160	.10330	.28771	.69548
Prejudice	Equal variances assumed	6.487	.011	.326	332	.745	.03333	.10236	-.16802	.23468
	Equal variances not assumed			.293	130.557	.770	.03333	.11381	-.19183	.25849
Stigmatization	Equal variances assumed	.737	.391	4.045	332	.000	.25308	.06257	.12999	.37616
	Equal variances not assumed			4.160	164.848	.000	.25308	.06084	.13295	.37321

When we examine the two-tailed significance values in Table 59, it is seen that discrimination ($p = 0.00$), labeling ($p = 0.001$), psychological health ($p = 0.00$), stigmatization ($p = 0.00$) are statistically significant. In other words, there is a significant difference between married and single academic staff in terms of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization.

4.2.6. T-Test Between University and Stigmatization

Table 60: Group statistics of university and stigmatization

	University	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Discrimination	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	1.4327	.46818	.04484
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	1.3719	.43473	.02898
Labeling	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	1.8410	.72378	.06933
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	1.8289	.70534	.04702
Table 60: (Continued)					
Psychological Health	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	2.3716	.87176	.08350
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	2.3344	.92043	.06136
Prejudice	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	2.8440	.81351	.07792
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	2.8700	.83355	.05557
Stigmatization	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	109	2.1223	.50668	.04853
	Kırşehir Ahi Evran University	225	2.1013	.52304	.03487

According to the Table 60, in which group statistics are given, the mean of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization of the academic staff of Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University is 1.43, 1.84, 2.37, 2.84 and 2.12, respectively; these rates are 1.37, 1.83, 2.33, 2.87 and 2.10 among the academic staff of Kırşehir Ahi Evran University, respectively.

Table 61: Independent samples test of university and stigmatization

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Discrimination	Equal variances assumed	1.623	.204	1.170	332	.243	.06087	.05203	-.04149	.16323
	Equal variances not assumed			1.140	200.218	.256	.06087	.05339	-.04442	.16616
Labeling	Equal variances assumed	.048	.827	.146	332	.884	.01209	.08302	-.15122	.17540
	Equal variances not assumed			.144	208.914	.885	.01209	.08377	-.15305	.17723
Psychological Health	Equal variances assumed	.962	.327	.351	332	.725	.03712	.10560	-.17061	.24484
	Equal variances not assumed			.358	224.569	.721	.03712	.10362	-.16708	.24131
Prejudice	Equal variances assumed	.085	.771	-.269	332	.788	-.02596	.09652	-.21583	.16390
	Equal variances not assumed			-.271	218.540	.786	-.02596	.09571	-.21459	.16266
Stigmatization	Equal variances assumed	.317	.574	.348	332	.728	.02103	.06042	-.09783	.13989
	Equal variances not assumed			.352	220.015	.725	.02103	.05976	-.09675	.13880

When we examine the two-tailed significance values in Table 61, there is no significant difference between the two universities' academic staff in terms of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization.

4.3. One-Way Anova

4.3.1. One-Way Anova Between Titles and Organizational Commitment

Table 62: Descriptives of titles and organizational commitment

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Affective Commitment	Research Assistant	100	2.9983	.97772	.09777	2.8043	3.1923	1.00	5.00
	Lecturer	70	3.5071	.82554	.09867	3.3103	3.7040	1.33	5.00
	Assistant Professor	98	3.3912	.88195	.08909	3.2143	3.5680	1.17	5.00
	Associate Professor	39	3.6154	.78001	.12490	3.3625	3.8682	1.83	5.00
	Professor	27	3.5988	1.02037	.19637	3.1951	4.0024	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	3.3408	.92667	.05071	3.2411	3.4406	1.00	5.00
Continuance Commitment	Research Assistant	100	2.8960	.76037	.07604	2.7451	3.0469	1.00	5.00
	Lecturer	70	2.9143	.85775	.10252	2.7098	3.1188	1.00	5.00
	Assistant Professor	98	2.7306	.79644	.08045	2.5709	2.8903	1.00	4.60
	Associate Professor	39	2.6615	.86712	.13885	2.3804	2.9426	1.20	5.00
	Professor	27	2.6370	.77665	.14947	2.3298	2.9443	1.00	4.00
	Total	334	2.8030	.80828	.04423	2.7160	2.8900	1.00	5.00
Normative Commitment	Research Assistant	100	2.8417	.91728	.09173	2.6597	3.0237	1.00	4.50
	Lecturer	70	3.1690	.89976	.10754	2.9545	3.3836	1.33	5.00
	Assistant Professor	98	3.1252	.85032	.08590	2.9547	3.2956	1.00	5.00
	Associate Professor	39	3.2863	.90479	.14488	2.9930	3.5796	1.67	5.00
	Professor	27	3.2438	.73486	.14142	2.9531	3.5345	1.00	4.50
	Total	334	3.0779	.88914	.04865	2.9822	3.1736	1.00	5.00
Organizational Commitment	Research Assistant	100	2.9120	.58010	.05801	2.7969	3.0271	1.40	4.20
	Lecturer	70	3.1968	.57803	.06909	3.0590	3.3347	1.89	5.00
	Assistant Professor	98	3.0823	.56472	.05705	2.9691	3.1955	1.79	4.41
	Associate Professor	39	3.1877	.61768	.09891	2.9875	3.3880	1.90	5.00
	Professor	27	3.1599	.53063	.10212	2.9500	3.3698	1.53	4.24
	Total	334	3.0739	.58385	.03195	3.0111	3.1367	1.40	5.00

Descriptives statistics are given in Table 62. The lowest mean of affective commitment is seen for research assistants with the mean of 3.00; whereas the highest mean of affective commitment is seen for associate professors with the mean of 3.62. Continuance commitment mean is 2.64 for professors, 2.91 for lecturers, 2.90 for the research assistant is seen. While the lowest normative commitment mean is 2.84 for research assistants, the

highest normative commitment mean is 3.29 for associate professors. The lowest mean of organizational commitment is seen for research assistants with the mean of 2.91; the highest mean of organizational commitment is seen for lecturer with the mean of 3.20 and is seen for associate professors with the mean of 3.19.

Table 63: Test of homogeneity of variances titles and organizational commitment

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Affective Commitment	1.394	4	329	.236
Continuance Commitment	.357	4	329	.839
Normative Commitment	1.186	4	329	.317
Organizational Commitment	.319	4	329	.865

According to Table 63, which helps to determine whether the data is distributed homogeneously, the significance values of all factors are not statistically significant. In other words, the data has a homogeneous distribution.

Table 64: Anova of titles and organizational commitment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	18.651	4	4.663	5.739	.000
	Within Groups	267.303	329	.812		
	Total	285.954	333			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	3.769	4	.942	1.450	.217
	Within Groups	213.788	329	.650		
	Total	217.557	333			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	8.819	4	2.205	2.851	.024
	Within Groups	254.444	329	.773		
	Total	263.263	333			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	4.391	4	1.098	3.310	.011
	Within Groups	109.122	329	.332		
	Total	113.513	333			

When we look at the Table 64 to compare whether there is a difference between the titles, it is concluded that there is a significant difference between the groups in terms of affective commitment ($p = 0.00$), normative commitment ($p = 0.024$) and organizational commitment ($p = 0.011$). In order to find out which subgroups have significant differences with each other in groups, we can look at table 65.

Table 65: Multiple comparisons of titles and organizational commitment

LSD							
Dependent Variable	(I) Title	(J) Title	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound Upper Bound	
Affective Commitment	Research Assistant	Lecturer	-.50881*	.14047	.000	-.7851	-.2325
		Assistant Professor	-.39282*	.12812	.002	-.6449	-.1408
		Associate Professor	-.61705*	.17017	.000	-.9518	-.2823
		Professor	-.60043*	.19549	.002	-.9850	-.2159
	Lecturer	Research Assistant	.50881*	.14047	.000	.2325	.7851
		Assistant Professor	.11599	.14106	.412	-.1615	.3935
		Associate Professor	-.10824	.18011	.548	-.4626	.2461
		Professor	-.09162	.20420	.654	-.4933	.3101
	Assistant Professor	Research Assistant	.39282*	.12812	.002	.1408	.6449
		Lecturer	-.11599	.14106	.412	-.3935	.1615
		Associate Professor	-.22423	.17065	.190	-.5599	.1115
		Professor	-.20761	.19591	.290	-.5930	.1778
	Associate Professor	Research Assistant	.61705*	.17017	.000	.2823	.9518
		Lecturer	.10824	.18011	.548	-.2461	.4626
		Assistant Professor	.22423	.17065	.190	-.1115	.5599
		Professor	.01662	.22566	.941	-.4273	.4605
	Professor	Research Assistant	.60043*	.19549	.002	.2159	.9850
		Lecturer	.09162	.20420	.654	-.3101	.4933
		Assistant Professor	.20761	.19591	.290	-.1778	.5930
		Associate Professor	-.01662	.22566	.941	-.4605	.4273
Normative Commitment	Research Assistant	Lecturer	-.32738*	.13705	.017	-.5970	-.0578
		Assistant Professor	-.28350*	.12500	.024	-.5294	-.0376
		Associate Professor	-.44466*	.16602	.008	-.7713	-.1181
		Professor	-.40216*	.19073	.036	-.7774	-.0270
	Lecturer	Research Assistant	.32738*	.13705	.017	.0578	.5970
		Assistant Professor	.04388	.13762	.750	-.2269	.3146
		Associate Professor	-.11728	.17572	.505	-.4630	.2284
		Professor	-.07478	.19923	.708	-.4667	.3171
	Assistant Professor	Research Assistant	.28350*	.12500	.024	.0376	.5294
		Lecturer	-.04388	.13762	.750	-.3146	.2269
		Associate Professor	-.16115	.16650	.334	-.4887	.1664
		Professor	-.11866	.19114	.535	-.4947	.2574
	Associate Professor	Research Assistant	.44466*	.16602	.008	.1181	.7713
		Lecturer	.11728	.17572	.505	-.2284	.4630

Table 65: (Continued)

		Assistant Professor	.16115	.16650	.334	-.1664	.4887
		Professor	.04250	.22017	.847	-.3906	.4756
	Professor	Research Assistant	.40216*	.19073	.036	.0270	.7774
		Lecturer	.07478	.19923	.708	-.3171	.4667
		Assistant Professor	.11866	.19114	.535	-.2574	.4947
		Associate Professor	-.04250	.22017	.847	-.4756	.3906
Organizational Commitment	Research Assistant	Lecturer	-.28483*	.08975	.002	-.4614	-.1083
		Assistant Professor	-.17031*	.08186	.038	-.3314	-.0093
		Associate Professor	-.27575*	.10873	.012	-.4896	-.0619
		Professor	-.24788*	.12490	.048	-.4936	-.0022
	Lecturer	Research Assistant	.28483*	.08975	.002	.1083	.4614
		Assistant Professor	.11451	.09013	.205	-.0628	.2918
		Associate Professor	.00908	.11508	.937	-.2173	.2355
		Professor	.03695	.13047	.777	-.2197	.2936
	Assistant Professor	Research Assistant	.17031*	.08186	.038	.0093	.3314
		Lecturer	-.11451	.09013	.205	-.2918	.0628
		Associate Professor	-.10544	.10904	.334	-.3199	.1091
		Professor	-.07756	.12518	.536	-.3238	.1687
	Associate Professor	Research Assistant	.27575*	.10873	.012	.0619	.4896
		Lecturer	-.00908	.11508	.937	-.2355	.2173
		Assistant Professor	.10544	.10904	.334	-.1091	.3199
		Professor	.02787	.14418	.847	-.2558	.3115
	Professor	Research Assistant	.24788*	.12490	.048	.0022	.4936
		Lecturer	-.03695	.13047	.777	-.2936	.2197
		Assistant Professor	.07756	.12518	.536	-.1687	.3238
		Associate Professor	-.02787	.14418	.847	-.3115	.2558

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

When we look at affective commitment according to Table 65, the information showing whether the difference between the research assistants and other groups is significant is given in the first row. According to this; The difference in affective commitment between research assistants and lecturers is significant ($p = 0.003$). Similarly, the difference between research assistants and assistant professors, associate professors and professors appears to be significant. Significance values were $p = 0.023$, $p = 0.003$ and $p = 0.023$ respectively. According to the table, it is seen that the difference between the research assistants and all other groups is significant, the differences between the groups other than research assistants do not seem to be significant.

The difference in normative commitment between research assistants all other groups appears to be significant. Significance values were $p = 0.017$, $p = 0.024$, $p = 0.008$, and $p = 0.036$ respectively. The difference between other groups is not significant. According to Table 65, when the organizational commitment is considered in general, only the difference between research assistants and lecturers is significant ($p = 0.016$), it is concluded that the difference between the other groups is not significant.

4.3.2. One-Way Anova Between Education and Organizational Commitment

Table 66: Descriptives of education and organizational commitment

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Affective Commitment	Undergrad	15	3.4667	1.12546	.29059	2.8434	4.0899	1.00	5.00
	Master's	81	3.3025	.85680	.09520	3.1130	3.4919	1.17	5.00
	PhD	238	3.3459	.93936	.06089	3.2260	3.4659	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	3.3408	.92667	.05071	3.2411	3.4406	1.00	5.00
Continuance Commitment	Undergrad	15	2.8133	.98696	.25483	2.2668	3.3599	1.00	4.00
	Master's	81	2.8296	.74102	.08234	2.6658	2.9935	1.00	5.00
	PhD	238	2.7933	.82141	.05324	2.6884	2.8982	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	2.8030	.80828	.04423	2.7160	2.8900	1.00	5.00
Normative Commitment	Undergrad	15	2.9333	.82808	.21381	2.4748	3.3919	1.00	4.00
	Master's	81	3.0370	.94428	.10492	2.8282	3.2458	1.00	5.00
	PhD	238	3.1009	.87573	.05676	2.9891	3.2127	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	3.0779	.88914	.04865	2.9822	3.1736	1.00	5.00
Organizational Commitment	Undergrad	15	3.0711	.46386	.11977	2.8142	3.3280	2.17	3.72
	Master's	81	3.0564	.59974	.06664	2.9238	3.1890	1.51	5.00
	PhD	238	3.0800	.58710	.03806	3.0051	3.1550	1.40	5.00
	Total	334	3.0739	.58385	.03195	3.0111	3.1367	1.40	5.00

When the descriptive statistics is examined, which is given in Table 66, the lowest mean of affective commitment is seen for academic staff who has master degree with the mean of 3.30; whereas the highest mean of affective commitment is seen for academic staff who has undergraduate degree with the mean of 3.46. However, the difference is very low. Continuance commitment average varies between 2.79 and 2.83 and is very close to each other. The average normative commitment does not seem to have a significant difference between all groups. In general, organizational commitment varies between 3.06 and 3.08.

Table 67: Test of homogeneity of variances education and organizational commitment

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Affective Commitment	.440	2	331	.644
Continuance Commitment	1.862	2	331	.157
Normative Commitment	.633	2	331	.532
Organizational Commitment	.378	2	331	.686

According to Table 67, which helps to determine whether the data is distributed homogeneously, the significance values of all factors are not statistically significant. In other words, the data has a homogeneous distribution.

Table 68: Anova of education and organizational commitment

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	.363	2	.181	.210	.810
	Within Groups	285.591	331	.863		
	Total	285.954	333			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	.082	2	.041	.062	.940
	Within Groups	217.475	331	.657		
	Total	217.557	333			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	.575	2	.287	.362	.696
	Within Groups	262.688	331	.794		
	Total	263.263	333			
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	.034	2	.017	.050	.952
	Within Groups	113.479	331	.343		
	Total	113.513	333			

According to the Table 68, it is seen that the difference between the different groups according to their educational status is not significant. In other words, organizational commitment does not differ according to the educational status of the academic staff.

4.3.3. One-Way Anova Between Department and Organizational Commitment

Table 69: Descriptives of department and organizational commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Schools	33	3.3990	.88677	.15437	3.0846	3.7134	1.50	5.00

Affective Commitment	Vocational Schools	47	3.5284	.83718	.12212	3.2826	3.7742	1.50	5.00
	Faculty	254	3.2986	.94583	.05935	3.1817	3.4154	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	3.3408	.92667	.05071	3.2411	3.4406	1.00	5.00
Continuance Commitment	Schools	33	2.6364	.80538	.14020	2.3508	2.9219	1.00	4.00
	Vocational Schools	47	3.0553	.79093	.11537	2.8231	3.2875	1.00	5.00
	Faculty	254	2.7780	.80502	.05051	2.6785	2.8774	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	2.8030	.80828	.04423	2.7160	2.8900	1.00	5.00
Normative Commitment	Schools	33	2.9495	.92654	.16129	2.6210	3.2780	1.00	4.67
	Vocational Schools	47	3.1986	.99372	.14495	2.9068	3.4903	1.00	5.00
	Faculty	254	3.0722	.86461	.05425	2.9654	3.1791	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	3.0779	.88914	.04865	2.9822	3.1736	1.00	5.00
Organizational Commitment	Schools	33	2.9949	.61148	.10644	2.7781	3.2118	1.77	4.27
	Vocational Schools	47	3.2608	.59452	.08672	3.0862	3.4353	1.83	5.00
	Faculty	254	3.0496	.57378	.03600	2.9787	3.1205	1.40	5.00
	Total	334	3.0739	.58385	.03195	3.0111	3.1367	1.40	5.00

When the descriptives statistics, which is given in Table 69 is examined, it is seen that the lowest mean of affective commitment belongs to faculty members with value of 3.30, while the highest mean is seen at vocational schools with value of 3.53. Lowest mean of continuance commitment 2.64 is seen at school members, while the highest mean is seen at vocational school employees with the value of 3.06. The average normative commitment varies between 2.95 and 3.20. In general, mean of organizational commitment varies between 3.00 and 3.26.

Table 70: Test of homogeneity of variances department and organizational commitment

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Affective Commitment	.708	2	331	.494
Continuance Commitment	.578	2	331	.562
Normative Commitment	1.577	2	331	.208
Organizational Commitment	.141	2	331	.869

According to Table 70, which helps to determine whether the data is distributed homogeneously, the significance values of all factors are not statistically significant. In other words, the data has a homogeneous distribution.

Table 71: Anova of department and organizational commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.219	2	1.109	1.294	.276

Affective	Within Groups	283.735	331	.857		
Commitment	Total	285.954	333			
Continuance	Between Groups	4.068	2	2.034	3.154	.044
Commitment	Within Groups	213.489	331	.645		
	Total	217.557	333			
Normative	Between Groups	1.237	2	.618	.781	.459
Commitment	Within Groups	262.026	331	.792		
	Total	263.263	333			
Organizational	Between Groups	1.997	2	.998	2.964	.053
Commitment	Within Groups	111.517	331	.337		
	Total	113.513	333			

When we look at Table 71 to compare whether there is a difference between the titles, it is concluded that the difference between the groups is significant in terms of continuance commitment ($p = 0.044$).

Table 72: Multiple comparisons of departments and organizational commitment

LSD

Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

(I) Department	(J) Department	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Schools	Vocational Schools	-.41896*	.18239	.022	-.7778	-.0602
	Faculty	-.14159	.14861	.341	-.4339	.1507
Vocational Schools	Schools	.41896*	.18239	.022	.0602	.7778
	Faculty	.27737*	.12752	.030	.0265	.5282
Faculty	Schools	.14159	.14861	.341	-.1507	.4339
	Vocational Schools	-.27737*	.12752	.030	-.5282	-.0265

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

When we look at continuance commitment according to Table 72, the information showing whether the difference between the schools is significant is given. According to this; The difference in affective commitment between schools and vocational schools is significant ($p = 0.022$). Similarly, the difference between vocational schools and faculty appears to be significant ($p = 0.03$).

4.3.4. One-Way Anova Between Titles and Stigmatization

Table 73: Descriptives of titles and stigmatization

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
				Minimum	Maximum

						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Discrimination	Research Assistant	100	1.3233	.42430	.04243	1.2391	1.4075	1.00	3.00
	Lecturer	70	1.3786	.46010	.05499	1.2689	1.4883	1.00	2.67
	Assistant Professor	98	1.4082	.45604	.04607	1.3167	1.4996	1.00	2.83
	Associate Professor	39	1.5427	.45357	.07263	1.3957	1.6898	1.00	2.67
	Professor	27	1.4012	.41412	.07970	1.2374	1.5651	1.00	2.17
	Total	334	1.3917	.44613	.02441	1.3437	1.4397	1.00	3.00
Labeling	Research Assistant	100	1.7250	.67933	.06793	1.5902	1.8598	1.00	3.83
	Lecturer	70	1.8214	.72472	.08662	1.6486	1.9942	1.00	4.33
	Assistant Professor	98	1.7993	.71874	.07260	1.6552	1.9434	1.00	3.83
	Associate Professor	39	1.9701	.63508	.10169	1.7642	2.1760	1.00	3.00
	Professor	27	2.1852	.76702	.14761	1.8818	2.4886	1.00	3.83
	Total	334	1.8328	.71034	.03887	1.7564	1.9093	1.00	4.33
Psychological Health	Research Assistant	100	2.1675	.83564	.08356	2.0017	2.3333	1.00	4.50
	Lecturer	70	2.3214	.89902	.10745	2.1071	2.5358	1.00	5.00
	Assistant Professor	98	2.3112	.93408	.09436	2.1240	2.4985	1.00	4.25
	Associate Professor	39	2.6218	.88458	.14165	2.3350	2.9085	1.00	4.50
	Professor	27	2.8056	.89156	.17158	2.4529	3.1582	1.00	4.25
	Total	334	2.3466	.90369	.04945	2.2493	2.4438	1.00	5.00
Prejudice	Research Assistant	100	2.8750	.83295	.08330	2.7097	3.0403	1.00	4.75
	Lecturer	70	2.9214	.82920	.09911	2.7237	3.1191	1.00	5.00
	Assistant Professor	98	2.9133	.86461	.08734	2.7399	3.0866	1.25	5.00
	Associate Professor	39	2.8013	.74157	.11875	2.5609	3.0417	1.00	4.50
	Professor	27	2.5556	.74464	.14331	2.2610	2.8501	1.00	3.75
	Total	334	2.8615	.82593	.04519	2.7726	2.9504	1.00	5.00
Stigmatization	Research Assistant	100	2.0227	.50411	.05041	1.9227	2.1227	1.00	3.60
	Lecturer	70	2.1107	.52933	.06327	1.9845	2.2369	1.00	3.29
	Assistant Professor	98	2.1080	.54827	.05538	1.9981	2.2179	1.13	3.21
	Associate Professor	39	2.2340	.46799	.07494	2.0823	2.3857	1.38	3.04
	Professor	27	2.2369	.45025	.08665	2.0588	2.4150	1.29	3.06
	Total	334	2.1082	.51709	.02829	2.0525	2.1638	1.00	3.60

When descriptives statistics about titles of academic staff examined, which is given in Table 73, the mean of discrimination between 1.32 to 1.54, the labeling is between 1.73 to 2.19, psychological health is between 2.17 and 2.81, prejudice is between 2.56 and 2.92, it is seen that stigmatization in general between 2.02 and 2.24.

