IBN HALDUN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

PH.D. THESIS

AN EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT OF WORKPLACE INCIVILITY ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

SAMBA SOWE

THESIS SUPERVISOR
PROF. MAHMUT ARSLAN

ISTANBUL, 2023

IBN HALDUN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

PH.D. THESIS

AN EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT OF WORKPLACE INCIVILITY ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

by
SAMBA SOWE

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management

THESIS SUPERVISOR
PROF. MAHMUT ARSLAN

ISTANBUL, 2023

APPROVAL PAGE

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management

Thesis Jury Members

Title - Name Surname	Opinion	Signature
Prof. Dr. Mahmut ARSLAN	_____	_____
Prof. Dr. Ekrem TATOĞLU	_____	_____
Prof. Dr. Lütfihak ALPKAN	_____	_____
Prof. Dr. Selim ZAİM	_____	_____
Prof. Dr. Ümit HACIOĞLU	_____	_____

This is to confirm that this thesis complies with all the standards set by the School of Graduate Studies of Ibn Haldun University.

Date of Submission Seal/Signature

ACADEMIC HONESTY ATTESTATION

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

Name Surname: Samba SOWE

Signature:

ÖZ

İŞYERI NEZAKETSIZLIĞININ ÇALIŞAN PERFORMANSI ÜZERINDEKI ETKISININ INCELENMESI

Sowe, Samba
İşletme Doktora Programı
Öğrenci Numarası: 188038008
Open Researcher and Contributor ID (ORC-ID): 0000-0001-8323-4264
Ulusal Tez Merkezi Referans Numarası: 10540117

Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. Mahmut Arslan
Mayıs 2023, 137 sayfa

İşyerinde nezaketsizlik, çeşitli bağlamlardan kapsamlı araştırmayı hak eden evrensel bir örgütsel fenomen haline gelmiştir. İşyerinde nezaketsizlik, çalışanları olumsuz etkileyen kaba bir davranış biçimidir. Bu nedenle daha iyi çalışan performansı ve kurumsal verimlilik için bu sorunu giderecek çözümlere ihtiyaç vardır. Bu çalışma, psikolojik sahiplenme (PO) ve işten ayrılma niyetinin (TI) aracı rolleri aracılığıyla işyeri nezaketsizliğinin (WPI) çalışan performansı (verimsiz çalışma davranışı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı) üzerindeki etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. 504 katılımcılı örnekleme sahip bu araştırmanın verileri, Gambiya ve Gana'daki kamu ve özel kurumlarda gerçekleştirilen anket çalışması aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Araştırma modelimizin ve hipotezlerimizin güvenilirliğini ve geçerliliğini analiz etmek için Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi (YEM) kullanılmıştır. Gambiya ve Gana'yı karşılaştıran bağımsız t-testi sonuçları, Gana'daki çalışanlar arasında Gambiya'ya kıyasla daha yüksek düzeyde olumsuz davranış ve Ganalı meslektaşlarına kıyasla Gambiya'daki çalışanlar arasında daha yüksek düzeyde olumlu davranış olduğunu göstermiştir. Çalışma sonuçları, WPI ile verimsiz çalışma davranışı (CWB) ve WPI ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı (OCB) arasında PO aracılığıyla dolaylı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. TI ayrıca PO ile CWB ve PO ile OCB arasında aracı bir rol üstlenir. Bu araştırmanın bulguları, hem Gambiya hem de Gana'daki kamu ve özel kuruluşlara, kuruluşlarındaki nezaketsizliğin derinliğini ve bunun kuruluşlarının performansı üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerini değerlendirerek yardımcı olacaktır. Bu

araştırma, WPI'nin hem ülke hem de sektör bazında karşılaştırmasını yapan ve çalışan performansı üzerindeki etkisini inceleyen ilk araştırma olması nedeniyle önemlidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşyeri Nezaketsizliği, Psikolojik Sahiplenme, İşten Ayrılma Niyeti, Çalışan Performansı, Gambiya, Gana.

ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT OF WORKPLACE INCIVILITY ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

Sowe, Samba

Ph.D. in Management

Student ID: 188038008

Open Researcher and Contributor ID (ORC-ID): 0000-0001-8323-4264

National Thesis Center Reference Number: 10540117

Thesis Supervisor: Prof. Mahmut Arslan

May 2023, 137 Pages

Incivility at the workplace has become a universal organizational phenomenon that deserves thorough investigation to understand it from various contextual lenses. It is a form of rude behavior that negatively impacts employees at the workplace hence the need to find solutions to solve it for better employee and institutional performance. In the spirit of investigating the universal phenomenon, this research aims to investigate the impact of workplace incivility (WPI) on employee performance (counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior) through the mediating roles of psychological ownership (PO) and turnover intention (TI). Data for this research, with a sample of 504 respondents, was collected from public and private institutions in The Gambia and Ghana through a survey questionnaire. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to analyze the reliability and validity of our research model and hypotheses. The independent t-test results comparing The Gambia and Ghana have indicated a higher level of negative behavior among employees in Ghana compared to The Gambia as well as a higher level of positive behavior among employees from The Gambia compared to their Ghanaian counterparts. The study results indicate an indirect relationship between WPI to counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and WPI to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) through PO. TI also plays a mediating role between PO to CWB and PO to OCB. The findings of this research will help public and private institutions in both The Gambia and Ghana assess the depth of incivility in their

organizations as well as the negative impacts it may have on the performance of their organizations. This research is the first of its kind to make both a country and sector-level comparison of WPI and its impact on employee performance hence its significance.