Table 74: Test of homogeneity of variances titles and stigmatization

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Discrimination	1.054	4	329	.379
Labeling	.338	4	329	.852

Psychological Health	.668	4	329	.614
Prejudice	.513	4	329	.726
Stigmatization	1.298	4	329	.270

According to Table 74, which helps to determine whether the data is distributed homogeneously, the significance values of all factors are not statistically significant. In other words, the data has a homogeneous distribution.

Table 75: Anova of titles and stigmatization

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Discrimination	Between Groups	1.398	4	.350	1.772	.134
	Within Groups	64.880	329	.197		
	Total	66.278	333			
Labeling	Between Groups	5.369	4	1.342	2.715	.030
	Within Groups	162.659	329	.494		
	Total	168.028	333			
Psychological Health	Between Groups	12.016	4	3.004	3.802	.005
	Within Groups	259.933	329	.790		
	Total	271.949	333			
Prejudice	Between Groups	3.201	4	.800	1.176	.321
	Within Groups	223.957	329	.681		
	Total	227.158	333			
Stigmatization	Between Groups	1.795	4	.449	1.693	.151
	Within Groups	87.243	329	.265		
	Total	89.038	333			

When we look at the Table 75 to compare whether there is a difference between the titles, it was concluded that the difference between the groups was significant in labeling ($p = 0.03$) and psychological health ($p = 0.005$) factors. We can look at table 76 to find out which sub-groups have significant differences between each other in groups.

Table 76: Multiple comparisons of titles and stigmatization

		Hochberg					
Dependent Variable	(I) Title	(J) Title	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Labeling	Research Assistant	Lecturer	-.09643	.10958	.991	-.4052	.2123
		Assistant Professor	-.07432	.09994	.998	-.3559	.2073
	Associate Professor	-.24509	.13274	.491	-.6191	.1289	
	Professor	-.46019*	.15250	.027	-.8899	-.0305	

	Lecturer	Research Assistant	.09643	.10958	.991	-.2123	.4052
		Assistant Professor	.02211	.11004	1.000	-.2879	.3322
		Associate Professor	-.14866	.14050	.967	-.5445	.2472
		Professor	-.36376	.15929	.207	-.8126	.0851
	Assistant Professor	Research Assistant	.07432	.09994	.998	-.2073	.3559
		Lecturer	-.02211	.11004	1.000	-.3322	.2879
		Associate Professor	-.17077	.13312	.891	-.5459	.2043
		Professor	-.38587	.15283	.114	-.8165	.0447
	Associate Professor	Research Assistant	.24509	.13274	.491	-.1289	.6191
		Lecturer	.14866	.14050	.967	-.2472	.5445
		Assistant Professor	.17077	.13312	.891	-.2043	.5459
		Professor	-.21510	.17603	.917	-.7111	.2809
	Professor	Research Assistant	.46019*	.15250	.027	.0305	.8899
		Lecturer	.36376	.15929	.207	-.0851	.8126
		Assistant Professor	.38587	.15283	.114	-.0447	.8165
		Associate Professor	.21510	.17603	.917	-.2809	.7111
Psychological Health	Research Assistant	Lecturer	-.15393	.13852	.954	-.5442	.2364
		Assistant Professor	-.14372	.12634	.947	-.4997	.2123
		Associate Professor	-.45429	.16781	.069	-.9271	.0185
		Professor	-.63806*	.19278	.010	-1.1812	-.0949
	Lecturer	Research Assistant	.15393	.13852	.954	-.2364	.5442
		Assistant Professor	.01020	.13910	1.000	-.3817	.4021
		Associate Professor	-.30037	.17761	.615	-.8008	.2001
		Professor	-.48413	.20137	.155	-1.0515	.0833
	Assistant Professor	Research Assistant	.14372	.12634	.947	-.2123	.4997
		Lecturer	-.01020	.13910	1.000	-.4021	.3817
		Associate Professor	-.31057	.16829	.491	-.7847	.1636
		Professor	-.49433	.19319	.104	-1.0387	.0500
	Associate Professor	Research Assistant	.45429	.16781	.069	-.0185	.9271
		Lecturer	.30037	.17761	.615	-.2001	.8008
		Assistant Professor	.31057	.16829	.491	-.1636	.7847
		Professor	-.18376	.22253	.995	-.8108	.4433
	Professor	Research Assistant	.63806*	.19278	.010	.0949	1.1812
		Lecturer	.48413	.20137	.155	-.0833	1.0515
		Assistant Professor	.49433	.19319	.104	-.0500	1.0387
		Associate Professor	.18376	.22253	.995	-.4433	.8108

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

When Table 76 is examined, when we look at labeling, the information showing whether the difference between the different groups is significant is given. According to this; The difference between research assistants and professors on labeling is significant ($p = 0.027$). Similarly, the difference in psychological health between research assistants and professors was found to be significant ($p = 0.01$). According to the table it is seen that the differences between the other groups are not significant. Therefore, it is seen that the difference between research assistants and professors in terms of labeling and psychological health is significant.

4.3.5. One-Way Anova Between Education and Stigmatization

Table 77: Descriptives of education and stigmatization

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Discrimination	Undergrad	15	1.3333	.42725	.11031	1.0967	1.5699	1.00	2.17
	Master's	81	1.4362	.51205	.05689	1.3230	1.5494	1.00	3.00
	PhD	238	1.3803	.42349	.02745	1.3262	1.4343	1.00	2.83
	Total	334	1.3917	.44613	.02441	1.3437	1.4397	1.00	3.00
Labeling	Undergrad	15	2.0333	.82424	.21282	1.5769	2.4898	1.00	3.67
	Master's	81	1.8025	.61639	.06849	1.6662	1.9388	1.00	3.17
	PhD	238	1.8305	.73330	.04753	1.7369	1.9242	1.00	4.33
	Total	334	1.8328	.71034	.03887	1.7564	1.9093	1.00	4.33
Psychological Health	Undergrad	15	2.4000	1.02120	.26367	1.8345	2.9655	1.00	5.00
	Master's	81	2.1975	.79718	.08858	2.0213	2.3738	1.00	4.25
	PhD	238	2.3939	.92808	.06016	2.2754	2.5124	1.00	4.75
	Total	334	2.3466	.90369	.04945	2.2493	2.4438	1.00	5.00
Prejudice	Undergrad	15	2.9500	.80844	.20874	2.5023	3.3977	1.50	4.50
	Master's	81	2.8056	.86783	.09643	2.6137	2.9974	1.00	5.00
	PhD	238	2.8750	.81480	.05282	2.7710	2.9790	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	2.8615	.82593	.04519	2.7726	2.9504	1.00	5.00
Stigmatization	Undergrad	15	2.1792	.53189	.13733	1.8846	2.4737	1.33	3.29
	Master's	81	2.0604	.51474	.05719	1.9466	2.1743	1.00	3.19
	PhD	238	2.1199	.51798	.03358	2.0538	2.1861	1.00	3.60
	Total	334	2.1082	.51709	.02829	2.0525	2.1638	1.00	3.60

Descriptives statistics according to the educational status of employees examined in Table 77, the mean of discrimination is between 1.33 to 1.44, the labeling is between 1.80 and 2.03, psychological health is between 2.20 to 2.40, prejudice is between 2.81 and 2.95, stigmatization is between 2.06 and 2.18.

Table 78: Test of homogeneity of variances of education and stigmatization

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Discrimination	2.779	2	331	.064
Labeling	1.731	2	331	.179
Psychological Health	1.394	2	331	.250
Prejudice	.054	2	331	.947
Stigmatization	.215	2	331	.806

According to Table 78, which helps to determine whether the data is distributed homogeneously, the significance values of all factors are not statistically significant. In other words, the data has a homogeneous distribution.

Table 79: Anova of education and stigmatization

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Discrimination	Between Groups	.243	2	.121	.608	.545
	Within Groups	66.035	331	.200		
	Total	66.278	333			
Labeling	Between Groups	.679	2	.339	.671	.512
	Within Groups	167.349	331	.506		
	Total	168.028	333			
Psychological Health	Between Groups	2.375	2	1.188	1.458	.234
	Within Groups	269.573	331	.814		
	Total	271.949	333			
Prejudice	Between Groups	.414	2	.207	.302	.739
	Within Groups	226.744	331	.685		
	Total	227.158	333			
Stigmatization	Between Groups	.293	2	.146	.546	.580
	Within Groups	88.745	331	.268		
	Total	89.038	333			

According to the Table 79, it is seen that there is no significant difference between the different groups according to their educational status. In other words, the tendency of stigmatization does not differ according to the educational status of the academic staff.

4.3.6. One-Way Anova Between Department and Stigmatization

Table 80: Descriptives of department and stigmatization

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Discrimination	Schools	33	1.3283	.40715	.07088	1.1839	1.4727	1.00	2.17
	Vocational Schools	47	1.4362	.48846	.07125	1.2928	1.5796	1.00	2.67
	Faculty	254	1.3917	.44354	.02783	1.3369	1.4465	1.00	3.00
	Total	334	1.3917	.44613	.02441	1.3437	1.4397	1.00	3.00

Labeling	Schools	33	1.6768	.63045	.10975	1.4532	1.9003	1.00	3.67
	Vocational Schools	47	1.8794	.77452	.11298	1.6520	2.1068	1.00	4.33
	Faculty	254	1.8445	.70787	.04442	1.7570	1.9320	1.00	3.83
	Total	334	1.8328	.71034	.03887	1.7564	1.9093	1.00	4.33
Psychological Health	Schools	33	2.1136	.92932	.16177	1.7841	2.4432	1.00	5.00
	Vocational Schools	47	2.3457	.78635	.11470	2.1149	2.5766	1.00	3.75
	Faculty	254	2.3770	.91936	.05769	2.2634	2.4906	1.00	4.75
	Total	334	2.3466	.90369	.04945	2.2493	2.4438	1.00	5.00
Prejudice	Schools	33	2.8030	.95965	.16705	2.4628	3.1433	1.25	5.00
	Vocational Schools	47	2.9415	.85531	.12476	2.6904	3.1926	1.00	4.75
	Faculty	254	2.8543	.80416	.05046	2.7550	2.9537	1.00	5.00
	Total	334	2.8615	.82593	.04519	2.7726	2.9504	1.00	5.00
Stigmatization	Schools	33	1.9804	.48725	.08482	1.8077	2.1532	1.19	3.29
	Vocational Schools	47	2.1507	.53924	.07866	1.9924	2.3090	1.00	3.27
	Faculty	254	2.1169	.51623	.03239	2.0531	2.1807	1.00	3.60
	Total	334	2.1082	.51709	.02829	2.0525	2.1638	1.00	3.60

When descriptives statistics about departments of academic staff examined, which is given in Table 80, the mean of discrimination between 1.33 to 1.44, the labeling is between 1.68 to 1.88, psychological health is between 2.11 and 2.38, prejudice is between 2.80 and 2.94, it is seen that stigmatization in general between 1.98 and 2.15.

Table 81: Test of homogeneity of variances of department and stigmatization

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Discrimination	.863	2	331	.423
Labeling	.889	2	331	.412
Psychological Health	1.561	2	331	.211
Prejudice	1.456	2	331	.235
Stigmatization	.141	2	331	.868

According to Table 81, which helps to determine whether the data is distributed homogeneously, the significance values of all factors are not statistically significant. In other words, the data has a homogeneous distribution.

Table 82: Anova of department and stigmatization

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Discrimination	Between Groups	.226	2	.113	.565	.569
	Within Groups	66.053	331	.200		
	Total	66.278	333			
Labeling	Between Groups	.940	2	.470	.931	.395

	Within Groups	167.087	331	.505		
	Total	168.028	333			
Psychological	Between Groups	2.025	2	1.013	1.242	.290
Health	Within Groups	269.923	331	.815		
	Total	271.949	333			
Prejudice	Between Groups	.427	2	.213	.311	.733
	Within Groups	226.732	331	.685		
	Total	227.158	333			
Stigmatization	Between Groups	.643	2	.321	1.204	.301
	Within Groups	88.395	331	.267		
	Total	89.038	333			

According to the Table 82, it is seen that there is no significant difference between the different groups according to their departments. In other words, the tendency of stigmatization does not differ according to the departments of the academic staff.

4.4. Regression Analysis

4.4.1. Regression Analysis of Model 1

The table below summarizes the relationships between each sub-factor of the big five inventory and organizational commitment.

According to the Table 83, when we look at the p values to see whether the relationship is statistically significant, it is seen that only the relationship between agreeableness and organizational commitment is significant ($p = .00$). The relationship between other factors of big five inventory and organizational commitment is not significant. Therefore, H1b hypothesis was accepted but H1a, H1c, H1d, and H1e hypotheses were rejected.

Table 83: Relationship between sub-dimensions of big five and organizational commitment

		Coefficients ^a				
		Unstandardized	Coefficients	Standardized		
		Std.				
Model		B	Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.583	.185		19.349	.000
	Organizational Commitment	-.005	.059	-.005	-.092	.927
a. Dependent Variable: Extraversion						
1	(Constant)	3.543	.147		24.032	.000

	Organizational Commitment	.167	.047	.190	3.535	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Agreeableness						
1	(Constant)	2.841	.200		14.197	.000
	Organizational Commitment	-.046	.064	-.040	-.726	.468
a. Dependent Variable: Emotional Stability						
1	(Constant)	3.902	.179		21.839	.000
	Organizational Commitment	-.063	.057	-.061	-1.110	.268
a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness						
1	(Constant)	3.250	.275		11.799	.000
	Organizational Commitment	.057	.088	.035	.646	.519
a. Dependent Variable: Openness to experience						

In the following Table 84, the results of the regression analysis showing the relationship between the five different sub-dimensions of the big five inventory and stigmatization are given.

Table 84: Relationship between sub-dimensions of big five and stigmatization

Model		Coefficients ^a				Sig.
		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	3.569	.145		24.602	.000
	Stigmatization	-.001	.067	-.001	-.016	.987
a. Dependent Variable: Extraversion						
1	(Constant)	4.021	.118		34.191	.000
	Stigmatization	.016	.054	.016	.294	.769
a. Dependent Variable: Agreeableness						
1	(Constant)	3.791	.140		27.060	.000
	Stigmatization	-.040	.065	-.034	-.622	.534
a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness						
1	(Constant)	2.420	.156		15.505	.000
	Stigmatization	.132	.072	.100	1.834	.068
a. Dependent Variable: Emotional Stability						
1	(Constant)	3.934	.214		18.386	.000
	Stigmatization	-.242	.099	-.133	-2.450	.015
a. Dependent Variable: Openness to experience						

When we look at the p values to see whether the relationship is statistically significant, it is seen that only the relationship between openness to experience and stigmatization is significant ($p = .015$). The relationship between other factors of big five inventory and organizational commitment is not significant. Therefore, H2e hypothesis was accepted but H2a, H2b, H2c, and H2d hypotheses were rejected.

Table 85: Relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment

Model		Coefficients ^a				Sig.
		Unstandardized		Standardized		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	1.898	.152		12.519	.000
	Organizational Commitment	.068	.048	.077	1.409	.160
a. Dependent Variable: Stigmatization						

In Table 85, the results of regression analysis showing the relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment are given. Accordingly, the relationship

between stigmatization and organizational commitment is not significant ($p = 0.16$). Therefore, H3 hypothesis was rejected.

Table 86: The mediating effect of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment (part 1)

Model : 4
 Y : Organizational Commitment
 X : Extraversion
 M : Stigmatization

Sample
 Size: 334

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Stigmatization

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0009	.0000	.2682	.0002	1.0000	332.0000	.9874

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.1107	.1632	12.9322	.0000	1.7896	2.4318
Extraversion	-.0007	.0451	-.0158	.9874	-.0894	.0879

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Extraversion	-.0009

Table 87: The mediating effect of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment (part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Organizational Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0773	.0060	.3409	.9942	2.0000	331.0000	.3711

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.9069	.2256	12.8824	.0000	2.4630	3.3508
Extraversion	-.0046	.0508	-.0912	.9274	-.1046	.0953
Stigmatization	.0871	.0619	1.4071	.1603	-.0347	.2088

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Extraversion	-.0050
Stigmatization	.0771

Table 88: The mediating effect of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment (part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Organizational Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0051	.0000	.3419	.0085	1.0000	332.0000	.9265
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.0906	.1843	16.7713	.0000	2.7281	3.4532
Extraversion	-.0047	.0509	-.0923	.9265	-.1048	.0954
Standardized coefficients						
	coeff					
Extraversion	-.0051					

Table 89: The mediating effect of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment (part 4)

Total effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
-.0047	.0509	-.0923	.9265	-.1048	.0954	-.0080	-.0051
Direct effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
-.0046	.0508	-.0912	.9274	-.1046	.0953	-.0079	-.0050
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Stigmatization	-.0001	.0049	-.0107	.0104			
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Stigmatization	-.0001	.0084	-.0185	.0180			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Stigmatization	-.0001	.0053	-.0116	.0115			

When the findings in Table 86 (Part 1) are examined, in the first analysis of the process macro, the effect of X (extraversion) on M (stigmatization) is shown. LLCI and ULCI values are checked to see if they are significant. If these values contain 0 (zero), the relationship between two variables is not meaningful, if these values does not contain the value of 0 (zero) the relationship between two variables is interpreted as significant. Accordingly, the relationship between extraversion and stigmatization does not seem to be significant. ($b = -.0007$, 95% CI $[-.0894, .0879]$, $t = -.0158$, $p = .9874$). Because LLCI value and ULCI value include 0 (zero) value, in other words 0 (zero) is seen between these two values and p value is above 0.05.

In the second part of the analysis table (Table 87), both X and M are included in the analysis and the effect on Y is seen. Accordingly, the effect of stigmatization on organizational commitment was not significant (b= .0871, CI [-.0347, .2088], t= 1.4071, p= .1603). When we examine the effect of extraversion on organizational commitment in the same part of the analysis, it is seen that the relationship is not significant (b= -.0046, CI [-.1046, .0953], t= -.0912, p= .9274). We understand that CI values contain 0 (zero) and p value is greater than 0.05.

The third part of the analysis (Table 88) shows the effect of extraversion on organizational commitment in a model without mediator variable. ie the total effect. According to this, extraversion has not a significant effect on organizational commitment in the absence of stigmatization (b= -.0047, CI [-.1048, .0954], t= -.0923, p= .9265).

In the last part of analysis (Table 89), it is seen that the findings of the direct and total effects of extraversion on organizational commitment are summarized. Then the indirect effect value is shown, which shows whether extraversion has an indirect effect on organizational commitment. The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap method were reported. According to this, the indirect effect of extraversion on organizational commitment is not significant; therefore, stigmatization does not appear to mediate the relationship between extraversion and organizational commitment (b= -.000, 95%CI [-.0107, .0104]). Therefore, H4a hypothesis was rejected.

The results of the individual analyzes of the other five sub-dimensions of the Big Five Inventory are given in Table 90. Because the analysis was performed in a similar way and the interpretation was made in the same way as the interpretations made in table above, the above analysis was repeated for each personality dimension, but the tables were summarized. In the below table, each big five personality factors are dependent variables, the stigmatization is mediator variable and organizational commitment is independent variable. I re-analyze of each factor as dependent variable.

Table 90: Results of mediating effect of each big five factors

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Extraversion	-.0001	.0049	-.0107	.0104
Agreeableness	.0014	.0058	-.0100	.0146
Conscientiousness	-.0025	.0053	-.0158	.0058
Emotional Stability	.0070	.0067	-.0037	.0230
Openness to Experience	-.0069	.0055	-.0192	.0025

When we examine the table, LLCI and ULCI values of all the factors in the big five inventory ,when stigmatization is mediator variable, are summarized. Accordingly, the values of LLCI and ULCI of extraversion is between -.0107 and .0104, agreeableness is between -.0100 and .0146, conscientiousness is between -.0158 and .0058, emotional stability is between -.0037 and .023, and openness to experience is between -.0192 and .0025. It is seen that the values of LLCI and ULCI contain 0 (zero) value. Therefore, it is concluded that stigmatization does not mediate the relationship between any of the big five sub-dimensions and organizational commitment. Therefore, H4a, H4b, H4c, H4d, H4e hypotheses were rejected.

Table 91: The moderating effect of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment

Model : 1
 Y : Organizational Commitment
 X : Extraversion
 W : Stigmatization

Sample
 Size: 334

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Organizational Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0824	.0068	.3416	.7528	3.0000	330.0000	.5214

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.0739	.0320	96.1124	.0000	3.0110	3.1368
Extraversion	-.0025	.0510	-.0486	.9612	-.1029	.0979
Stigmatization	.0837	.0623	1.3445	.1797	-.0388	.2062
Int_1	.0532	.1017	.5237	.6008	-.1468	.2533

Product terms key:
 Int_1 : Extraversion x Stigmatization

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0008	.2743	1.0000	330.0000	.6008

Table 91 shows the names of the variables included in the analysis. It is seen that all independent variables explain about 0.7% ($R^2 = .007$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the p value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not

contain 0 (zero). The p value of Int_1 is not significant (b= .0532, CI [-.1468 .2533], t= .5237, p> .05). Stigmatization does not moderate the relationship between extraversion and organizational commitment.

The results of the individual analyze of the other five sub-dimensions of the Big Five Inventory are given in Table 92. Because the analysis was performed in a similar way and the interpretation was made in the same way as the interpretations made in table above, the above analysis was repeated for each personality dimension, but the tables were summarized as follows.

Table 92: Results of moderating effect of stigmatization (for each big five factors)

Int_1	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Extraversion	.0532	.1017	.5237	.6008	-.1468	.2533
Agreeableness	-.2344	.1227	-1.9101	.0570	-.4759	.0070
Conscientiousness	-.1531	.1059	-1.4460	.1491	-.3614	.0552
Emotional Stability	-.0220	.0880	-.2503	.8025	-.1952	.1511
Openness to Experience	.0899	.0634	1.4164	.1576	-.0349	.2147

In Table 92, Int_1 value of each big five personality inventory factors are summarized. When table examine, All LLCI and ULCI values of each factors contain 0 (zero) values and p values of each big five personality inventories are above 0.05. Stigmatization does not moderate between any of big five personality factors and organizational commitment. Therefore, H5a, H5b, H5c, H5d, H5e hypotheses were rejected.

Table 93: Summary of model 1 hypotheses

H1a: There is a significant relationship between extraversion and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H1b: There is a significant relationship between agreeableness and organizational commitment.	Supported
H1c: There is a significant relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H1d: There is a significant relationship between emotional stability and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H1e: There is a significant relationship between openness to experience and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H2a: There is a significant relationship between extraversion and tendency of stigmatization.	Rejected
H2b: There is a significant relationship between agreeableness and tendency of stigmatization.	Rejected

Table 93: (Continued)

H2c: There is a significant relationship between conscientiousness and tendency of stigmatization.	Rejected
H2d: There is a significant relationship between emotional stability and tendency of stigmatization.	Rejected
H2e: There is a significant relationship between openness to experience and tendency of stigmatization.	Supported
H3: There is a significant relationship between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H4a: There is a mediating effect of tendency of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H4b: There is a mediating effect of tendency of stigmatization between agreeableness and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H4c: There is a mediating effect of tendency of stigmatization conscientiousness between and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H4d: There is a mediating effect of stigmatization between emotional stability and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H4e: There is a mediating effect of stigmatization between openness to experience and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H5a: There is a moderating effect of tendency of stigmatization between extraversion and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H5b: There is a moderating effect of tendency of stigmatization between agreeableness and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H5c: There is a moderating effect of tendency of stigmatization conscientiousness between and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H5d: There is a moderating effect of stigmatization between emotional stability and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H5e: There is a moderating effect of stigmatization between openness to experience and organizational commitment.	Rejected

4.4.2. Regression Analysis of Model 2

Table 94: The moderating effect of extraversion between stigmatization and organizational commitment

Model : 1						
Y : Organizational Commitment						
X : Stigmatization						
W : Extraversion						
Sample						
Size: 334						

OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Organizational Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0824	.0068	.3416	.7528	3.0000	330.0000	.5214

Table 94: (Continued)

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.0739	.0320	96.1124	.0000	3.0110	3.1368
Stigmatization	.0837	.0623	1.3445	.1797	-.0388	.2062
Extraversion	-.0025	.0510	-.0486	.9612	-.1029	.0979
Int_1	.0532	.1017	.5237	.6008	-.1468	.2533

Product terms key:

Int_1 : Stigmatization x Extraversion

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0008	.2743	1.0000	330.0000	.6008

Table 94 shows the names of the variables included in the analysis. It is seen that all independent variables explain about 0.7% ($R^2 = .007$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order to say the moderating effect to exist, the p value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The p value of Int_1 is not significant ($b = .6008$, CI [-.1468 .2533], $t = .5237$, $p > .05$). Extraversion does not moderate the relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment.

The results of the individual analyze of the other five sub-dimensions of the Big Five Inventory are given in table below. Because the analysis was performed in a similar way and the interpretation was made in the same way as the interpretations made in table above, the above analysis was repeated for each personality dimension, but the tables were summarized as follows. In the below table, Int_1 value of each big five personality inventory factors are summarized. When table examine, All LLCI and ULCI values of each factors contain 0 (zero) values and p values of each big five personality inventories are above 0.05. Stigmatization does not moderate between any of big five personality factors and organizational commitment. Therefore, H5a, H5b, H5c, H5d, H5e hypotheses were rejected.

Table 95: Results of moderating effect of each factors of big five

Int_1	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Extraversion	.0532	.1017	.5237	.6008	-.1468	.2533
Agreeableness	-.2344	.1227	-1.9101	.0570	-.4759	.0070
Conscientiousness	-.1531	.1059	-1.4460	.1491	-.3614	.0552
Emotional Stability	-.0220	.0880	-.2503	.8025	-.1952	.1511
Openness to Experience	.0899	.0634	1.4164	.1576	-.0349	.2147

When we examine the table, All LLCI and ULCI values of each factors contain 0 (zero) values and p values of each big five personality inventories are above 0.05. Therefore, it is concluded that none of the big five sub-dimensions moderate the relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment. Therefore, H6a, H6b, H6c, H6d, H6e hypotheses were rejected.

Table 96: The mediating effect of extraversion between stigmatization and organizational commitment (part 1)

Model : 4
 Y : Organizational Commitment
 X : Stigmatization
 M : Extraversion

Sample
 Size: 334

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Extraversion

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0009	.0000	.3977	.0002	1.0000	332.0000	.9874

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.5688	.1451	24.6017	.0000	3.2835	3.8542
Stigmatization	-.0011	.0668	-.0158	.9874	-.1325	.1304

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Stigmatization	-.0009

Table 97: The mediating effect of extraversion between stigmatization and organizational commitment (part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Organizational Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0773	.0060	.3409	.9942	2.0000	331.0000	.3711

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.9069	.2256	12.8824	.0000	2.4630	3.3508
Stigmatization	.0871	.0619	1.4071	.1603	-.0347	.2088
Extraversion	-.0046	.0508	-.0912	.9274	-.1046	.0953

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Stigmatization	.0771
Extraversion	-.0050

Table 98: The mediating effect of extraversion between stigmatization and organizational commitment (part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE: Organizational Commitment							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0771	.0059	.3399	1.9861	1.0000	332.0000	.1597
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		2.8903	.1341	21.5539	.0000	2.6266	3.1541
Stigmatization		.0871	.0618	1.4093	.1597	-.0345	.2086
Standardized coefficients							
		coeff					
Stigmatization		.0771					

Table 99: The mediating effect of extraversion between stigmatization and organizational commitment (part 4)

Total effect of X on Y							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps
	.0871	.0618	1.4093	.1597	-.0345	.2086	.1491
Direct effect of X on Y							
	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps
	.0871	.0619	1.4071	.1603	-.0347	.2088	.1491
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Extraversion	.0000	.0033	-.0066	.0082			
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Extraversion	.0000	.0057	-.0112	.0144			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Extraversion	.0000	.0029	-.0058	.0072			

When the findings in Table 96 (Part 1) are examined, in the first analysis of the process macro, the effect of X (stigmatization) on M (extraversion) is shown. LLCI and ULCI values are checked to see if they are significant. If these values contain 0 (zero), the relationship between two variables is not meaningful, if these values does not contain the value of 0 (zero) the relationship between two variables is interpreted as significant. Accordingly, the relationship between stigmatization and extraversion does not seem to be significant. (b= -.0011, 95% CI [-.1325, .1304], t= -.0158, p= .9874). Because LLCI value and ULCI value include 0 (zero) value, in other words 0 (zero) is seen between these two values.

In the second part of the analysis (Table 97), both X and M are included in the analysis and the effect on Y is seen. Accordingly, the effect of stigmatization on organizational commitment was not significant ($b = .0871$, CI $[-.0347, .2088]$, $t = 1.4071$, $p = .1603$). When we examine the effect of extraversion on organizational commitment in the same part of the analysis, it is seen that the relationship is not significant ($b = -.0046$, CI $[-.1046, .0953]$, $t = .0912$, $p = .9274$). We understand that CI values contain 0 (zero) and p value is greater than 0.05.

The third part of the analysis (Table 98) shows the effect of stigmatization on organizational commitment in a model without mediator variable. ie the total effect. According to this, stigmatization has not a significant effect on organizational commitment in the absence of extraversion ($b = .0871$, CI $[-.0345, .2086]$, $t = 1.4093$, $p = .1597$).

In the last part of analysis (Table 99), it is seen that the findings of the direct and total effects of stigmatization on organizational commitment are summarized. Then the indirect effect value is shown, which shows whether stigmatization has an indirect effect on organizational commitment. The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap method were reported. According to this, the indirect effect on stigmatization and organizational commitment is not significant; therefore, extraversion does not appear to mediate the relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment ($b = .00$, 95 %CI $[-.0066, .0082]$). Therefore, H4a hypothesis was rejected.

The results of the individual analyzes of the other five sub-dimensions of the Big Five Inventory are given in Table 100. Because the analysis was performed in a similar way and the interpretation was made in the same way as the interpretations made in table above, the above analysis was repeated for each personality dimension, but the tables were summarized.

Table 100: The mediating effect of each of sub-factors of big five between stigmatization and organizational commitment

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:				
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Extraversion	.0000	.0033	-.0066	.0082
Agreeableness	.0034	.0123	-.0200	.0305
Conscientiousness	.0022	.0054	-.0061	.0159
Emotional Stability	-.0054	.0085	-.0275	.0072
Openness to experience	-.0070	.0101	-.0299	.0107

When we examine the table (Table 100), LLCI and ULCI values of all the factors in the big five inventory are summarized. Accordingly, the values of LLCI and ULCI of extraversion is between $-.0066$ and $.0082$, agreeableness is between $-.0200$ and $.0305$, conscientiousness is between $-.0061$ and $.0159$, emotional stability is between $-.0275$ and $.0072$, and openness to experience is between $-.0299$ and $.0107$. It is seen that the values of LLCI and ULCI contain 0 (zero) value. Therefore, it is concluded that none of the big five sub-dimensions mediate the relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment. Therefore, H7a, H7b, H7c, H7d, H7e hypotheses were rejected. Table 101 shows the results of model 2 hypotheses.

Table 101: Summary of model 2 hypotheses

H6a: There is a moderating effect of extraversion between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H6b: There is a moderating effect of agreeableness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H6c: There is a moderating effect of conscientiousness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H6d: There is a moderating effect of emotional stability between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H6e: There is a moderating effect of openness to experience between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H7a: There is a mediating effect of extraversion between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H7b: There is a mediating effect of agreeableness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H7c: There is a mediating effect of conscientiousness between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H7d: There is a mediating effect of emotional stability between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected
H7e: There is a mediating effect of openness to experience between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment.	Rejected

In the relationship between stigmatization and organizational commitment, the mediator role of personality traits could not be determined, and it was examined whether there were mediating and moderating relationships on the basis of sub-dimensions of all three variables. Each of the tables listed below shows a model of mediator or moderator relationship test. When we interpret the output of the Process Macro and examine the information in table one by one, it will be seen that it gives a lot of information together. In tables, we can also find the relationship values in classical regression analysis. To talk a little about the screen output:

X: Independent Variable

Y: Dependent Variable

M: Mediator Variable

W: Moderate Variable.

The model that is written at the beginning of the table is the model number chosen according to which variables the model of the analysis will be made. There are currently 92 templates in Process macro v3.3. Process macro allows analyze simple models as well as very complicated models. For example: Model 1 tests simple moderation analysis. In other words, there is one independent, one dependent and one moderate variable. Similarly, if another variable mediates between an independent and a dependent variable, then model 4 is selected to test this model and the mediating effect is tested. If the mediating role of another variable to an independent and a dependent variable is tested in the model, at the same time, if a fourth variable is to analyze the moderate effect of the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable in this relationship, then model 14 should be selected. This analysis is also called moderated mediation.

In tables given below, the findings of the mediator and moderating relationship on the basis of each sub-dimension are presented as individual tables and interpreted. Firstly, mediator effect analysis is given, then moderating effect analysis is given and in the last section, findings of moderated mediation analysis are shared and explained.

In the analyzes carried out throughout the research, x represents independent variable, y represents dependent variable, m represents mediator variable, w represents moderator variable. In order to avoid complexity in tables and to be easy to read, x (the name of the

independent variable only), y (the name of the dependent variable only), m (only the name of the intermediate variable here), w (the name of the moderation variable only) to be written. For example; Consider the name of table like this: X (Stigmatization) - M (Big Five Personality) - Y (Organizational Commitment). In the name of a given table, it will be understood that the mediating effect of big five personality between stigmatization and organizational commitment will be tested.

4.5. Mediators

4.5.1. The Mediating Effect of Emotional Stability Between Prejudice and Affective Commitment

Table 102: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4
 Y : Affective Commitment
 X : Prejudice
 M : Emotional Stability

Sample
 Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Emotional Stability

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1643	.0270	.4526	9.2135	1.0000	332.0000	.0026

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.3107	.1329	17.3821	.0000	2.0492	2.5722
Prejudice	.1355	.0446	3.0354	.0026	.0477	.2233

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Prejudice	.1643

Table 103: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Affective Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2484	.0617	.8106	10.8805	2.0000	331.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.4540	.2459	18.1161	.0000	3.9704	4.9377

Table 103: (Continued)

Prejudice	-.1324	.0606	-2.1857	.0295	-.2515	-.0132
Emotional Stability	-.2722	.0734	-3.7060	.0002	-.4167	-.1277
Standardized coefficients						
	coeff					
Prejudice	-.1180					
Emotional Stability	-.2000					

Table 104: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Affective Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1508	.0228	.8417	7.7304	1.0000	332.0000	.0057
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.8251	.1813	21.1011	.0000	3.4685	4.1817
Prejudice	-.1692	.0609	-2.7804	.0057	-.2890	-.0495
Standardized coefficients						
	coeff					
Prejudice	-.1508					

Table 105: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
-.1692	.0609	-2.7804	.0057	-.2890	-.0495	-.1826	-.1508
Direct effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
-.1324	.0606	-2.1857	.0295	-.2515	-.0132	-.1428	-.1180
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Emotional Stability	-.0369	.0174	-.0779	-.0088			
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Emotional Stability	-.0398	.0183	-.0827	-.0099			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Emotional Stability	-.0329	.0151	-.0679	-.0080			

When the findings in Table 102 (Part 1) are examined, the model number (Model 4), the variables used in the analysis (Y: Affective Commitment. X: Prejudice. M: Emotional

Stability) and sample size (Sample size: 334) are given. Just below are the results of the regression analysis showing the effect of prejudice on emotional stability. Accordingly, it is seen that prejudice affects emotional stability positively and statistically significant ($b = .136$, 95% CI [.0477 .2233], $t = 3.035$, $p = .0026$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Prejudice explains about 3% of change in emotional stability ($R^2 = .027$).

Table 103 (Part 2) shows the effects of emotional stability, which is a mediating variable, on prejudice and affective commitment. Emotional stability appears to affect affective commitment significantly and negatively ($b = -.272$, 95% CI [-.4167 -.1277], $t = -3.706$, $p = .0002$). Prejudice has a significant and negative effect on affective commitment ($b = -.132$, 95% CI [-.2515 -.0132], $t = -2.1857$, $p = .03$).

Table 104 (Part 3) shows the effect of prejudice on affective commitment in a model without mediator variable. ie the total effect. According to this, prejudice has a negative and significant effect on affective commitment in the absence of emotional stability ($b = -.170$, 95% CI [-.2890 -.0495], $t = -2.7804$, $p = .006$).

In Table 105 (Part 4), it is seen that the findings of the direct and total effects of prejudice on affective commitment are summarized. Then the indirect effect value is shown, which shows whether prejudice has an indirect effect on affective commitment. The confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap method were reported. According to this, the indirect effect on prejudice and affective commitment was significant; therefore, emotional stability appears to mediate the relationship between prejudice and affective commitment ($b = -.037$, 95% CI [-.0779, -.0088]). Indirect effect value (-.037), prejudice perception of two employees is one unit more than the other employee, affective commitment can be interpreted to be lower by .037 units.

Regression analysis based on bootstrap method was performed in order to test whether emotional stability had a mediating role in the effect of prejudice perceptions on affective commitment of academicians. It is suggested that the Bootstrap method gives more reliable results than the traditional method of Baron and Kenny and Sobel test (399, 400,401). Analyzes were performed using Process Macro developed by Hayes. In the analysis, 5000 resampling option with bootstrap technique was preferred. In the mediation effect analysis

performed with the Bootstrap technique, the 95% confidence interval (CI) obtained as a result of the analysis should not include 0 (zero) value in order to support the research hypothesis (402). Regression analysis results are given in Table 106. Whether Prejudice had an indirect effect on affective commitment was determined according to the confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap technique. Accordingly, it has been found that the indirect effect of prejudice on affective commitment is significant and therefore emotional stability mediates the relationship between prejudice and affective commitment ($b = -.037$, 95% CI $[-.0779, -.0088]$). Corrected bias and accelerated confidence interval values (BCA CI) after bootstrap analysis do not include 0 (zero).

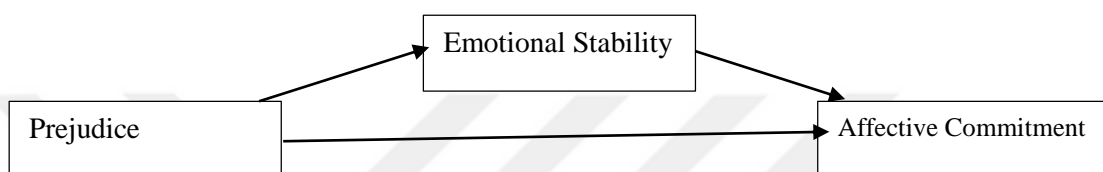


Table 106: Results of regression analysis of mediation analysis (n=334)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	M (Emotional Stability)		Y (Affective Commitment)			
	b	s.e.	b	s.e.		
X (Prejudice)	a	.136**	.0446	c'	-.1324*	.0606
M (Emotional Stability)	-	-	-	b.	-.2722***	.0734
Sabit	İm	2.3107***	1329	İy.	4.4540***	.2459
		R ² = .027		R ² = .062		
		F(1;332) = 9.214; p < .05		F(2;331) = 10.881; p < .001		

Note. * p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001; se: Standart Error. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.5.2. The Mediating Effect of Conscientiousness Between Labeling and Affective Commitment

Table 107: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4						
Y : Affective Commitment						
X : Labeling						
M : Conscientiousness						
Sample						
Size: 334						
OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Conscientiousness						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1358	.0184	.3646	6.2336	1.0000	332.0000	.0130

Table 107: (Continued)

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.9200	.0916	42.8170	.0000	3.7399	4.1001
Labeling	-.1163	.0466	-2.4967	.0130	-.2079	-.0247
Standardized coefficients						
	coeff					
Labeling	-.1358					

Table 108: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Affective Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1623	.0263	.8411	4.4787	2.0000	331.0000	.0120
Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.2962	.3551	6.4662	.0000	1.5976	2.9948
Labeling	.0821	.0714	1.1499	.2510	-.0584	.2226
Conscientiousness	.2412	.0834	2.8937	.0041	.0772	.4052
Standardized coefficients						
	coeff					
Labeling	.0629					
Conscientiousness	.1584					

Table 109: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Affective Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0414	.0017	.8598	.5712	1.0000	332.0000	.4503
Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2417	.1406	23.0587	.0000	2.9652	3.5183
Labeling	.0541	.0715	.7558	.4503	-.0867	.1948
Standardized coefficients						
	coeff					
Labeling	.0414					

Table 110: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.0541	.0715	.7558	.4503	-.0867	.1948	.0583	.0414
Direct effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0821	.0714	1.1499	.2510	-.0584	.2226	.0886	.0629
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Conscientiousness	-.0281	.0162	-.0653	-.0024			
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Conscientiousness	-.0303	.0177	-.0709	-.0027			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Conscientiousness	-.0215	.0124	-.0496	-.0019			

Table 107 (Part 1) shows the results of regression analysis showing the effect of labeling on conscientiousness. Accordingly, labeling has a significant and negative effect on conscientiousness ($b = -.116$, 95% CI $[-.2079 \text{ } -.0247]$, $t = -2.497$, $p = .013$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Labeling explains about 2% ($R^2 = .018$) of the change in conscientiousness.

Table 108 (Part 2) shows the effects of the mediating variable conscientiousness and labeling on affective commitment. Conscientiousness was found to affect affective commitment significantly and positively ($b = .241$, 95% CI $[.0772 \text{ } .4052]$, $t = 2.894$, $p = .004$). Labeling has no significant effect on affective commitment ($b = -.0821$, 95% CI $[-.0584, .2226]$, $t = 1.150$, $p = .25$).

Table 109 (Part 3) shows the effect of labeling on affective commitment, ie the total effect, in a model without mediating variable. Accordingly, labeling does not have a significant effect on affective commitment in the absence of conscientiousness ($b = -.170$, 95% CI $[-.0867, .1948]$, $t = .7558$, $p = .450$).

Table 110 (Part 4) summarizes the findings of the direct and total effects of labeling on affective commitment. Afterwards, the indirect effect value, confidence intervals obtained by bootstrap method, were reported, indicating whether labeling had an indirect effect on affective commitment. Accordingly, the indirect effect on labeling and affective commitment was significant; therefore conscientiousness appears to mediate the relationship

between labeling and affective commitment ($b = -.028$, 95% CI $[-.0653 \text{ } -.0024]$). The indirect effect value ($-.028$) can be interpreted as the employee's perceived labeling perception is one unit higher than the other employee and the affective commitment is lower than $.028$ units.

Regression analysis based on bootstrap method was performed to test whether conscientiousness had a mediating role in the effect of labeling perception of academicians on affective commitment. Regression analysis results for this purpose are given in Table 111. Whether labeling had an indirect effect on affective commitment was determined according to the confidence intervals obtained by Bootstrap technique. Accordingly, it was found that the indirect effect of labeling on affective commitment was significant, and thus conscientiousness mediated the relationship between labeling and affective commitment ($b = -.028$, 95% CI $[-.0653, \text{ } -.0024]$). As a result of bootstrap analysis, corrected bias and accelerated confidence interval values (BCA CI) do not include 0 (zero).

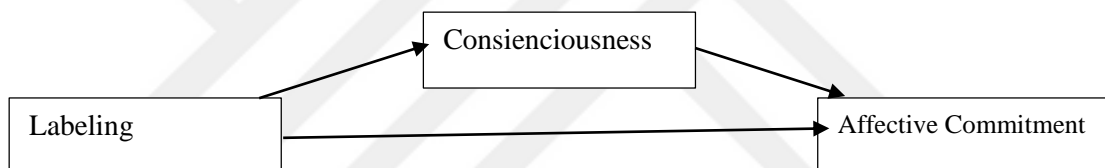


Table 111: Results of regression analysis of mediation analysis (N=334)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	M (Conscientiousness)			Y (Affective Commitment)		
	a	b	s.e.	c'	b	s.e.
X (Labeling)		-.116**	.0466		.0821	.0714
M (Conscientiousness)	-	-	-	b.	.2412*	.0834
Sabit	İm	3.9200***	.0916	İy.	2.2962***	.3551
		$R^2 = .0184$			$R^2 = .0263$	
		$F(1;332) = 6.2336; p < .05$			$F(2;331) = 4.4787; p < .05$	

Note. * $p < .05$ **, $p < .01$ ***, $p < .001$; se: Standart Error. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.5.3. The Mediating Effect of Conscientiousness Between Discrimination and Affective Commitment

Table 112: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4
 Y : Affective Commitment
 X : Discrimination
 M : Conscientiousness
 Sample
 Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Conscientiousness
 Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1550	.0240	.3626	8.1773	1.0000	332.0000	.0045

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.0011	.1081	37.0214	.0000	3.7885	4.2137
Discrimination	-.2115	.0740	-2.8596	.0045	-.3570	-.0660

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Discrimination	-.1550

Table 113: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Affective Commitment
 Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1591	.0253	.8420	4.2994	2.0000	331.0000	.0143

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.2910	.3730	6.1424	.0000	1.5573	3.0248
Discrimination	.1125	.1141	.9858	.3250	-.1120	.3369
Conscientiousness	.2410	.0836	2.8811	.0042	.0764	.4055

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Discrimination	.0541
Conscientiousness	.1583

Table 114: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Affective Commitment
 Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0296	.0009	.8606	.2913	1.0000	332.0000	.5897

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.2552	.1665	19.5500	.0000	2.9277	3.5828
Discrimination	.0615	.1139	.5397	.5897	-.1626	.2857

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Discrimination	.0296

Table 115: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Affective Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y								
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs	
.0615	.1139	.5397	.5897	-.1626	.2857	.0664	.0296	
Direct effect of X on Y								
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs	
.1125	.1141	.9858	.3250	-.1120	.3369	.1214	.0541	
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:								
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI				
Conscientiousness	-.0510	.0269	-.1119	-.0067				
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:								
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI				
Conscientiousness	-.0550	.0291	-.1203	-.0074				
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:								
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI				
Conscientiousness	-.0245	.0130	-.0542	-.0033				

Table 112 (Part 1) shows the results of regression analysis showing the effect of discrimination on conscientiousness. Accordingly, discrimination appears to have a significant and negative effect on conscientiousness ($b = -.2115$, 95% CI $[-.3570 \text{ } -.0660]$, $t = -2.8596$, $p = .005$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Discrimination describes about 2% ($R^2 = .0240$) of the change in conscientiousness.

Table 113 (Part 2) shows the effects of the mediator variable, conscientiousness, on discrimination and affective commitment together. Conscientiousness appears to have a significant and positive effect on affective commitment ($b = .241$, 95% CI $[.0764, .4055]$, $t = 2.8811$, $p = .004$). Discrimination has no significant effect on affective commitment ($b = -.132$, 95% CI $[-.1120 \text{ } .3369]$, $t = .9858$, $p = .33$).

Table 114 (Part 3) shows the effect of discrimination on affective commitment, ie the total effect, in a model without mediating variable. Accordingly, in the absence of conscientiousness, discrimination appears to have no significant effect on affective commitment ($b = -.170$, 95% CI $[-.1626 \text{ } .2857]$, $t = .5397$, $p = .59$).

In Table 115 (Part 4), it is seen that the findings of the direct and total effects of discrimination on affective commitment are summarized. Then, the confidence intervals obtained by the bootstrap method, indirect effect value, which indicates whether discrimination has an indirect effect on affective commitment, are reported. Accordingly, the indirect effect on discrimination and affective commitment is significant; therefore

conscientiousness appears to mediate the relationship between discrimination and affective commitment ($b = -.051$, 95% CI [-.1119 -.0067]). The indirect effect value (-.051) can be interpreted as the employee's perception of discrimination in two employees is one unit higher than the other employee and the affective commitment is .051 units lower.

Regression analysis based on bootstrap method was performed to test whether conscientiousness had a mediating role in the effect of academics' perception of discrimination on affective commitment. Regression analysis results for this purpose are given in Table 116. The effect of discrimination on affective commitment was determined according to the confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap technique. Accordingly, it was found that the indirect effect of discrimination on affective commitment was significant and therefore conscientiousness mediated the relationship between discrimination and affective commitment ($b = -.051$, 95% CI [-.1119, -.0067]). As a result of bootstrap analysis, corrected bias and accelerated confidence interval values (BCA CI) do not include 0 (zero).

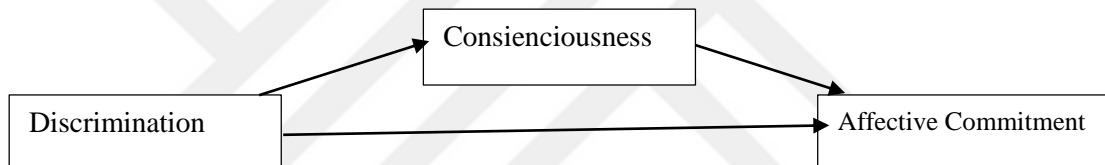


Table 116: Results of regression analysis of mediation analysis (N=334)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	M (Conscientiousness)			Y (Affective Commitment)		
	a	b	s.e.	c'	b	s.e.
X (Discrimination)		-.2115**	.0740		.1125	.1141
M (Conscientiousness)	-	-	-	b.	.2410**	.0836
Sabit	İm	4.0011***	.1081	İy.	2.2910***	.3730
		R ² = .0240			R ² = .0253	
		F(1;332) = 8.1773; p < .005			F(2;331) = 4.2994; p < .014	

Note. * p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001; se: Standart Error. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.5.4. The Mediating Effect of Conscientiousness Between Discrimination and Continuance Commitment

Table 117: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4
 Y : Continuance Commitment
 X : Discrimination

M : Conscientiousness
Sample
Size: 334
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Conscientiousness

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1550	.0240	.3626	8.1773	1.0000	332.0000	.0045

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.0011	.1081	37.0214	.0000	3.7885	4.2137
Discrimination	-.2115	.0740	-2.8596	.0045	-.3570	-.0660

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Discrimination	-.1550

Table 118: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2858	.0817	.6036	14.7194	2.0000	331.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.1836	.3158	13.2480	.0000	3.5624	4.8048
Discrimination	.0143	.0966	.1477	.8827	-.1758	.2043
Conscientiousness	-.3778	.0708	-5.3353	.0000	-.5171	-.2385

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Discrimination	.0079
Conscientiousness	-.2845

Table 119: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.0520	.0027	.6535	.8994	1.0000	332.0000	.3436

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.6719	.1451	18.4141	.0000	2.3865	2.9574
Discrimination	.0942	.0993	.9484	.3436	-.1012	.2895

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Discrimination	.0520

Table 120: X (Discrimination) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.0942	.0993	.9484	.3436	-.1012	.2895	.1165	.0520

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0143	.0966	.1477	.8827	-.1758	.2043	.0177	.0079

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Conscientiousness	.0799	.0332	.0214	.1519

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:				
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Conscientiousness	.0989	.0402	.0277	.1832
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:				
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Conscientiousness	.0441	.0179	.0122	.0812

Table 117 (Part 1) shows the results of regression analysis showing the effect of discrimination on conscientiousness. Accordingly, discrimination appears to have a significant and negative effect on conscientiousness ($b = -.2115$, 95% CI $[-.3570 \text{ } -.0660]$, $t = -2.8596$, $p = .005$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Discrimination describes about 2% ($R^2 = .0240$) of the change in conscientiousness.

Table 118 (Part 2) shows the effects of conscientiousness, the mediating variable, on discrimination and continuance commitment. Conscientiousness appears to have a significant and negative effect on continuance commitment ($b = -.378$, 95% CI $[-.5171 \text{ } -.2385]$, $t = -5.3353$, $p = .000$). Discrimination has no significant effect on continuance commitment ($b = .0143$, 95% CI $[-.1758 \text{ } .2043]$, $t = .1477$, $p = .88$).

Table 119 (Part 3) shows the effect of discrimination on continuance commitment, ie the total effect, in a model without mediating variable. Accordingly, in the absence of conscientiousness, discrimination appears to have no significant effect on continuance commitment ($b = .0942$, 95% CI $[-.1012 \text{ } .2395]$, $t = .9484$, $p = .34$).

Table 120 (Part 4) summarizes the findings of the direct and total effects of discrimination on continuance commitment. Then, the confidence intervals obtained by the bootstrap method, indirect impact value, were reported, indicating whether discrimination had an indirect effect on continuance commitment. Accordingly, the indirect effect on discrimination and continuance commitment is significant; therefore conscientiousness appears to mediate the relationship between discrimination and continuance commitment ($b = .08$, 95% CI $[.0214 \text{ } .1519]$). The indirect impact value (.08) can be interpreted as the continuance commitment of the employee whose perception of discrimination in one employee is one unit higher than the other employee is .08 units.

Regression analysis based on bootstrap method was performed to test whether conscientiousness had a mediating role in the effect of discrimination perceptions of academicians on continuance commitment. Regression analysis results for this purpose are

given in Table 121. Discrimination has an indirect effect on continuance commitment according to the confidence intervals obtained by the Bootstrap technique. Accordingly, it was found that the indirect effect of discrimination on continuance commitment was significant and therefore conscientiousness mediated the relationship between discrimination and continuance commitment ($b = .08$, 95% CI [.0214 .1519]). As a result of bootstrap analysis, corrected bias and accelerated confidence interval values (BCA CI) do not include 0 (zero).

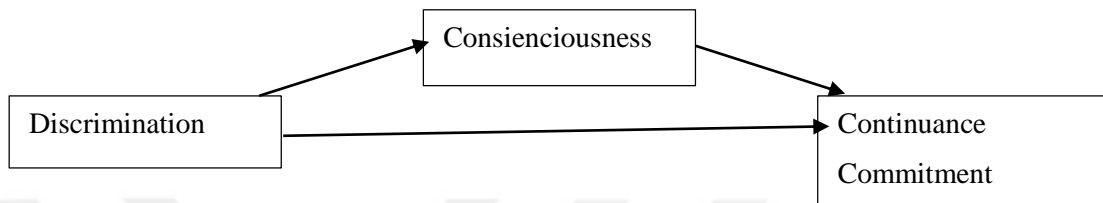


Table 121: Results of regression analysis of mediation analysis (N=334)

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	M (Conscientiousness)		Y (Continuance Commitment)			
	b	s.e.	b	s.e.		
X (Discrimination)	a	-.2115**	.0740	c'	.0143	.0966
M (Conscientiousness)	-	-	-	b.	-.3778***	.0708
Sabit	İm	4.0011***	.1081	İy.	4.1836***	.3158
		R ² = .0240		R ² = .0817		
		F(1;332) = 8.1773; p < .005		F(2;331) = 14.719; p < .000		

Note. * p < .05 **, p < .01 ***, p < .001; se: Standart Error. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.5.5. The Mediating Effect of Conscientiousness Between Labeling and Continuance Commitment

Table 122: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4							
Y : Continuance Commitment							
X : Labeling							
M : Conscientiousness							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Conscientiousness							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1358	.0184	.3646	6.2336	1.0000	332.0000	.0130
Model							
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	3.9200	.0916	42.8170	.0000	3.7399	4.1001	

Labeling	-.1163	.0466	-2.4967	.0130	-.2079	-.0247
Standardized coefficients						
coeff						
Labeling	-.1358					

Table 123: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Continuance Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.2869	.0823	.6032	14.8472	2.0000	331.0000	.0000
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.1353	.3007	13.7521	.0000	3.5438	4.7269
Labeling	.0306	.0605	.5065	.6128	-.0883	.1496
Conscientiousness	-.3746	.0706	-5.3067	.0000	-.5134	-.2357
Standardized coefficients						
coeff						
Labeling	.0269					
consient	-.2820					

Table 124: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Continuance Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.0652	.0043	.6525	1.4177	1.0000	332.0000	.2346
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.6670	.1225	21.7769	.0000	2.4261	2.9079
Labeling	.0742	.0623	1.1907	.2346	-.0484	.1968
Standardized coefficients						
coeff						
Labeling	.0652					

Table 125: X (Labeling) – M (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.0742	.0623	1.1907	.2346	-.0484	.1968	.0918	.0652
Direct effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0306	.0605	.5065	.6128	-.0883	.1496	.0379	.0269
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Conscientiousness	.0436	.0203	.0085	.0877			
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Conscientiousness	.0539	.0248	.0104	.1073			
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Conscientiousness	.0383	.0175	.0074	.0758			

Table 122 (Part 1) shows the results of regression analysis showing the effect of labeling on conscientiousness. Accordingly, labeling appears to have a significant and negative effect on conscientiousness ($b = -.1163$, 95% CI $[-.2079 \text{ } -.0247]$, $t = -2.4967$, $p = .013$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Labeling explains about 2% ($R^2 = .018$) of the change in conscientiousness.

Table 123 (Part 2) shows the effects of conscientiousness, the mediating variable, on labeling and continuance commitment. Conscientiousness appears to have a significant and negative effect on continuance commitment ($b = -.375$, 95% CI $[-.5134, \text{ } -.2357]$, $t = -5.3067$, $p = .000$). Labeling appears to have no significant effect on continuance commitment ($b = .0306$, 95% CI $[-0.883 \text{ } .1496]$, $t = .5065$, $p = .61$).

Table 124 (Part 3) shows the effect of labeling on continuance commitment, ie the total effect, in a model without mediating variable. Accordingly, in the absence of conscientiousness, labeling does not have a significant effect on continuance commitment ($b = .0742$, 95% CI $[-.0484 \text{ } .1968]$, $t = 1.1907$, $p = .23$).

Table 125 (Part 4) summarizes the findings of the direct and total effects of labeling on continuance commitment. Then, the confidence intervals obtained by the bootstrap method were reported, indicating whether the labeling had an indirect effect on continuance commitment. Accordingly, the indirect effect on labeling and continuance commitment was significant; therefore conscientiousness appears to mediate the relationship between labeling and continuance commitment ($b = .04$, 95% CI $[-.0085 \text{ } .0877]$). The indirect impact value (.04) can be interpreted as the continuance commitment of the employee whose perception of labeling in one employee is one unit higher than the other employee.

Regression analysis based on bootstrap method was performed in order to test whether conscientiousness had a mediating role in the effect of labeling perceptions of academicians on continuance commitment. Regression analysis results for this purpose are given in Table 126. Whether labeling has an indirect effect on continuance commitment has been determined according to the confidence intervals obtained by bootstrap technique. Accordingly, it was found that the indirect effect of labeling on continuance commitment was significant, and that conscientiousness mediated the relationship between labeling and

continuance commitment ($b = .04$, 95% CI [.0085, .0877]). As a result of bootstrap analysis, corrected bias and accelerated confidence interval values (BCA CI) do not include 0 (zero).

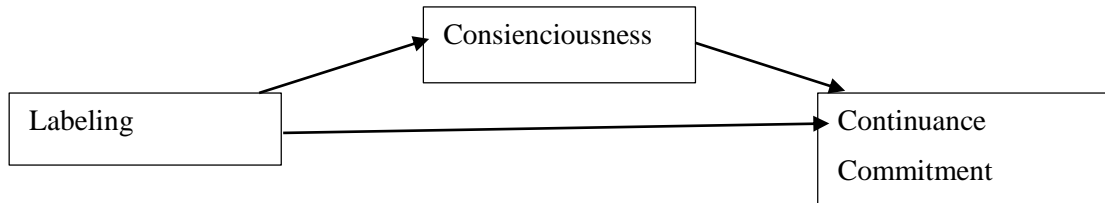


Table 126: Results of regression analysis of mediation analysis (n=334)

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable				
		M (Conscientiousness)			Y (Continuance Commitment)	
		b	s.e.		b	s.e.
X (Labeling)	a	-.1163**	.0466	c'	.0306	.0605
M (Conscientiousness)	-	-	-	b.	-.3746***	.0706
Sabit	Im	3.9200***	.0916	ÿ.	4.1353***	.3007
		$R^2 = .0184$			$R^2 = .0823$	
		$F(1;332) = 6.2336; p < .013$			$F(2;331) = 14.847; p < .000$	

Note. * $p < .05$ **, $p < .01$ ***, $p < .001$; se: Standart Error. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.5.6. The Mediating Effect of Emotional Stability Between Prejudice and Continuance Commitment

Table 127: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4						
Y : Continuance Commitment						
X : Prejudice						
M : Emotional Stability						
Size: 334						
OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Emotional Stability						
Model Summary						
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
	.1643	.0270	.4526	9.2135	1.0000	332.0000
						p
						.0026
Model						
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
						ULCI
	constant	2.3107	.1329	17.3821	.0000	2.0492
	Prejudice	.1355	.0446	3.0354	.0026	.0477
						.2233
Standardized coefficients						
		coeff				
	Prejudice	.1643				

Table 128: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2343	.0549	.6212	9.6154	2.0000	331.0000	.0001

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.9166	.2152	8.9050	.0000	1.4932	2.3400
Prejudice	.0765	.0530	1.4427	.1500	-.0278	.1808
Emotional Stability	.2474	.0643	3.8478	.0001	.1209	.3739

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Prejudice	.0782
Emotional Stability	.2084

Table 129: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1124	.0126	.6470	4.2485	1.0000	332.0000	.0401

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.4882	.1589	15.6557	.0000	2.1756	2.8009
Prejudice	.1100	.0534	2.0612	.0401	.0050	.2150

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Prejudice	.1124

Table 130: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.1100	.0534	2.0612	.0401	.0050	.2150	.1361	.1124

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0765	.0530	1.4427	.1500	-.0278	.1808	.0946	.0782

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Emotional Stability	.0335	.0141	.0097	.0650

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Emotional Stability	.0415	.0173	.0121	.0797

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Emotional Stability	.0343	.0143	.0101	.0658

Table 127 (Part 1) shows the results of regression analysis showing the effect of prejudice on emotional stability. According to this, prejudice has a significant and positive

effect on emotional stability ($b = .1355$, 95% CI [.0477 .2233], $t = 3.0354$, $p = .003$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Prejudice explains about 3% ($R^2 = .027$) of the change in emotional stability.

Table 128 (Part 2) shows the effects of emotional stability, which is a mediating variable, on prejudice and continuance commitment. Emotional stability appears to have a significant and positive effect on continuance commitment ($b = .2474$, 95% CI [.1209 .3739], $t = 3.8478$, $p = .000$). Prejudice does not seem to have a significant effect on continuance commitment ($b = .0765$, 95% CI [-.0278 .1808], $t = 1.4427$, $p = .15$).

Table 129 (Part 3) shows the effect of prejudice on continuance commitment, ie the total effect, in a model without mediating variable. Accordingly, it appears to have a significant and positive effect on prejudice, continuance commitment in the absence of emotional stability ($b = .1100$, 95% CI [.0050 .2150], $t = 2.0612$, $p = .04$).

Table 130 (Part 4) summarizes the findings of the direct and total effects of prejudice on continuance commitment. Then, the confidence intervals obtained by the bootstrap method of indirect effect value, which shows whether prejudice has an indirect effect on continuance commitment, are reported. Accordingly, the indirect effect on prejudice and continuance commitment was significant; therefore, emotional stability appears to mediate the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment ($b = .034$, 95% CI [.0097 .0650]). The indirect impact value (.034) can be interpreted as the continuance commitment of the employee whose prejudice perception is higher in one employee than the other employee is .034 units.

Regression analysis based on bootstrap method was performed in order to test whether emotional stability had a mediating role in the effect of prejudic perceptions of academicians on continuance commitment. Regression analysis results for this purpose are given in Table 131. Whether prejudice had an indirect effect on continuance commitment was determined according to the confidence intervals obtained by the bootstrap technique. Accordingly, it was found that the indirect effect of prejudice on continuance commitment was significant, and therefore, emotional stability mediated the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment ($b = .034$, 95% CI [.0097 .0650]). As a result of bootstrap analysis, corrected bias and accelerated confidence interval values (BCA CI) do not include 0 (zero).

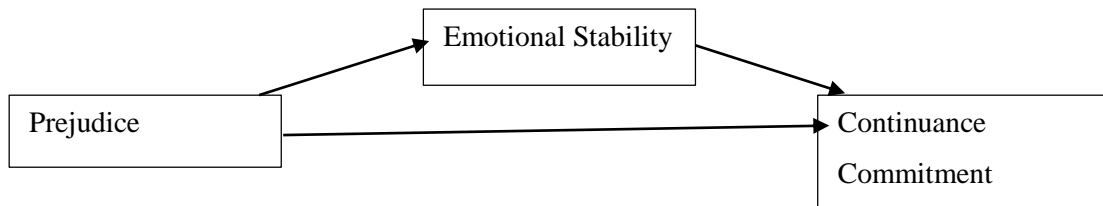


Table 131: Results of regression analysis of mediation analysis

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable					
	M (Emotional Stability)			Y (Continuance Commitment)		
	a	b	s.e.	c'	b	s.e.
X (Prejudice)		.1355**	.0446		.0765	.0530
M (Emotional Stability)	-	-	-	b	.2474***	.0643
Sabit	Im	2.3107***	.1329	Iy.	1.9166***	.2152
		R ² = .0270				
		F(1;332) = 9.2135; p < .003		R ² = .0549		
				F(2;331) = 9.6154; p < .000		

Note. * p < .05 **, p < .01 ***, p < .001; se: Standart Error. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.6. Moderators

4.6.1. The Moderating Effect of Emotional Stability Between Labeling and Organizational Commitment

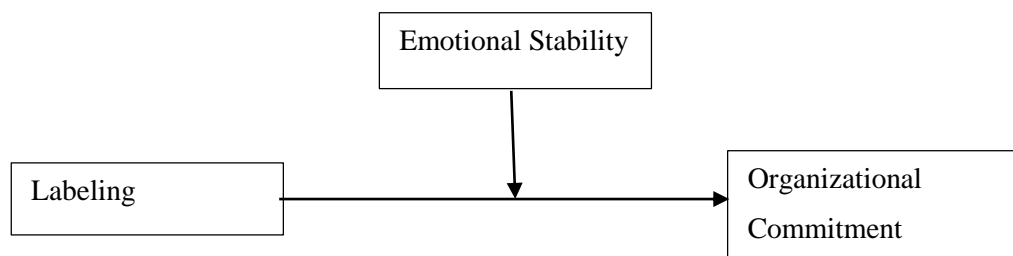
Table 132: X (Labeling) – W (Emotional Stability) – Y (Organizational Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Organizational Commitment							
X : Labeling							
W : Emotional Stability							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Organizational Commitment							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1340	.0179	.3378	2.0099	3.0000	330.0000	.1124
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.0774	.0318	96.6216	.0000	3.0147	3.1400
Labeling		.0555	.0449	1.2358	.2174	-.0329	.1439
Emotional Stability		-.0375	.0469	-.7998	.4244	-.1296	.0547
Int_1		-.1207	.0602	-2.0043	.0459	-.2391	-.0022
Product terms key:							
Int_1: Labeling x Emotional Stability							
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chng	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0120	4.0173	1.0000	330.0000	.0459		
Focal predict: Labeling (X)							
Mod var: Emotional Stability (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Emotional Stability	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
	-.6984	.1398	.0618	2.2609	.0244	.0182	.2614

.0516	.0493	.0450	1.0953	.2742	-.0392	.1378
.6766	-.0261	.0603	-.4331	.6652	-.1448	.0926

Table 132 shows the names of the variables included in the analysis. It is seen that all independent variables explain about 2% ($R^2 = .018$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = -.1207$, CI [-.2391 -.0022], $t = -2.0043$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at the ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where emotional stability is low (-.6984), medium (.0516) and high (.6766), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of labeling on organizational commitment are significant. Because the moderate variable is centralized at this point, the value of the low value represents at a standard deviation of -1 from the center, the value of the high value represents at a standard deviation of +1 from the center and the value of the middle value is close to 0. (In all subsequent moderation analyzes, these three values will not be repeated because they mean the same thing). Accordingly, when emotional stability is low, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is significant ($b = .1398$, CI [.0182 .2614], $t = 2.2609$, $p = .024$). When emotional stability is medium ($b = .0493$, CI [-.0392 .1378], $t = 1.0953$, $p = .27$) and high ($b = .6766$, CI [-.1448 .0926], $t = -.4331$, $p < .67$), the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is not significant. The findings mean that employees with low emotional stability have a greater impact on labeling in organizational commitment. As the emotional stability increases, the negative effect of labeling decreases.



4.6.2. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Labeling and Organizational Commitment

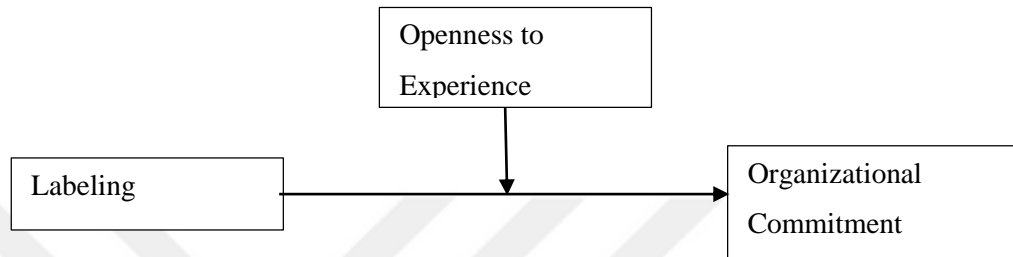
Table 133: X (Labeling) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Organizational Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Organizational Commitment							
X : Labeling							
W : Openness to Experience							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Organizational Commitment							
Model Summary							
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1441	.0208	.3368	2.3326	3.0000	330.0000	.0740
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.0840	.0321	96.1336	.0000	3.0209	3.1471
Labeling		.0563	.0453	1.2440	.2144	-.0327	.1454
Openness to Experience		.0265	.0343	.7713	.4411	-.0410	.0940
Int_1		.1034	.0466	2.2209	.0270	.0118	.1950
Product terms key:							
Int_1	:	Labeling x	Openness to Experience				
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chng	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0146	4.9323	1.0000	330.0000	.0270		
Focal predict: Labeling (X)							
Table 133: (Continued)							
Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
-1.0918	-.0566	.0686	-.8245	.4103	-.1916	.0784	
.2415	.0813	.0465	1.7497	.0811	-.0101	.1727	
.9082	.1502	.0614	2.4458	.0150	.0294	.2711	

In Table 133, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 2% ($R^2 = .02$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = .1034$, CI [.0118, .1950], $t = 2.2209$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of labeling on organizational commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is insignificant ($b = -.0566$, CI [-.1916,

.0784], $t = -.8245$, $p = .41$). When openness to experience is medium, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is insignificant ($b = .0813$, CI $[-.0101, .1727]$, $t = 1.7497$, $p = .08$). When openness to experience is high, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is significant ($b = .1502$, CI $[.0294, .2711]$, $t = 2.4458$, $p = .02$). The findings mean that employees with high openness to experience have a greater impact on labeling in organizational commitment. As the openness to experience increases, the negative effect of labeling increases.



4.6.3. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Psychological Health and Organizational Commitment

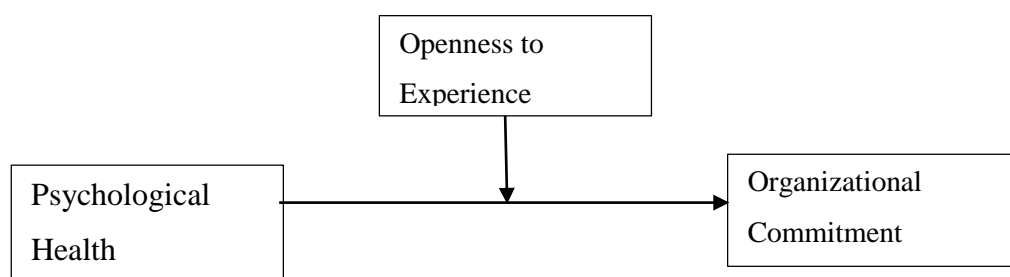
Table 134: X (Psychological Health) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Organizational Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Organizational Commitment							
X : Psychological Health							
W : Openness to Experience							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Organizational Commitment							
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.1976	.0390	.3305	4.4697	3.0000	330.0000	.0043	
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.0820	.0317	97.2017	.0000	3.0196	3.1443
Psychological Health		.1148	.0355	3.2322	.0014	.0449	.1847
Openness to Experience		.0329	.0339	.9688	.3334	-.0339	.0996
Int_1		.0724	.0356	2.0348	.0427	.0024	.1424
Product terms key:							
Int_1 : Psychological Health x Openness to Experience							
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0121	4.1405	1.0000	330.0000	.0427		

Focal predict: Psychological Health (X)							
Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
-1.0918	.0358	.0488	.7334	.4638	-.0602	.1317	
.2415	.1323	.0377	3.5077	.0005	.0581	.2066	
.9082	.1806	.0513	3.5191	.0005	.0797	.2816	

In Table 134, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 4% ($R^2 = .04$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = .0724$, CI [.0024, .1424], $t = 2.0348$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of psychological health on organizational commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the positive relationship between psychological health and organizational commitment is insignificant ($b = .0358$, CI [-.0602, .1317], $t = .7334$, $p = .46$). When openness to experience is medium, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is significant ($b = .1323$, CI [.0581, .2066], $t = 3.5077$, $p = .00$). When openness to experience is high, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is significant ($b = .1806$, CI [.0797, .2816], $t = 3.5191$, $p = .00$). The findings mean that employees with medium and high openness to experience have a greater impact on psychological health in organizational commitment. As the openness to experience increases, the negative effect of psychological health increases.



4.6.4. The Moderating Effect of Agreeableness Between Psychological Health and Organizational Commitment

Table 135: X (Psychological Health) – W (Agreeableness) – Y (Organizational Commitment)

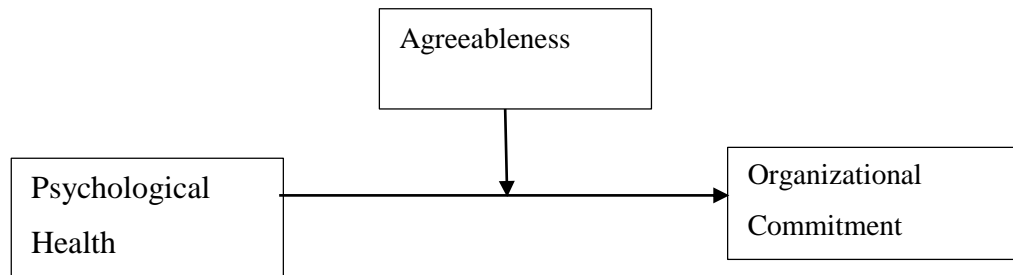
Model : 1
 Y : Organizational Commitment
 X : Psychological Health

W : Agreeableness							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Organizational Commitment							
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.2588	.0670	.3209	7.8945	3.0000	330.0000	.0000	
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.0784	.0311	99.0421	.0000	3.0172	3.1395
Psychological Health		.0932	.0345	2.7033	.0072	.0254	.1610
Agreeableness		.2177	.0613	3.5517	.0004	.0971	.3382
Int_1		-.1285	.0652	-1.9716	.0495	-.2568	-.0003
Product terms key:							
Int_1 : Psychological Health x Agreeableness							
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chng	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0110	3.8872	1.0000	330.0000	.0495		

Focal predict: Psychological Health (X)							
Mod var: Agreeableness (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Agreeableness	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
-.5546	.1645	.0508	3.2395	.0013	.0646	.2644	
-.0546	.1002	.0348	2.8820	.0042	.0318	.1686	
.4454	.0359	.0443	.8106	.4182	-.0513	.1231	

In Table 135, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 7% ($R^2 = .067$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = -.1285$, CI [-.2568, -.0003], $t = -1.9716$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-.5546), medium (-.0546) and high (.4454), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of psychological health on organizational commitment are significant. Accordingly, when agreeableness is low, the positive relationship between psychological health and organizational commitment is insignificant ($b = .1645$, CI [.0646, .2644], $t = 3.2395$, $p = .001$). When agreeableness is medium, the positive relationship between labeling and organizational commitment is significant ($b = .1002$, CI [.0318, .1686], $t = 2.8820$, $p = .004$). When agreeableness is high, the positive relationship between psychological health and organizational commitment is insignificant ($b = .0359$, CI [-.0513, .1231], $t = .8106$, $p = .42$). The findings mean that employees with low and medium agreeableness have a greater impact on psychological health in organizational commitment. As the agreeableness decreases, the negative effect of psychological health increases.



4.6.5. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Stigmatization and Affective Commitment

Table 136: X (Stigmatization) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Affective Commitment)

Model : 1
 Y : Affective Commitment
 X : Stigmatization
 W : Openness to Experience
 Sample Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Affective Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1863	.0347	.8365	3.9531	3.0000	330.0000	.0086

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.3612	.0505	66.6198	.0000	3.2619	3.4604
Stigmatization	.0799	.0978	.8167	.4147	-.1125	.2723
Openness to Experience	.0523	.0540	.9675	.3340	-.0540	.1586
Int_1	.3164	.0996	3.1757	.0016	.1204	.5124

Product terms key:
 Int_1 : Stigmatization x Openness to Experience

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0295	10.0850	1.0000	330.0000	.0016

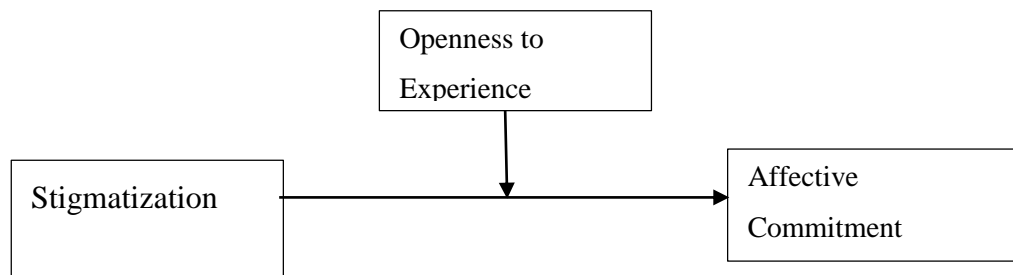
 Focal predict: Stigmatization (X)
 Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
	-1.0918	-.2656	.1465	-1.8126	.0708	-.5539	.0227
	.2415	.1563	.1006	1.5530	.1214	-.0417	.3543
	.9082	.3672	.1330	2.7610	.0061	.1056	.6289

In Table 136, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 4% ($R^2 = .035$) of the change on affective commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = .3164$, CI [.1204, .5124], $t = 3.1757$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of stigmatization on affective commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the positive relationship between stigmatization and affective commitment is insignificant ($b = -.2656$, CI [-.5539, .0227], $t = -1.8126$, $p = .07$). When openness to experience is medium, the positive relationship between stigmatization and affective commitment is insignificant ($b = .1563$, CI [-.0411, .3543], $t = 1.5530$, $p = .12$). When openness to experience is high, the positive relationship between stigmatization and affective commitment is significant ($b = .3672$, CI [.1056, .6289], $t = 2.7610$, $p = .006$). The findings mean that employees with high openness to experience have a greater impact on stigmatization in affective commitment. As the openness to experience increases, the negative effect of stigmatization increases.



4.6.6. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Labeling and Affective Commitment

Table 137: X (Labeling) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Affective Commitment)

Model : 1
 Y : Affective Commitment
 X : Labeling
 W : Openness to Experience
 Sample
 Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Affective Commitment

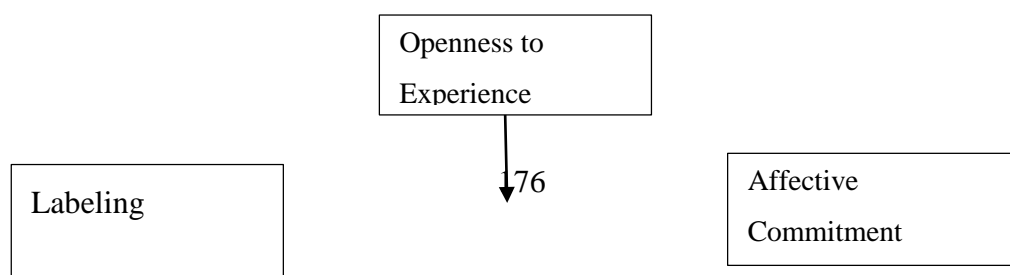
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.1928	.0372	.8343	4.2446	3.0000	330.0000	.0058	
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.3643	.0505	66.6341	.0000	3.2650	3.4636
Labeling		.0624	.0713	.8755	.3819	-.0778	.2025
Openness to Experience		.0584	.0540	1.0813	.2803	-.0478	.1647
Int_1		.2406	.0733	3.2825	.0011	.0964	.3847
Product terms key:							
Int_1	:	Labeling x	Openness to Experience				
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0314	10.7748	1.0000	330.0000	.0011		

Focal predict: Labeling (X)
 Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
-1.0918	-.2003	.1080	-1.8538	.0647	-.4128	.0123	
.2415	.1205	.0731	1.6476	.1004	-.0234	.2643	
.9082	.2809	.0967	2.9051	.0039	.0907	.4710	

In Table 137, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 4% ($R^2 = .037$) of the change on affective commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = .2406$, CI [.0964, .3847], $t = 3.2825$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of stigmatization on affective commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the positive relationship between labeling and affective commitment is insignificant ($b = -.2003$, CI [-.4128, .0123], $t = -1.8538$, $p = .06$). When openness to experience is medium, the positive relationship between labeling and affective commitment is insignificant ($b = .1205$, CI [-.0234, .2643], $t = 1.6476$, $p = .10$). When openness to experience is high, the positive relationship between labeling and affective commitment is significant ($b = .2809$, CI [.0907, .4710], $t = 2.9051$, $p = .004$). The findings mean that employees with high openness to experience have a greater impact on labeling in affective commitment. As the openness to experience increases, the negative effect of labeling increases.





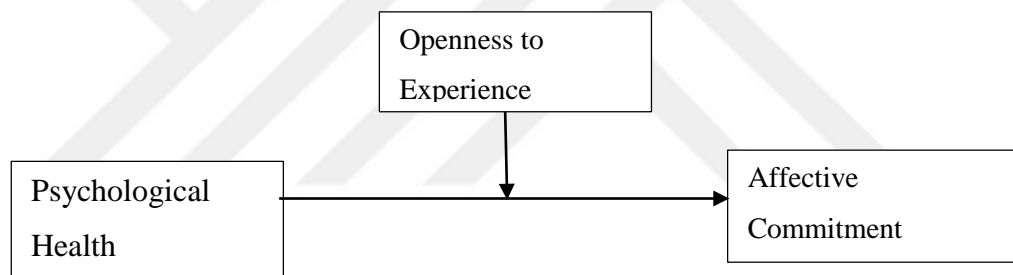
4.6.7. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Psychological Health and Affective Commitment

Table 138: X (Psychological Health) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Affective Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Affective Commitment							
X : Psychological Health							
W : Openness to Experience							
Sample Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE: Affective Commitment							
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.2623	.0688	.8069	8.1279	3.0000	330.0000	.0000	
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.3616	.0495	67.8570	.0000	3.2641	3.4590
Psychological Health		.2169	.0555	3.9067	.0001	.1077	.3261
Openness to Experience		.0736	.0530	1.3886	.1659	-.0307	.1779
Int_1		.1865	.0556	3.3545	.0009	.0771	.2959
Product terms key:							
Int_1 : Psychological Health x Openness to Experience							
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chng	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0318	11.2526	1.0000	330.0000	.0009		
Focal predict: Psychological Health (X)							
Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
	-1.0918	.0132	.0762	.1734	.8624	-.1367	.1631
	.2415	.2619	.0589	4.4436	.0000	.1460	.3779
	.9082	.3863	.0802	4.8170	.0000	.2285	.5440

In Table 138, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 7% ($R^2 = .07$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = .1865$, $CI [.0771, .2959]$, $t = 3.3545$, $p < .001$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of psychological health on affective commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the positive relationship between psychological health and affective commitment is insignificant ($b = .0132$, CI [- .1367, .1631], $t = .1734$, $p = .86$). When openness to experience is medium, the positive relationship between psychological health and affective commitment is significant ($b = .2619$, CI [.1460, .3779], $t = 4.4436$, $p = .00$). When openness to experience is high, the positive relationship between psychological health and affective commitment is significant ($b = .3863$, CI [.2285, .5440], $t = 4.8170$, $p = .00$). The findings mean that employees with medium and high openness to experience have a greater impact on psychological health in affective commitment. As the openness to experience increases, the negative effect of psychological health increases.



4.6.8. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Prejudice and Affective Commitment

Table 139: X (Prejudice) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Affective Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Affective Commitment							
X : Prejudice							
W : Openness to Experience							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Affective Commitment							
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.1953	.0381	.8335	4.3628	3.0000	330.0000	.0050	
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		3.3441	.0500	66.9104	.0000	3.2458	3.4425
Prejudice		-.1819	.0610	-2.9818	.0031	-.3019	-.0619
Openness to Experience		.0326	.0541	.6017	.5478	-.0739	.1390
Int_1		.1306	.0625	2.0908	.0373	.0077	.2536

Product terms key:
Int_1 : Prejudice x Openness to Experience
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0127	4.3716	1.0000	330.0000	.0373

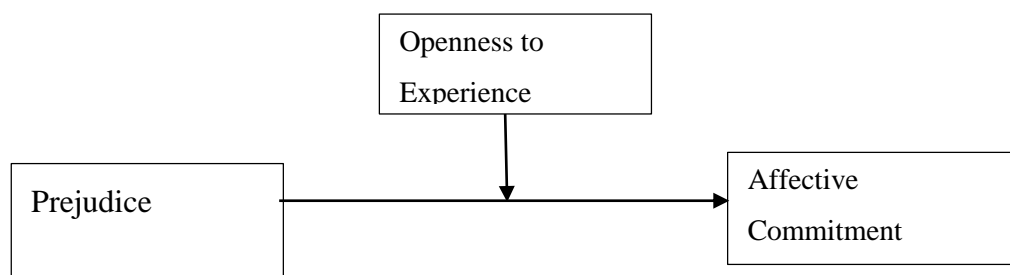
Focal predict: Prejudice (X)
Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1.0918	-.3245	.0966	-3.3606	.0009	-.5145	-.1346
.2415	-.1504	.0611	-2.4589	.0144	-.2706	-.0301
.9082	-.0633	.0784	-.8067	.4204	-.2175	.0910

In Table 139, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 4% ($R^2 = .04$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = .1306$, CI [.0077, .2536], $t = -.8067$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of prejudice on affective commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the negative relationship between prejudice and affective commitment is significant ($b = -.3245$, CI [-.5145, -.1346], $t = -3.3606$, $p = .00$). When openness to experience is medium, the negative relationship between prejudice and affective commitment is significant ($b = -.1504$, CI [-.2706, -.0301], $t = -2.4489$, $p = .01$). When openness to experience is high, the negative relationship between prejudice and affective commitment is insignificant ($b = -.0633$, CI [-.2175, .0910], $t = -.8067$, $p = .42$). The findings mean that employees with low and medium openness to experience have a greater impact on prejudice in affective commitment. As the openness to experience decreases, the negative effect of prejudice decreases.



4.6.9. The Moderating Effect of Openness to Experience Between Prejudice and Continuance Commitment

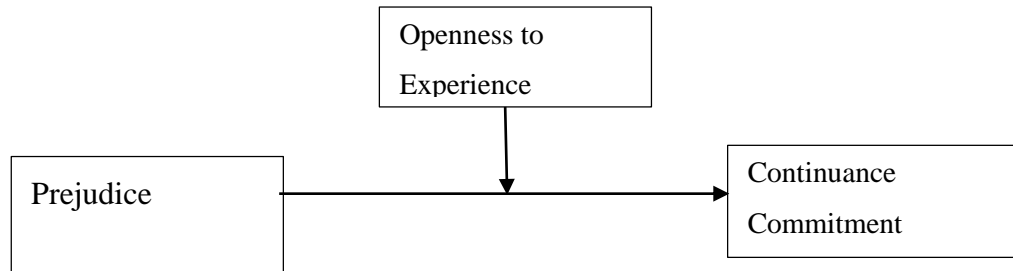
Table 140: X (Prejudice) – W (Openness to Experience) – Y (Continuance Commitment)

Model : 1						
Y : Continuance Commitment						
X : Prejudice						
W : Openness to Experience						
Sample						
Size: 334						
OUTCOME VARIABLE:						
Continuance Commitment						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.1735	.0301	.6394	3.4146	3.0000	330.0000	.0177
Model						
Table 140: (Continued)						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.7996	.0438	63.9525	.0000	2.7135	2.8857
Prejudice	.1247	.0534	2.3344	.0202	.0196	.2299
Openness to Experience	.0150	.0474	.3171	.7514	-.0782	.1083
Int_1	-.1334	.0547	-2.4369	.0153	-.2410	-.0257
Product terms key:						
Int_1 : Prejudice x Openness to Experience						
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):						
	R ² -chng	F	df1	df2	p	
X*W	.0175	5.9383	1.0000	330.0000	.0153	
Focal predict: Prejudice (X)						
Mod var: Openness to Experience (W)						
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):						
Openness to Experience	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1.0918	.2703	.0846	3.1961	.0015	.1039	.4367
.2415	.0925	.0536	1.7276	.0850	-.0128	.1979
.9082	.0036	.0687	.0527	.9580	-.1315	.1388

In Table 140, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 3% ($R^2 = .03$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = -.1334$, CI [-.2410, -.0257], $t = -2.4369$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-1.0918), medium (.2415) and high (.9082), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of prejudice on continuance commitment are significant. Accordingly, when openness to experience is low, the negative relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is significant ($b = .2703$, CI [.1039, .4367], $t = 3.1961$, $p = .002$). When openness to experience is medium, the negative relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is insignificant ($b = .0925$, CI [-.0128,

.1979], $t = 1.7276$, $p = .09$). When openness to experience is high, the negative relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is insignificant ($b = .0036$, CI [-.1315, .1388], $t = .0527$, $p = .96$). The findings mean that employees with low openness to experience have a greater impact on prejudice in continuance commitment. As the openness to experience decreases, the positive effect of prejudice decreases.



4.6.10. The Moderating Effect of Conscientiousness Between Prejudice and Continuance Commitment

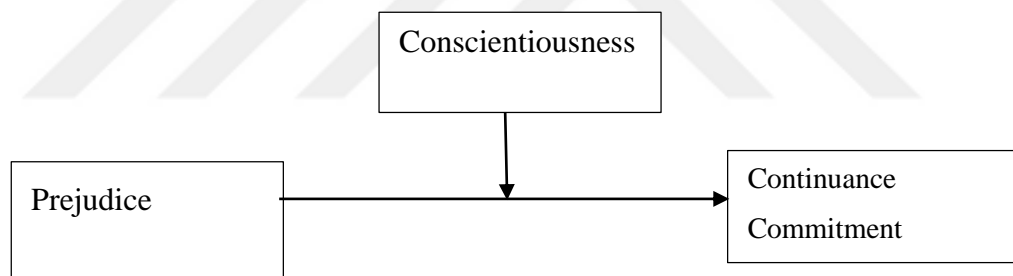
Table 141: X (Prejudice) – W (Conscientiousness) – Y (Continuance Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Continuance Commitment							
X : Prejudice							
W : Conscientiousness							
Sample Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE: Continuance Commitment							
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.3353	.1124	.5852	13.9316	3.0000	330.0000	.0000	
Model							
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
constant	2.8085	.0419	66.9889	.0000	2.7260	2.8910	
Prejudice	.1444	.0514	2.8062	.0053	.0432	.2456	
Conscientiousness	-.3797	.0691	-5.4942	.0000	-.5157	-.2438	
Int_1	-.1935	.0842	-2.2982	.0222	-.3592	-.0279	
Product terms key:							
Int_1 : Prejudice x Conscientiousness							
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
	R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p		
X*W	.0142	5.2816	1.0000	330.0000	.0222		
Focal predict: Prejudice (X)							
Mod var: Conscientiousness (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Conscientiousness	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
-.7068	.2811	.0844	3.3305	.0010	.1151	.4472	
.0432	.1360	.0510	2.6660	.0081	.0356	.2363	
.5432	.0392	.0634	.6190	.5363	-.0855	.1639	

In Table 141, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 11% ($R^2 = .11$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the

confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant (b= -.1935, CI [-.3592, -.0279], t= -2.2982, p< .05).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where openness to experience is low (-.7068), medium (.0432) and high (.5432), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of prejudice on continuance commitment are significant. Accordingly, when conscientiousness is low, the negative relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is significant (b= .2811, CI [.1151, .4472], t= 3.3305, p= .001). When conscientiousness is medium, the negative relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is significant (b= .1360, CI [.0356, .2363], t= 1.7276, p= .09). When conscientiousness is high, the negative relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment is insignificant (b= .0392, CI [-.0855, .1639], t= .6190, p= .54). The findings mean that employees with low and medium conscientiousness have a greater impact on prejudice in continuance commitment. As the conscientiousness decreases, the positive effect of prejudice decreases.



4.6.11. The Moderating Effect of Emotional Stability Between Labeling and Normative Commitment

Table 142: X (Labeling) – W (Emotional Stability) – Y (Normative Commitment)

Model : 1
 Y : Normative Commitment
 X : Labeling
 W : Emotional Stability
 Sample Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Normative Commitment
 Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1594	.0254	.7775	2.8661	3.0000	330.0000	.0367

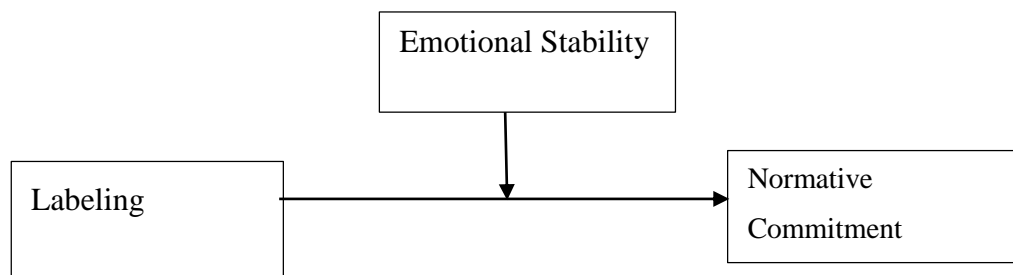
Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.0851	.0483	63.8476	.0000	2.9900	3.1801

Labeling	.0349	.0681	.5126	.6086	-.0991	.1690
Emotional Stability	-.0684	.0711	-.9624	.3366	-.2082	.0714
Int_1	-.2499	.0913	-2.7356	.0066	-.4296	-.0702
Product terms key:						
Int_1	:	Labeling x	Emotional Stability			
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):						
	R ² -chng	F	df1	df2	p	
X*W	.0221	7.4838	1.0000	330.0000	.0066	
Focal predict: Labeling (X)						
Mod var: Emotional Stability (W)						
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):						
Emotional Stability	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
	-.6984	.2094	.0938	2.2328	.0262	.0249 .3940
	.0516	.0220	.0683	.3228	.7470	-.1123 .1563
	.6766	-.1341	.0915	-1.4652	.1438	-.3142 .0460

In Table 142, it is seen that all independent variables explain about 3% ($R^2 = .03$) of the change on organizational commitment. In order for the moderating effect to exist, the b value of the interactive term (Int_1) should be statistically significant and the values of the confidence interval should not contain 0 (zero). The b value of Int_1 is significant ($b = -.2499$, CI [-.4296, -.0702], $t = -2.7356$, $p < .05$).

We need to look at ‘Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s)’ to understand how moderate occur. In cases where emotional stability is low (-.6984), medium (.0516) and high (.6766), three different regression statistics are given to determine whether the effects of labeling on normative commitment are significant. Accordingly, when emotional stability is low, the negative relationship between labeling and normative commitment is significant ($b = .2094$, CI [.0249, .3940], $t = 2.2328$, $p = .03$). When emotional stability is medium, the negative relationship between labeling and normative commitment is insignificant ($b = .0220$, CI [-.1123, .1563], $t = .3228$, $p = .75$). When emotional stability is high, the negative relationship between labeling and normative commitment is insignificant ($b = -.1341$, CI [-.3142, .0460], $t = -1.4652$, $p = .14$). The findings mean that employees with low emotional stability have a greater impact on labeling in normative commitment. As the emotional stability decreases, the positive effect of labeling decreases.



4.7. Moderated Mediation

4.7.1. The Mediating Effect of Emotional Stability Between Prejudice and Continuance Commitment

Table 143: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 1)

Model : 4
 Y : Continuance Commitment
 X : Prejudice
 M : Emotional Stability
 Sample
 Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Emotional Stability
 Model Summary

Table 143: (Continued)

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Model	.1643	.0270	.4526	9.2135	1.0000	332.0000	.0026
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		2.3107	.1329	17.3821	.0000	2.0492	2.5722
Prejudice		.1355	.0446	3.0354	.0026	.0477	.2233
Standardized coefficients		coeff					
Prejudice		.1643					

Table 144: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Continuance Commitment
 Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Model	.2343	.0549	.6212	9.6154	2.0000	331.0000	.0001
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		1.9166	.2152	8.9050	.0000	1.4932	2.3400
Prejudice		.0765	.0530	1.4427	.1500	-.0278	.1808
Emotional Stability		.2474	.0643	3.8478	.0001	.1209	.3739
Standardized coefficients		coeff					
Prejudice		.0782					
Emotional Stability		.2084					

Table 145: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 3)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Continuance Commitment
 Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
Model	.1124	.0126	.6470	4.2485	1.0000	332.0000	.0401
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		2.4882	.1589	15.6557	.0000	2.1756	2.8009
Prejudice		.1100	.0534	2.0612	.0401	.0050	.2150
Standardized coefficients							

	coeff
Prejudice	.1124

Table 146: X (Prejudice) – M (Emotional Stability) – Y (Continuance Commitment) (Part 4)

Total effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c_ps	c_cs
.1100	.0534	2.0612	.0401	.0050	.2150	.1361	.1124
Direct effect of X on Y							
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.0765	.0530	1.4427	.1500	-.0278	.1808	.0946	.0782
Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:							
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Emotional Stability	.0335	.0141	.0097	.0650			

Table 146: (Continued)

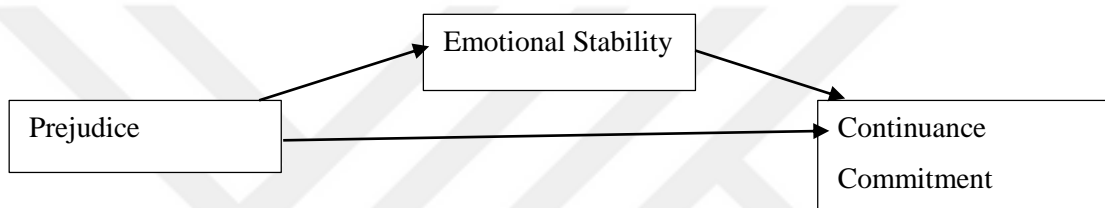
Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:				
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Emotional Stability	.0415	.0173	.0121	.0797
Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:				
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Emotional Stability	.0343	.0143	.0101	.0658

Table 143 (Part 1) shows the results of regression analysis showing the effect of prejudice on emotional stability. According to this, prejudice has a significant and positive effect on emotional stability ($b = .1355$, 95% CI [.0477, .2233], $t = 3.0354$, $p = .003$). Significance of non-standardized beta value is understood both because p value is less than .05 and values of confidence interval (CI) do not include 0 (zero) value. Prejudice explains about 3% ($R^2 = .027$) of the change in emotional stability.

Table 144 (Part 2) shows the effects of emotional stability, which is a mediating variable, on prejudice and continuance commitment. Emotional stability appears to have a significant and positive effect on continuance commitment ($b = .2474$, 95% CI [.1209, .3739], $t = 3.8478$, $p = .000$). Prejudice does not seem to have a significant effect on continuance commitment ($b = .0765$, 95% CI [-.0278, .1808], $t = 1.4427$, $p = .15$).

Table 145 (Part 3) shows the effect of prejudice on continuance commitment, ie the total effect, in a model without mediating variable. Accordingly, it appears to have a significant and positive effect on prejudice, continuance commitment in the absence of emotional stability ($b = .1100$, 95% CI [.0050, .2150], $t = 2.0612$, $p = .04$).

Table 146 (Part 4) summarizes the findings of the direct and total effects of prejudice on continuance commitment. Then, the confidence intervals obtained by the bootstrap method of indirect effect value, which shows whether prejudice has an indirect effect on continuance commitment, are reported. Accordingly, the indirect effect on prejudice and continuance commitment was significant; therefore, emotional stability appears to mediate the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment ($b = .034$, 95% CI [.0097, .0650]). The indirect impact value (.034) can be interpreted as the continuance commitment of the employee whose prejudic perception is higher in one employee than the other employee is .034 units.



4.7.2. The Moderating Effect of Marital Status Between Emotional Stability and Continuance Commitment

Table 147: X (Emotional Stability) – W (Marital Status) – Y (Continuance Commitment)

Model : 1							
Y : Continuance Commitment							
X : Emotional Stability							
W : Marital Status							
Sample							
Size: 334							
OUTCOME VARIABLE:							
Continuance Commitment							
Model Summary							
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p	
.2510	.0630	.6177	7.3971	3.0000	330.0000	.0001	
Model							
		coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant		2.7968	.0431	64.8946	.0000	2.7120	2.8816
Emotional Stability		.2682	.0634	4.2303	.0000	.1435	.3929
Marital Status		-.0454	.0977	-.4645	.6426	-.2376	.1468
Int_1		.3211	.1458	2.2023	.0283	.0343	.6078
Product terms key:							
Int_1 : Emotional Stability x Marital Status							
Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):							
		R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p	
X*W		.0138	4.8502	1.0000	330.0000	.0283	
Focal predict: Emotional Stability (X)							
Mod var: Marital Status (W)							
Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):							
Marital Status	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
	-.2665	.1827	.0733	2.4913	.0132	.0384	.3269

.7335	.5037	.1260	3.9979	.0001	.2559	.7516
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When the findings in Table 147 are examined, the effects of emotional stability, marital status and Int_1 variables on continuance commitment are shown. It is seen that all of these variables explain about 6% ($R^2 = .063$) of the change on continuance commitment. In addition, b (beta) values indicating the effects of each independent variable on the dependent variable and p values and confidence intervals showing significance levels are given beside them. The significance level of the value b of variable Int_1 is checked to see if the moderating effect exists. Marital status appears to have a moderating effect ($b = .3211$, 95% CI [.0343, .6078], $t = 2.2023$, $p < .05$).

To check how the moderating effect differs between emotional stability and continuance commitment in married and single academics, we look at the ‘conditional effects of the moderators’ section. The first row below the marital status represents the married ones and the second row represents the singles. Because while the coding was done in spss, the married ones were given ‘1’ and the single ones were given ‘2’. As the moderating variable is centralized in the analysis, the value of the low value is -1 standard deviation away from the center, and the higher value is +1, the standard deviation away.

Marital status of married (-.2665), the positive relationship between emotional stability and continuance commitment is significant ($b = .1827$, 95% CI [.0384 .3269], $t = 2.4913$, $p = .013$). The positive relationship between emotional stability and continuance commitment was significant in patients with single marital status (.7335) ($b = .5037$, 95% CI [.2559 .7516], $t = 3.9979$, $p = .000$). Therefore, the positive effect of emotional stability on continuance commitment is stronger in those with single academicians.

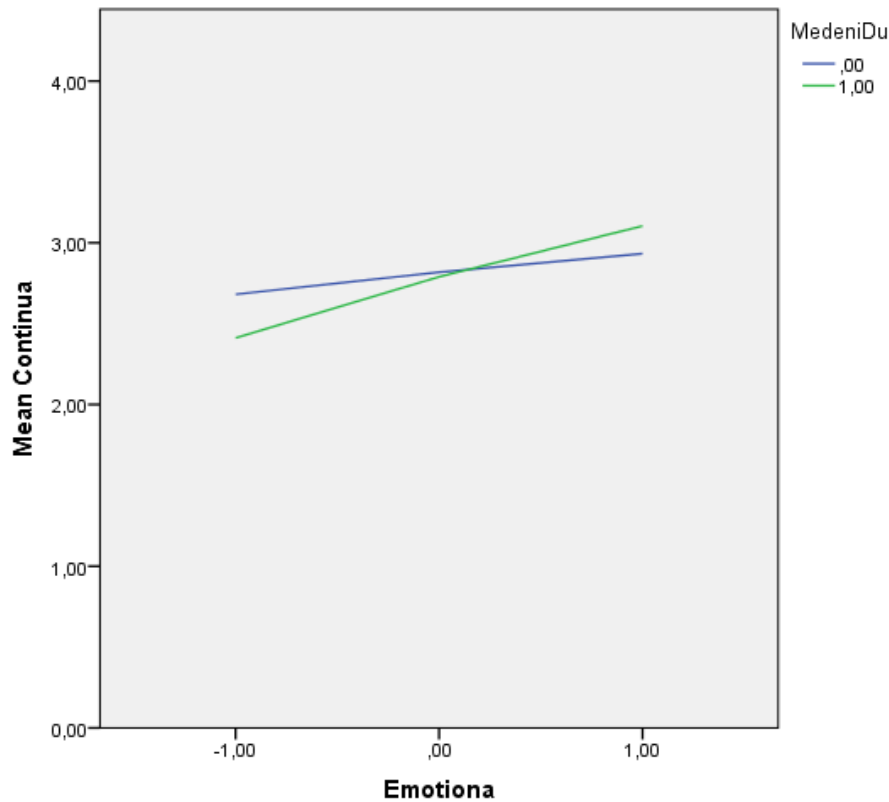


Figure 7: Graph of emotional stability with continuance commitment by marital status

As can be seen in Figure 7, the moderating effect is stronger in singles. In cases where the moderating effect is high, the line becomes more oblique and in the case of less, it is closer to the level. Table 148 shows the regression analysis results that showing moderating impact.

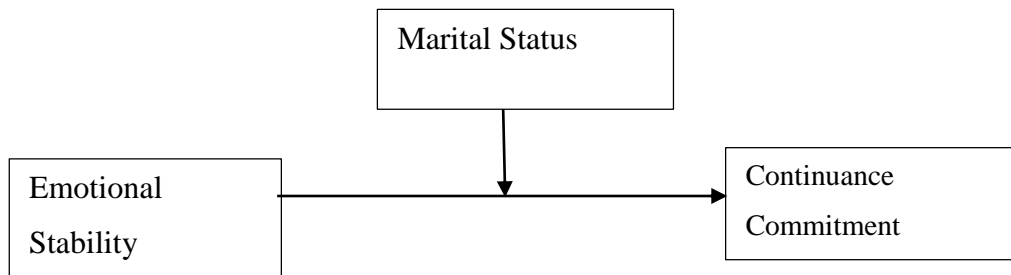


Table 148: Regression analysis results showing moderating impact (N=334)

Variables	b	S.E.	t
Constant	2.7968*** [2.71, 2.88]	.0431	64.8946
Emotional Stability (X)	.2682*** [.14, .39]	.0634	4.2303
Marital Status (W)	-.0454 [-.24, .15]	.0977	-.4645
X.W	.3211* [.03, .60]	.1458	2.2023

Note: R= .25, R²= .063; *** p< .001, ** p< .01, * p< .05. S.E.: Standart Error, Values in parentheses are confidence intervals. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

4.7.3. The Moderated Mediation Analysis

Table 149: Moderated mediation analysis (part 1)

Model : 14
 Y : Continuance Commitment
 X : Prejudice
 M : Emotional Stability
 W : Marital Status
 Sample
 Size: 334
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Emotional Stability

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.1643	.0270	.4526	9.2135	1.0000	332.0000	.0026

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-.3877	.1329	-2.9167	.0038	-.6492	-.1262
Prejudice	.1355	.0446	3.0354	.0026	.0477	.2233

Table 150: Moderated mediation analysis (part 2)

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.2618	.0685	.6160	6.0504	4.0000	329.0000	.0001

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.5860	.1571	16.4599	.0000	2.2769	2.8950
Prejudice	.0737	.0528	1.3953	.1639	-.0302	.1776
Emotional Stability	.2533	.0642	3.9452	.0001	.1270	.3796
Marital Status	-.0413	.0976	-.4227	.6728	-.2333	.1508
Int_1	.3169	.1456	2.1762	.0303	.0304	.6033

Product terms key:
 Int_1 : Emotional Stability x Marital Status

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R ² -chg	F	df1	df2	p
M*W	.0134	4.7359	1.0000	329.0000	.0303

Focal predict: Emotional Stability (M)
 Mod var: Marital Status (W)

Table 151: Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s) (part 3)

Marital Status	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
	-.2665	.1689	.0739	2.2858	.0229	.0235	.3142
	.7335	.4857	.1265	3.8405	.0001	.2369	.7345

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
 Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
 Emotional Stability Marital Status Continuance Commitment .
 BEGIN DATA.

- .6984	-.2665	2.6899
.0516	-.2665	2.8166
.6766	-.2665	2.9221
-.6984	.7335	2.4274
.0516	.7335	2.7917
.6766	.7335	3.0953

END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
Emotional Stability WITH Continuance Commitment BY Marital Status .

Table 152: Direct and indirect effects of X on Y (part 4)

Direct effect of X on Y					
Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0737	.0528	1.3953	.1639	-.0302	.1776

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
Prejudice -> Emotional Stability -> Continuance Commitment

Marital Status	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
	-.2665	.0229	.0017	.0518
	.7335	.0658	.0198	.1215

Index of moderated mediation (difference between conditional indirect effects):

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Marital Status	.0429	.0234	.0050	.0958

Table 149 (Part 1) shows the regression results showing the effect of prejudice on emotional stability. Accordingly, prejudice has a significant and positive effect on emotional stability ($b = .1355$, 95% CI [.0477, .2233]).

In Table 150 (Part 2), the effects of prejudice, emotional stability and marital status variables on continuance commitment are seen together. Accordingly, prejudice has no significant effect on continuance commitment. The effects of emotional stability and interactional term on continuance commitment were found to be significant.

In Table 151 (Part 3), we see how the moderating variable, marital status, changes in married and single academics. Positive relationship between emotional stability and continuance commitment is significant in married and single academics.

In Table 152 (Part 4), where there are direct, indirect and situational mediation effects, it is shown whether prejudice's indirect effect on continuance commitment through mediating variable emotional stability is dependent on marital status (moderated mediation). In married (-.2665), the indirect effect of prejudice on continuance commitment through emotional stability is significant ($b = .0229$, 95% CI [.0017, .0518]). In singles (.7335), the indirect effect of prejudice on continuance commitment by emotional stability was significant ($b = .0658$, 95% CI [.0198, .1215]).

At the bottom of the Table 152 is the index of moderated mediation. Whether the moderated mediation is supported is decided by looking at this value. When looking at the table, the moderated mediation index value is significant ($b = .0429$, 95% CI [.0050, .0958]). Marital status has a significant effect on Prejudice's indirect effect on continuance commitment through emotional stability. Table 153 shows the bootstrap regression analysis results.

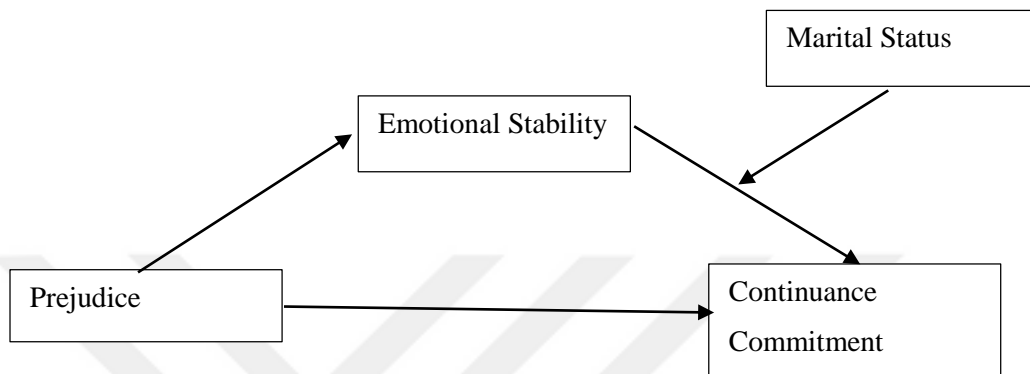


Table 153: Bootstrap regression analysis results (N= 334)

Variables	Emotional Stability			Continuance Commitment		
	b	LLCI	ULCI	b	LLCI	ULCI
Model 1						
Prejudice (X)	.1355*	.0477	.2233	.0765.	-.0278	.1808
Emotional Stability (M)	-	-	-	.2474***	.1209	.3739
R ²	.027			.055		
Bootstrap indirect impact	Prejudice → Emotional Stability → Continuance Commitment ($b = .0335$, 95 % CI [.0097, .0650])					
Model 2						
Emotional Stability (M)	-	-	-	.2682***	.1435	.3929
Marital Status (W)	-	-	-	-.0454	-.2376	.1468
X * W (Interaction)	-	-	-	.3211*	.0343	.6078
R ²	.063					
Model 3						
Prejudice (X)	-	-	-	.0737	-.0302	.177
Emotional Stability (M)	-	-	-	.2558***	.1270	.3796
Marital Status (W)	-	-	-	-.0413	-.2333	.1508
M W (Interaction)	-	-	-	.3169*	.0304	.6033
R ²	.0685					
Indirect Impact	b	LLCI	ULCI			
Married	.0229	.0017	.0518			
Single	.0658	.0198	.1215			
Index of Moderated Mediation	.0429	.0050	.0958			

Note. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. $n = 334$. LLCI = lower confidence interval; ULCI = Upper confidence interval. Bootstrap Resampling = 5000. Non-standardized beta coefficients (b) have been reported.

5. DISCUSSION

The use of questionnaire technique in the study may not give exactly the results we want, especially when measuring a perceptual issue. Deeper methods are needed to understand people's stigma tendencies. However, one of the most important benefits of this study, which is conducted by using a questionnaire, is to bring together different concepts and to reveal the relationships between different dimensions of these concepts. If researchers want to examine these relationships more deeply, they have at least a chance to see which sub-dimensions are related to each other. Sub-dimensions refers to factors of stigmatization, Big Five personality and organizational commitment. Since the statistical software (Process Macro) used in the analysis is also quite new, studies with this tool have recently started to increase and will increase its popularity in the future.

When we look at the results of the analysis, there are many differences in T-tests in which we examine the differences between the groups. For example, while the average affective commitment of male employees was 3.46, the average affective commitment of female employees was 3.20. Differences are statistically significant. The reason for this is the fact that in Turkish society, men generally need more work than women, and financial gains are expected from men. As a result of another T-test analysis supporting this result, it

can be evaluated that married workers have higher affective commitment than single employees. While the average of married employees was 3.42, the average of single employees was found to be 3.12. The average of the normative commitments of the two institutions studied in the study is also significantly different. While the average of employees at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University was 3.26, the average number of employees at Kırşehir Ahi Evran University was 2.99. It can be inferred that the normative commitment of employees at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University is higher. According to another T-test, where the difference between stigmatization tendency and gender was significant, the mean of men in discrimination, labeling, psychological health (1.46, 2.07, 2.53, respectively) was higher than that of female employees (1.31, 1.54, 2.12, respectively). The average of female employees in prejudice (2.93) is higher than the average of male workers (2.81).

According to the results of the One-Way Anova tests, the difference between research assistants and other titles on affective commitment and normative commitment was significant. According to this, the mean of affective commitment of the research assistants was 2.99, while the lecturers were 3.51, assistant professors were 3.39, associate professors were 3.62, and professors were 3.60. While the average of research assistants on normative commitment was 2.84, the other titles were 3.17, 3.13, 3.29, and 3.24, respectively. According to these results, we can say that research assistants have less commitment to their institutions. This can be explained by the fact that research assistants are younger, more prone to risk, many are single, and tend to change their institutions more easily because of low family responsibilities. In terms of labeling, the difference between research assistants and professors was found significant. While the mean labeling of the research assistants was 1.73, the mean labeling of professors was found to be 2.19. Accordingly, it can be concluded that older personnel are more likely to labeling. Young people have a lower tendency to labeling.

The fact that the scales used in the thesis consisted of many sub-dimensions enabled the testing of very different relationships. In particular, very meaningful relationships could not be achieved by including the scales as a whole. However, in many studies in the literature, the sub-dimensions of the scales were examined separately and significant relationships were tried to be found between them. In this study, although there was no direct relationship between tendency of stigmatization and organizational commitment, a

significant relationship was found between prejudice, which is one of the subdimensions of stigmatization tendency, and affective and continuance commitment as seen in the mediator and moderator analyzes.

Table 154: List of mediator relationship

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator	b	LLCI	ULCI
Prejudice	Affective Commitment	Emotional Stability	-.037	-.0779	-.0088
Labeling	Affective Commitment	Conscientiousness	-.028	-.0653	-.0024
Discrimination	Affective Commitment	Conscientiousness	-.051	-.1119	-.0067
Discrimination	Continuance Commitment	Conscientiousness	.080	.0214	.1519
Labeling	Continuance Commitment	Conscientiousness	.044	.0085	.0877
Prejudice	Continuance Commitment	Emotional Stability	.034	.0097	.0650

It has been seen in Table 154, there are the summary of mediation effect analyses. There are three variables (independent, dependent, mediator) that Show which variables are mediators between independent variable and dependent variable. As it is seen in the mediation effect analysis which examined the mediator role of emotional stability in the relationship between prejudice and affective commitment, it was found that as prejudice increased, affective commitment decreased ($b = -.37, p = .006$). Prejudice perception of two employees is one unit more than the other employee, affective commitment can be interpreted to be lower by .037 units. Similarly, conscientiousness is mediator both between labeling and affective commitment and between discrimination and affective commitment with the b values $-.28$ and $-.51$, respectively. It means that one unit increases in labeling and discrimination, affective commitment decreases by .28 and .51 unit, respectively.

According to Lutgen-Sandvik, prejudiced behaviors of employees within the organization may cause employees to behave like stigmatization (438). Baltacı examined the relationship between psychological intimidation and organizational commitment in 391 teachers and investigated whether prejudice has a mediating role in this relationship (439). According to the results of the study, prejudice has a significant and negative relationship with organizational commitment. Therefore, a significant and negative relationship between

prejudice and affective commitment showed similar results with similar analyzes in the literature. It can be interpreted as follows: As the affective commitment of academicians increases, their prejudice decreases. This result is consistent with the findings of similar studies in the literature (440, 441). Jiang examined the relationship between organizational image, perceived organizational support and perceived job discrimination in a study conducted with agency employees (431). According to the findings, there is a positive relationship between organizational image and organizational identification of organizational support. At the same time, agency workers have found that the positive effect of organizational image on organizational identification is enhanced in the case of low level discrimination. In cases where discrimination is high, the organizational image, which means how the organization looks from outside, has no significant effect on organizational identification. For in-house discrimination, statistically significant effects emerge, and extraversion and openness to experience are positively correlated with perceptions of discrimination. Extraversion and openness to experience may increase the likelihood of an individual receiving discrimination-prone jobs.

Foley, Hang-Yue and Wong examined the relationship between perceived gender discrimination and organizational commitment (442). They stated that gender has a moderation role in the relationship between gender discrimination and organizational commitment. According to the results of the regression analysis, justice and perceptions are closely related to business behavior. Another result; There is a negative relationship between gender discrimination and job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It was found that women suffered more gender discrimination and showed lower organizational commitment. In their suggestion to the organizations, the authors pointed out that the decrease in employees' perception of discrimination would increase their organizational commitment and decrease their intention to quit. Therefore, they said that it is more likely for employees who are discriminated against to consider leaving their jobs. In their call to the researchers, the authors stated that future studies in different cultures, different occupational groups and with different social groups will enrich the literature.

Another interesting finding of the study is the significant and positive relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment ($b = .11$, $p = .04$). Prejudice's negative relationship with affective commitment, but its positive relationship with continuance commitment, can be explained as follows: Because employees are obliged and not obliged

to do what they do, because they do not have alternatives, they can conceal what they really think. Particularly due to the lack of alternative job opportunities, it may cause them to hide their original thoughts and continue to work by appearing to be dependent on their job. This may cause employees to be biased towards the organization they work for. Another conclusion may be that: Prejudice expresses towards employees' opinions against the institutions they work for, which may cause prejudice because they feel that they are working because they need them or that they feel that it is possible to find other employees at any time. Same findings are found between labeling and continuance commitment and between discrimination and continuance commitment. All these sub-dimensions of stigmatization have a statistically significant and negative relationship with affective commitment, but they have statistically and positive relationship with continuance commitment.

Table 155: List of moderation relationships

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Moderator	b	LLCI	ULCI
Labeling	Organizational Commitment	Emotional Stability	-.121	-.2391	-.0022
Labeling	Organizational Commitment	Openness to Experience	.103	.0118	.1950
Psychological Health	Organizational Commitment	Openness to Experience	.072	.0024	.1424
Psychological Health	Organizational Commitment	Agreeableness	-.129	-.2568	-.0003
Stigmatization	Affective Commitment	Openness to Experience	.316	.1204	.5124
Labeling	Affective Commitment	Openness to Experience	.241	.0964	.3847
Psychological Health	Affective Commitment	Openness to Experience	.187	.0771	.2959
Prejudice	Affective Commitment	Openness to Experience	.131	.0077	.2536
Prejudice	Continuance Commitment	Openness to Experience	-.133	-.2410	-.0257
Prejudice	Continuance Commitment	Conscientiousness	-.194	-.3592	-.0279
Labeling	Normative Commitment	Emotional Stability	-.250	-.4296	-.0702

Another important finding of the study is the role of emotional stability between prejudice and continuance commitment. The positive relationship between continuous commitment and prejudice is achieved through emotional stability. In other words, prejudice of employees causes continuance commitment in emotional stability personality traits. In the same analysis, whether the result changes according to the demographic variable marital status was also examined. In the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment, the value of emotional stability becomes more important in single academics.

One of the most important parts of the research is to show the factors and sub-dimensions of which variables have moderate effect, which has been summarized in Table 155. For example; openness to experience personality traits seem to have a moderate effect on the relationship between affective commitment and stigmatization, labeling, psychological health and prejudice. It is also seen that both openness to experience and conscientiousness have a moderating effect on the relationship between continuance commitment and prejudice.

In the model used in the study, personality traits were considered as mediator variables. In most of the mediator effect and moderate effect analyzes, it was found that there was a negative but significant relationship between stigmatization tendency and personality traits. For example: There is a significant and negative relationship between labeling and conscientiousness. Responsible employees do not engage in labeling other people or organizations. Similarly, there is a significant and negative relationship between discrimination and conscientiousness. As the responsibilities of the employees increase, the exclusion tendency decreases.

Welle and Heilman, in their study to understand the effect of discrimination on female employees' loyalty, found that female employees exposed to discrimination decreased their commitment to their organizations and were reluctant to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization (442). Ensher, Grant-Vallone and Donaldson examined the effect of perceived workplace discrimination on employee satisfaction, commitment and organizational citizenship behavior and found that discrimination had a strong negative effect on all three variables (443). When the relationship between racial discrimination and affective commitment of employees is examined, it has been found that racial discrimination strongly reduces affective commitment (444).

Fox and Quinn stated that pregnant women suffered discrimination in the workplace and that is why a significant proportion of women quit their jobs after childbirth (445). In order to test this, 142 pregnant women conducted two different surveys before and after their pregnancy. At the end of the study, they found that anticipated stigma had a partial mediating effect between workplace factors and psychological well-being. In addition, it was determined that female employees were subjected to stigmatization, lowering their job performance and increasing their intention to quit. Özer and Günlük found in their research on accountants that high perceived discrimination increases the intention to quit but reduces job satisfaction (446).

In their study using Australian household data, Hahn and Wilkins stated that 8.5% of job candidates and 7.5% of employees were discriminated against, and the most important reason was age (447). They found that gender was an important factor in predicting perceived discrimination in both jobseekers and employees. While age was important in perceived discrimination in job seekers, having small children was found to be the cause of discrimination in employees. However, a high negative correlation was reported between job satisfaction and perceived discrimination in both groups. According to Chou & Choi perceived discrimination is higher in women, older workers and disabled workers (448).

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In this study, the effect of personality traits on the relationship between stigmatization tendencies on organizational commitment was investigated. In the literature, there are studies examining the relationship between prejudice and organizational commitment. Some studies investigated the relationship between discrimination and organizational commitment. However, it has not yet attracted the attention of researchers sufficiently to identify the circumstances in which the relationship, between the concepts representing prejudice or other stigmatization tendency and organizational commitment has changed, increased or decreased, or what moderates it.

In this study, the relationship between the types of stigma tendencies, discrimination, labeling, psychological health and prejudice and affective, continuance and normative commitment, which are the dimensions of organizational commitment, were examined one by one. In addition, independent T-tests were used to examine whether these types of stigmatization tendencies and organizational commitment dimensions differed according to gender, marital status and the two universities that make up the research sample. According to the T-test results, the following results were obtained:

- 1) There is a significant difference between men and women in terms of affective commitment.
- 2) There is a significant difference between married and single people in terms of affective commitment and organizational commitment.

- 3) There is a significant difference between the academic staff working at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University and the academic staff working at Kırşehir Ahi Evran University in terms of normative commitment.
- 4) There is a significant difference between male workers and female workers in terms of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization.
- 5) There is a significant difference between married and single academic staff in terms of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization.
- 6) There is no significant difference between the two universities` academic staff in terms of discrimination, labeling, psychological health and stigmatization.

When the results are examined carefully, it will be seen that both the different dimensions of organizational commitment and the different dimensions of stigmatization tendency differ according to demographic information. For example; While the differences in affective commitment dimension were significant between men and women and married and single people, it was seen that the differences in the normative commitment dimension of academic staff working in both universities were significant. Another important conclusion is that the difference between women and men and married and singles is significant in terms of stigmatization and sub-dimensions of discrimination, labeling and psychological health.

One-way Anova tests were also used to determine whether the stigmatization tendencies and organizational loyalty of academic staff differed according to education, department and title. The results obtained are as follows:

- 1) There is a significant difference between the groups in terms of affective commitment, normative commitment, and organizational commitment. The difference between research assistants and lecturers, assistant professors, associate professors and professors appears to be significant. In other words, there is significant difference between research assistants and all other titles of academic staff.
- 2) The difference between the different groups according to their educational status is not significant.
- 3) The difference between the groups is significant in terms of continuance commitment.

- 4) The difference between research assistants and professors on labeling is significant. Moreover, the difference in psychological health between research assistants and professors is found to be significant. The differences between the other groups are not significant.
- 5) The tendency of stigmatization does not differ according to the educational status of the academic staff.
- 6) The tendency of stigmatization does not differ according to the departments of the academic staff.

Supporting these results with other studies may make an important contribution to the literature. In particular, the relationship between the sub-dimensions of the stigmatization tendency and the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment can be tested by using different demographic variables and whether the differences in these variables are significant or not. For example; prejudice is only part of the tendency to stigmatization. In order to measure the stigmatization tendency, it is important to examine the different concepts one by one. In this study, the relationship between the stigmatization concepts and personality traits and their effect on organizational commitment was examined. These concepts can be re-examined with different occupational groups, and examining whether demographic variables differ in this examination phase can fill an important gap in the literature. Although the hypotheses established in general are not fully supported, the rejection of some hypotheses led them to examine these concepts on the basis of sub-dimensions and it was found that many different variables both mediated and moderate effect on the relationship between stigmatization tendency and organizational commitment.

The research model was used to test whether personality traits had an mediating role on the relationship between stigmatization tendency of academic staff and organizational commitment. However, contrary to expectations, Big Five personality inventory has no mediator or moderator role in this relationship. Therefore, the hypotheses are rejected. However, because each of the three scales is composed of different and numerous sub-dimensions and especially in the literature, many researches created by these sub-dimensions, the model established on the basis of sub-dimensions has been tested one by one because the sub-dimensions allow significant inferences by itself. The results confirm the assumption as correct. Numerous mediator and moderator effects have been identified in the relationship between the sub-dimensions. The mediator influences are found as follows:

- 1) Emotional stability mediates the relationship between prejudice and affective commitment.
- 2) Conscientiousness mediates the relationship between labeling and affective commitment.
- 3) Conscientiousness mediates the relationship between discrimination and affective commitment.
- 4) Conscientiousness mediates the relationship between discrimination and continuance commitment.
- 5) Conscientiousness mediates the relationship between labeling and continuance commitment.
- 6) Emotional stability mediates the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment.

When the results are examined, the two sub-dimensions of the emotional stability and conscientiousness in the Big Five personality inventory mediate the relationship between the three sub-dimensions of the tendency of stigmatization (discrimination, labeling, prejudice) and the two sub-dimensions of organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment). Testing these mediation relationships found in other researches may be important for the reproducibility of the results.

After the mediator variables, it was also examined whether there is a moderator effect on the basis of the sub-dimensions of the variables and the following results were found:

- 1) Emotional stability moderates the relationship between labeling and organizational commitment.
- 2) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between labeling and organizational commitment.
- 3) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between psychological health and organizational commitment.
- 4) Agreeableness moderates the relationship between psychological health and organizational commitment.
- 5) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between stigmatization and affective commitment.
- 6) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between labeling and affective commitment.

- 7) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between psychological health and affective commitment.
- 8) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between prejudice and affective commitment.
- 9) Openness to experience moderates the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment.
- 10) Conscientiousness moderates the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment.
- 11) Emotional stability moderates the relationship between labeling and normative commitment

As can be seen from the results, a large number of moderating relationships have been identified in the relationship of different dimensions of each of the three variables. As with the results of mediating variable analysis, testing of the results of moderating analysis with different researches can make significant contributions to the literature.

According to the analysis results, one of the important findings is the moderated mediation relationship. Marital status has a significant effect on prejudice's indirect effect. In other words, marital status plays a moderating role in the mediation effect of emotional stability in the relationship between prejudice and continuance commitment. In recent years, it has been used in many researches of moderated mediation model, which is a popular model. In the model, which is more complex compared to the mediating and moderating analysis, it is concluded that the effect is different between married and single.

In many studies, while only one or more of the findings in this thesis (mediating affect, moderating affect) were examined, it was presented to the researchers in a single study which variables had mediator effect and which variables had moderate effect. The findings of this study, which is expected to fill a major deficiency in the literature, can be examined and re-tested with other variables. Repeating these analyzes, especially with different occupational groups, may lead to different results. Or it can be investigated whether different variables such as moderated mediation in this study have mediating situational effect.

It may be important that most of the findings are fairly new and that the relationship between different variables is repeated with other studies. New conceptual models or

theories can be gained in the literature of mediate or moderate effects that can be supported by different studies.

In this research, spss process macro was used. However, testing the similar model with structural equation modeling may enrich the literature. In particular, the fact that the scales are composed of different and multiple sub-dimensions may allow the relationship between them to be seen more clearly with structural equation modeling.

In terms of the limitations of the study, the fact that the sample of the study was limited to two universities can be considered as a limitation in terms of generalization. It may be important to examine the model created in the research in different universities in terms of the validity of the model.



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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Definitions of Commitment

<u>Definitions of commitment</u>
<i>In general</i>

<p>``... engagement which restricts freedom of action." (Oxford English Dictionary, 1969)</p> <p>``Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity." (Becker, 1960, p.32)</p> <p>``... a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement." (Salancik, 1977, p. 62)</p> <p>``... a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioral direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function." (Scholl, 1981, p. 593)</p> <p>``... a force that stabilizes individual behavior under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behavior." (Brickman, 1987, p. 2)</p> <p>``... one's inclination to act in a given way toward a particular commitment target." (Oliver, 1990, p. 30)</p> <p>``... an obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims." (Brown, 1996, p. 241)</p>
<u>Organizational commitment</u>
<p>``... the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization." (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226)</p>
<p>``... the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests." (Wiener, 1982, p. 421)</p>
<p>``... the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization." (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493)</p>
<p>``... a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (i.e., makes turnover less likely)." (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 14)</p>
<p>``... a bond or linking of the individual to the organization." (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171)</p>

Source: Meyer & Herscovitch (2001)

APPENDIX 2. Multidimensional Model of Organizational Commitment

Angle and Perry (1981, p. 4)

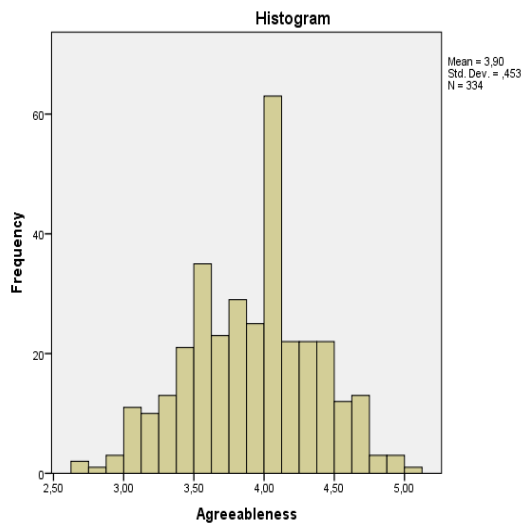
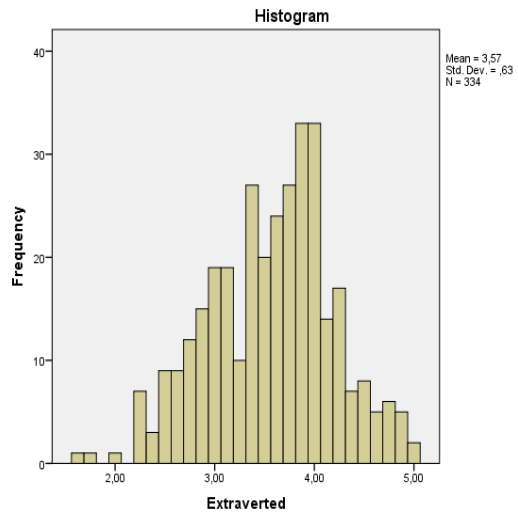
Value commitment	``commitment to support the goals of the organization"
Commitment to stay.	``commitment to retain their organizational membership"

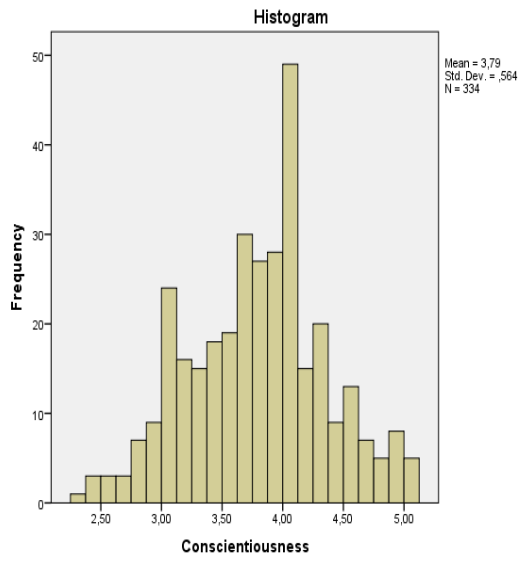
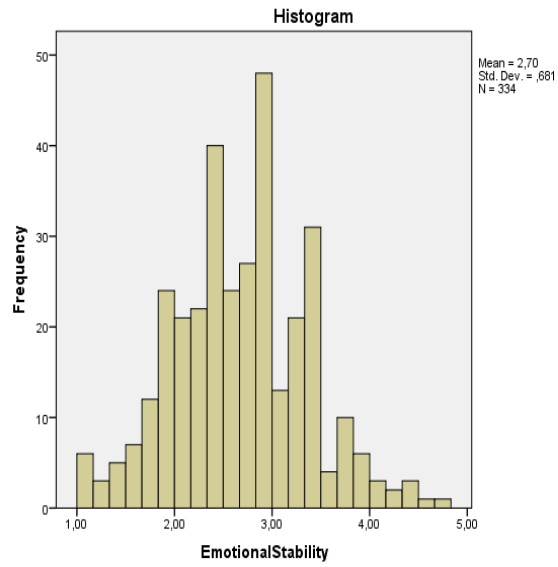
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986, p. 493)

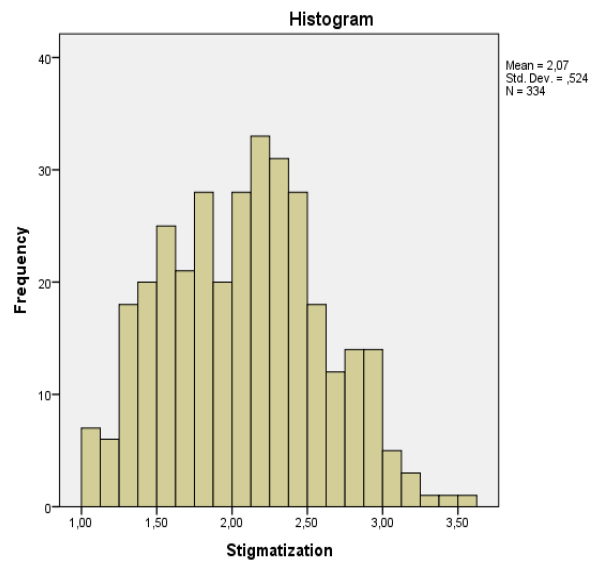
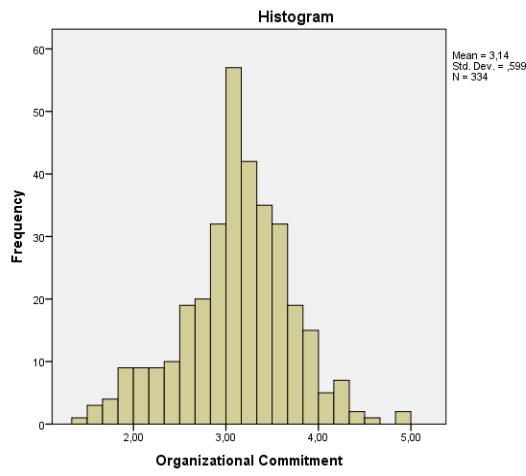
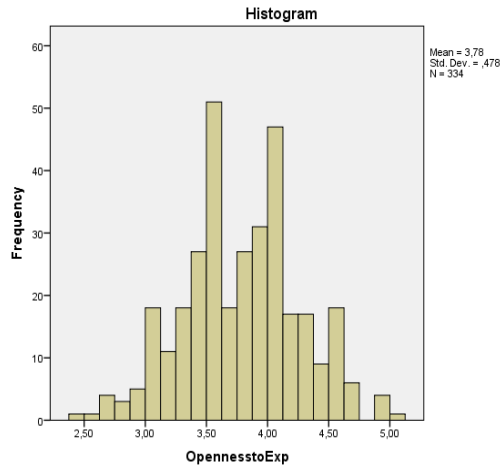
Compliance	``instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards"
Identification	``attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organization'"

Internalization	``involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values"
<i>Penley and Gould (1988)</i>	
Moral	``acceptance of and identification with organizational goals" p. 46)
Calculative	``a commitment to an organization which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions" p. 46)
Alienative	``organizational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments; yet he or she remains due to environmental pressures" p. 48)
<i>Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67)</i>	
Affective	``the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization".
Continuance	``an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization"
Normative	``a feeling of obligation to continue employment"
<i>Mayer and Schoorman (1992, p. 673)</i>	
Value	``a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization"
Continuance	``the desire to remain a member of the organization"
<i>Jaros et al. (1993)</i>	
Affective	``the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on"p. 954)
Continuance	``the degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving" p. 953)
Moral	``the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalization of its goals, values, and missions" p. 955)

APPENDIX 3. Histogram Graphs of Scales







APPENDIX 4. Survey Instrument

İŞ YAŞAMINA İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLER ANKETİ

Bu anket, iş yaşamınıza ilişkin bazı görüşleriniz ile bireysel farklılıklarınızı ölçmek üzere doktora tezime veri sağlamak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Yaklaşık cevaplama süresi 6-8 dakikadır.

Anketi cevaplandırırken lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyup, size ne kadar uygun olduğuna karar veriniz ve her kısmın başındaki yönergelerde belirtildiği biçimde maddeleri değerlendiriniz.

Lütfen, hiçbir maddeyi boş bırakmayınız. Vereceğiniz cevaplar bilimsel değerlendirme amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli kalacaktır. Zaman ayırarak katkı sağladığınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,

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DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz: [] Kadın [] Erkek

2. Yaşınız: _____ (Lütfen belirtiniz)

3. Eğitim Durumunuz: [] Lisans [] Yüksek Lisans [] Doktora

4. Medeni Durumunuz: [] Bekâr [] Evli

5. Çalıştığınız Kurum: [] Kırşehir Ahi Evran Ü. [] Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Ü.

6. Çalıştığınız Birim: [] Fakülte [] Yüksekokul [] Meslek Yüksekokulu [] Diğer

7. Unvanınız: _____ (Lütfen belirtiniz)

8. Üniversitede Toplam Çalışma Yılı: _____ (Lütfen belirtiniz)

ANKET SORULARI

I. Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuduktan sonra her bir ifadeyi KENDİNİZE İLİŞKİN OLARAK 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5- Tamamen katılıyorum olmak üzere, derecelendiriniz. İfadelerin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum			
	1	2	3	4	5			
1	Konuşkan			1	2	3	4	5
2	Başkalarının kusurlarını bulmaya eğilimli			1	2	3	4	5
3	Mükemmel iş çıkaran			1	2	3	4	5
4	Depresif, hüzünlü			1	2	3	4	5
5	Orijinal, yeni fikirler üreten			1	2	3	4	5
6	Çekingen			1	2	3	4	5
7	Yardımsaver, bencil olmayan			1	2	3	4	5
8	Biraz dikkatsiz			1	2	3	4	5
9	Rahat, stresle başa çıkabilen			1	2	3	4	5
10	Pek çok farklı şeyi merak eden			1	2	3	4	5
11	Enerji dolu			1	2	3	4	5
12	Başkalarıyla tartışma başlatan			1	2	3	4	5
13	Güvenilir bir çalışan			1	2	3	4	5
14	Gergin olabilen			1	2	3	4	5
15	Zeki, engin fikirleri olan			1	2	3	4	5
16	Pek çok etkinlik organize eden			1	2	3	4	5
17	Affedici bir doğası olan			1	2	3	4	5
18	Dağınık olmaya eğilimli			1	2	3	4	5
19	Sıkça endişelenen			1	2	3	4	5
20	Hayal gücü yüksek			1	2	3	4	5
21	Sessiz olmaya eğilimli			1	2	3	4	5
22	Genel olarak güven duyan			1	2	3	4	5
23	Tembel olmaya eğilimli			1	2	3	4	5

24	Duygusal olarak dengeli, kolay üzülmeyen	1	2	3	4	5
25	Yaratıcı, yenilikçi	1	2	3	4	5
26	İddialı bir kişiliğe sahip	1	2	3	4	5
27	Soğuk ve uzak olabilen	1	2	3	4	5
28	İşini tamamlayana kadar azimle çalışan	1	2	3	4	5
29	Karamsar, ruhsal durumu çabuk değişen	1	2	3	4	5
30	Estetikle, sanatla ilgili etkinlikleri önemseyen	1	2	3	4	5
31	Bazen utangaç, tutuk	1	2	3	4	5
32	Düşünceli ve hemen herkese karşı nazik	1	2	3	4	5
33	Verimli çalışan	1	2	3	4	5
34	Gergin durumda sakin kalmayı başaran	1	2	3	4	5
35	Rutin işleri tercih eden	1	2	3	4	5
36	Cana yakın, arkadaş canlısı	1	2	3	4	5
37	Bazen başkalarına karşı kaba	1	2	3	4	5
38	Planlar yapan ve o planları takip eden	1	2	3	4	5
39	Çabuk sinirlenen	1	2	3	4	5
40	Fikirlerle ilgilenmeyi, paylaşmayı seven	1	2	3	4	5
41	Sanatsal konulara ilgisi az	1	2	3	4	5
42	Başkalarıyla iş birliği yapmaktan hoşlanan	1	2	3	4	5
43	Kolaylıkla dikkati dağılan	1	2	3	4	5
44	Resim, müzik veya edebiyat alanlarında donanımlı	1	2	3	4	5

II. Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuduktan sonra her bir ifadeyi İŞ YAŞAMINIZA İLİŞKİN OLARAK 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5- Tamamen katılıyorum olmak üzere, derecelendiriniz. İfadelerin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum			Kararsızım		Tamamen Katılıyorum		
		1	2	3	4	5			
1	Kariyer hayatımın geriye kalanını bu kurumda geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5			
2	Kurumun problemlerini kendi problemlerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5			
3	Kurumda kendimi ailenin bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5			
4	Kuruma karşı duygusal bir bağ hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5			
5	Kuruma karşı güçlü bir aidiyet duygusu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5			
6	Kişisel değerlerimle kurumun değerlerini birbirine çok benzer buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5			
7	Kurumun gelecekte nerde olacağı benim için gerçekten önemli.	1	2	3	4	5			
8	Şu an kurumdan ayrılmam durumunda, bundan sonraki hayatımda maddi zarara uğrarım.	1	2	3	4	5			
9	Kurumda kalmam, istekten ziyade gerekliliktir.	1	2	3	4	5			



10	Kurumdan ayrılmayı düşünmek için çok az seçim hakkına sahip olduğuma inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Benim için kurumdan ayrılmanın olumsuz sonuçlarından biri de başka bir kurumun burada sahip olduğum olanakları sağlayamama ihtimalidir.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Başka bir iş ayarlamadan kurumdan ayrıldığımda neler olacağı konusunda endişe hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Kurumdan şimdi ayrılırsam suçluluk duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Benim avantajıma olsa bile, kurumdan şimdi ayrılmak bana doğru gelmiyor.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Benzer nitelikte bir iş olsa bile, şu anda başka bir işyerinde çalışmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Kurum benim sadakatimi hak ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Kurumdan şimdi ayrılmanın, burada çalışan diğer insanlara karşı duyduğum sorumluluklar nedeniyle yanlış olacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Kuruma çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5

III. Aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuduktan sonra her bir ifadeyi ALGINIZA İLİŞKİN OLARAK 1 ile 5 arasında; 1- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 5- Tamamen katılıyorum olmak üzere, derecelendiriniz. İfadelerin karşısındaki uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

		Kesinlikle		Tamamen		
		Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Çalışanlar arasında ayırım yapılması doğaldır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Farklı şivesi olan kişiler küçümsenebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Kılık-kıyafeti aykırı kişiler dışlanmayı hak eder.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Tarzi taşralı olan birinin sosyal kabul görmemesi doğaldır.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Güzel/yakışıklı olan kişiler daha başarılıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İş ortamında dini inancı farklı olan birinin bulunması beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Seçme şansım olsa evlilik dışı doğan bir kişiyle çalışmak istemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Cinsel tercihleri farklı olduğunu düşündüğüm biriyle iletişim kurmak istemem.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Yaşça büyük personelin iş ortamında verimleri oldukça düşüktür.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Kadın personel iş ortamında daha fazla sorun çıkarır.	1	2	3	4	5
11	İnsanların kökenine göre farklı tavırlar takınılabılır.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Boşanmış personelin iş ortamına negatif etkileri olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Psikolojik yardım alan bireylerin kişilik problemleri vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Psikolojik yardım aldığı bilinen kişilere güven azalır.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Toplum kurallarına aykırı yaşantısı olan bir kişiyle aynı ortamda çalışmaktan rahatsız olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Meslektaşlarıyla sosyal paylaşımda bulunamayan bir kişi sorunludur.	1	2	3	4	5

17	İletişime kapalı kişiler sorunludur.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Adli suça karışmış biriyle aynı ortamda çalışmak istemem.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Aynı dünya görüşünü paylaşmayan kişiler birbirine adaletsiz davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Kıdemi fazla olan çalışanlar genç olanlar üzerinde otorite kurmayı sever.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Yaşam tarzı bana uymayan bir kişiyle iş dışında görüşmem.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Performansı kıskanılan bir kişi iş ortamında yalnız kalır.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 5. Ethics Committee Approval Form

 **ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT ÜNİVERSİTESİ (AYBÜ)** 

**ETİK KURULU
PROJE ONAY BELGESİ**

Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yönetim ve Organizasyon A.B.D. öğrencilerinden Yusuf Akkoca'nın, "The Role of Stigmatization Tendency in the Effect of Employees' Personality Characteristics on Organizational Commitment: A Quantitative Study on Academic Personnel (Çalışanların Kişilik Özelliklerinin Örgütsel Bağlılıklarına Etkisinde Damgalama Eğiliminin Rolü: Öğretim Elemanları Üzerine Nicel Bir Araştırma)" adlı araştırması değerlendirilmiştir. (Bu kısım başvuru sahibi tarafından doldurulmalıdır)

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmuştur.

Proje etik açısından geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir.

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmamıştır.

AYBÜ ETİK KURULU KARARI (Etik Kurul tarafından doldurulacaktır)	
Araştırma kodu (Yıl – Araştırma sıra no)	2019 – 51
Başvuru formunun Etik Kurula ulaştığı tarih	08.02.2019
Etik Kurul Karar toplantı tarihi ve karar no	13.02.2019 – 51
Yer	Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, Esenboğa Külliyesi
Katılımcılar	Formda imzası bulunan üyelerimiz toplantıya katılmıştır.

KURUL BAŞKANI, BAŞKAN YARDIMCISI VE ÜYELER:

		İMZA
Prof. Dr. Cem Şafak ÇUKUR	Başkan	<input type="text" value=""/>
Prof. Dr. Tekin AKDEMİR	Bşk. Yrd.	<input type="text" value=""/>
Prof. Dr. Seldağ GÜNEŞ PESCHKE	Üye	<input type="text" value=""/>
Doç. Dr. Özge GÖKBULUT ÖZDEMİR	Üye	<input type="text" value=""/>
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Fatma DOĞAN GÜZEL	Üye	<input type="text" value=""/>
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Behlül TOKUR	Üye	<input type="text" value=""/>
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şule KAYA	Üye	<input type="text" value=""/>
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Birgül ÖZKAN	Üye	<input type="text" value=""/>

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APPENDIX 6. Survey Permission (Kırşehir Ahi Evran University)



T.C.
KIRŞEHİR AHI EVRAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Genel Sekreterlik



Sayı : 78968926-809.01
Konu : Anket İznı

İKTİSADİ VE İDARİ BİLİMLER FAKÜLTESİ DEKANLIĞINA

İlgi : 27.02.2019 tarihli ve 92493483-809.01/00000137906 sayılı yazınız.

Fakülteniz İşletme Bölümü öğretim elemanı Arş. Gör. Yusuf AKKOCA' nın, "*İy Yaşamına İlişkin Görüşler*" konulu anket çalışmasını Üniversitemiz öğretim elemanlarına uygulama isteği Rektörlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-İmzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Ahmet GÖKBEL
Rektör Yardımcısı

Evrana elektronik izniniz suretinin <http://e-belge.ahievran.edu.tr> adresinden 90Cade-b9c1-406-b195-07632788d00 koda ile atılabilmekte.
Bu belge 5078 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanunu'na uygun olarak Gözetli Elektronik İmza ile imzalanmıştır.

Kırşehir Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Merkez Yerleşkesi
a.goduk@ahievran.edu.tr Faks No:0366 280 40 77
İnternet Adresi: www.ahievran.edu.tr

Bilgi İçin: Abdullah GÜNDÜZ
Ünvan: Bilgi Yönetim İşletmeni
0366 280 41 07



Curriculum Vitae

YUSUF AKKOCA

EDUCATION

PHD 2014-ONGOING	ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION
MASTER`S 2011-2013	UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT BUSINESS ANALYTICS AND PROJECT MANAGEMENT
UNDERGRADUATE 2004-2009	BASKENT UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS

WORK EXPERIENCES

RESEARCH ASSISTANT KIRŞEHİR AHİ EVRAN UNIVERSITY
2014—ONGOING

PROJECTS

- Örgütlerde Performansı Etkileyen Faktörler, Yükseköğretim Kurumları tarafından destekli bilimsel araştırma projesi, Araştırmacı: TOKER ÖMÜR, Yürütücü: ÇETİNKAYA FATİH FERHAT, Araştırmacı: AKKOCA YUSUF, Araştırmacı: ÖZDEMİR HALİL ÖZCAN, 24/04/2017- 22/12/2017.
- Sivil Toplum Örgütlerinde Sosyal Sermaye, Kurumsal İmaj ve Örgütsel Güven İlişkisi, Yükseköğretim Kurumları tarafından destekli bilimsel araştırma projesi, Araştırmacı: KORKMAZ FATMA, Yürütücü: ÇETİNKAYA FATİH FERHAT, Araştırmacı: AKKOCA YUSUF, 06/04/2018.
- Sağlık Personelinde Çalışan Motivasyonu ve Örgütsel Bağlılık, Yükseköğretim Kurumları tarafından destekli bilimsel araştırma projesi, Yürütücü: ÖZATA MUSA, Araştırmacı: AKKOCA YUSUF, 06/04/2018.
- POZİTİF SES ÇIKARMA DAVRANIŞI VE İLETİŞİM DOYUMU İLİŞKİSİNDE KURUMSAL SADAKATİN ARACI ROLÜ, Yükseköğretim Kurumları tarafından destekli bilimsel araştırma projesi, Yürütücü: ÇETİNKAYA FATİH FERHAT, Araştırmacı: ŞENER

EMİNE, Arařtırmacı: AKKOCA YUSUF, Arařtırmacı: YÜKSEL AYŞE NUREFŞAN,
01/06/2017-22/12/2017.

ARTICLES PUBLISHED IN INTERNATIONAL REFEREED JOURNALS

1. ŞENER EMİNE, ÇETİNKAYA FATİH FERHAT, AKKOCA YUSUF (2017). Hidden Side of the Employee Relations: The Relationship between Impression Management and Revenge Intention. International Journal of Business and Management Invention, 6(7), 73-84., Doi: 2319-8028 (Yayın No: 3894307).

BOOKS OR BOOK CHAPTERS:

1. Economic and Social Studies, Bölüm adı:(Perceived Organizational Employee Fairness In The Workplace: A Literature Review) (2018).. AKKOCA YUSUF, Lampert Academic Publishing, Basım sayısı:1, ISBN:978-613-9-92347-2, İngilizce (Bilimsel Kitap), (Yayın No: 5325561).

ARTICLES PUBLISHED IN NATIONAL REFEREED JOURNALS:

1. Özata Musa, Terlemez Arslan, Özer Kubilay, Akkoca Yusuf (2019). Defensive Dentistry: The Example of Konya. Türkiye Klinikleri Journal of Health Sciences, 4(2), 179-188., Doi: 10.5336/healthsci.2018-63278 (Kontrol No: 5149970).

2. Şener Emine, Çetinkaya Fatih Ferhat, Yüksel Ayşe Nurefşan, Akkoca Yusuf (2018). Pozitif Ses Çıkartma Davranışının Öncülü Olarak İletişim Doyumu. Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 20(2), 165-175. (Kontrol No: 4354284).

3. Özata Musa, Özer Kubilay, Akkoca Yusuf (2018). Konya İl Merkezinde Çalışan Hekimlerde Defansif (Çekinik) Tıp Uygulamalarının Araştırılması. Gümüşhane Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Dergisi, 7(1), 132-139. (Kontrol No: 4515363).

4. Özata Musa, Bozoğlan Hamza, Akkoca Yusuf (2017). Acil Servis Çalışanlarının İşçi Sağlığı Ve İş Güvenliğikapsamında Yaşadıkları Sorunların Belirlenmesi: Konya Örneği. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Vizyoner Dergisi, 8(19), 1-13., Doi: 10.21076/vizyoner.292507 (Kontrol No: 3937158).

CONFERENCE PAPERS:

1. Çetinkaya Fatih Ferhat, Akkoca Yusuf, Özdemir Halil Özcan, Toker Ömür (2017). The Relationship Between Personality and Positive and Negative Emotions: A case study on Private Sector Employees. 5. Global Conference on Business, Economics Management and Tourism (Özet Bildiri/Sözlü Sunum) (Yayın No:3932087).
 2. Çetinkaya Fatih Ferhat, Akkoca Yusuf, Özdemir Halil Özcan, Toker Ömür (2017). Investigation of Relationship Between Leadership and Personality: A case study on Private Sector Employees. Humanities And Social Sciences Conference Dubrovnik, Croatia 20-22 October 2017 CAAS uNİVERSİTY oF Zagreb (Özet Bildiri/Sözlü Sunum) (Yayın No:3900298).
 3. Çetinkaya Fatih Ferhat, Akkoca Yusuf, Özdemir Halil Özcan, Toker Ömür (2017). The Effects of Leadership on Organizational Performance: A case study on Private Sector Employees. Humanities And Social Sciences Conference Dubrovnik, Croatia 20-22 October 2017 CAAS University Of Zagreb (Özet Bildiri/Sözlü Sunum) (Yayın No:3899890).
 4. Şener Emine, Çetinkaya Fatih Ferhat, Yüksel Ayşe Nurefşan, Akkoca Yusuf (2017). Pozitif Ses Çıkarma Davranışının Öncülü Olarak İletişim Doyumu: Bir Kamu Hastanesi Örneği. 1. Uluslararası 11. Sağlık Ve Hastane İdaresi Kongresi (Özet Bildiri/Sözlü Sunum) (Yayın No:3846581).
 5. Özata Musa, Bozoğlan Hamza, Akkoca, Yusuf (2017). Acil Servis Çalışanlarının İşçi Sağlığı ve İş Güvenliği Kapsamında Yaşadıkları Sorunların Belirlenmesi: Konya Örneği. 1. Uluslararası 11. Sağlık ve Hastane İdaresi Kongresi, 370-371. (Özet Bildiri/Sözlü Sunum) (Yayın No:3853496).
 6. Çetinkaya Fatih Ferhat, Şener Emine, Akkoca Yusuf, Yüksel Ayşe Nurefşan (2017). The Relationship between Positive Voice Behavior and Organizational Loyalty: An Example of a Public Hospital. XIV. European Conference on Social and Behavioral Sciences (Özet Bildiri/Sözlü Sunum) (Yayın No:3901206).
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