Keywords: Workplace Incivility, Psychological Ownership, Turnover Intention, Employee Performance, The Gambia, Ghana.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late father Alieu S.K. Sowe who was always there to encourage and challenge me to continuously improve myself. God bless his soul.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express appreciation and gratitude to my esteemed thesis supervisor Prof. Dr. Mahmut ARSLAN who was always present to give me the necessary support and guidance needed throughout my thesis journey. Thanks, and appreciation to Prof. Dr. Ekrem TATOĞLU and Prof. Dr. Lütfihak ALPKAN for being part of my thesis committee as well as contributing immensely to the process of crafting my basic ideas into more robust and academically accepted ones. Special thanks to Prof. Dr. Selim ZAİM who supported me tremendously in my data analysis process by guiding me on best practices and most reliable analyses to use. To my friend and brother Matthew JADRO, I would like to extend a big thank you for always being there for me through my graduate and doctorate journey as well as for comprehensively proofreading this thesis. I would additionally like to thank my wonderful and supportive wife for always being there for me during this process and being the rock of my life. You were always there to encourage me and remind me to follow my submission deadlines.

Finally, I would like to thank and appreciate my family and friends who have always been there for me in good and bad times.

SAMBA SOWE

ISTANBUL, 2023

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	Analysis of a Moment Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CI	Customer Incivility
CMB	Common Method Bias
CMIN/DF	Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom
CR	Composite Reliability
CWB	Counterproductive Work Behavior
CWI	Co-worker Incivility
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
IBM	International Business Machines Corporation
MSV	Maximum Shared Variance
MSV	Maximum Variation Sampling
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
PO	Psychological Ownership
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SI	Supervisor Incivility
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TI	Turnover Intention
TLI	Tucker-Lewis coefficient/Index
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
USA	United States of America
WPI	Workplace Incivility

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chapter I gives a general background of workplace incivility as a research study area. It also indicates the gap in the literature and how this study can bridge it. The research aim and objectives, as well as the research questions, are discussed. This chapter also looks at the scope and significance of the study and the importance of doing research in Africa, including The Gambia and Ghana.

1.1. Background of the Study

Workplace incivility is an everyday reality across all institutions and cultures, making it a universal issue of interest (Bashir et al., 2020). Workplace incivility, according to Andersson and Pearson (1999), “is low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (p. 457). Incivility in the workplace can be considered part of the work ethics of a person, organization, and society. It may depict a person's personality, organizational culture, societal realities, or national culture. Incivility in an organization is against the teachings of work ethics. Work ethics involves encouraging professional responsibility over personal interest and indicating what is morally right and wrong and issues relating to duties and obligations (Reamer, 1998). An organization's ethics code helps promote professionalism and reduce potential unprofessional behaviors like incivility (Phillips et al., 2018; Valentine et al., 2019). "Professionalism in the workplace relies on a strong base of ethics to promote civil behaviors and is paramount in dealing with any form of incivility or lack of respect between peers" (Phillips et al., 2018, p. 8). The lack of work ethics in organizations has led to the failures of major corporations like Enron and WorldCom due to the high levels of uncivil behaviors (Rokhman, 2010). "Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). It is a global problem in business and service-

providing organizations, especially in environments of diverse cultural backgrounds (Cortina et al., 2001; Schilpzand et al., 2016a). According to Reio and Sanders- Reio (2011), incivility has become an issue many employees face at their workplaces. This could be seen as the reason for the concept of workplace incivility being researched by Andersson and Pearson (1999). Workplace incivility was first introduced as a new domain in the research area of negative workplace behavior in an influential theoretical paper by Andersson and Pearson (1999) published in the Academy of Management Review (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). Since its introduction over two decades ago, the subject area has gained some ground regarding coverage (Vasconcelos, 2020). Despite the research on this topic, the literature on the subject matter remains slim compared to other types of negative behaviors in organizations, like bullying, harassment, aggression, and physical violence (Cortina, 2008; Manzoor et al., 2020). However, it has started gaining momentum due to the increasing research from scholars on the subject area. With the complexities that come with globalization, changes in our politics, economies, technological advancements, organizational structures, workplace cultures, and modern demands, there is a need for more research of varying perspectives on the subject of workplace incivility (Pearson et al., 2005; Akella & Lewis, 2019).

In their literature review papers, Schilpzand et al. (2016a) and Vasconcelos (2020) indicate a strong correlation between incivility and counter-productivity in organizations with high levels of incivility. On their side, Hershcovis (2011), and Hershcovis and Barling (2010), argue that diverse forms of aggression, which include incivility, lead to interpersonal conflict in an organization. It may also lead to role and responsibility conflict (Schilpzand et al., 2016a) and increased work-family conflict (Lim & Lee, 2011; Ferguson, 2012; Zhou et al., 2019). Workplace incivility and its associated adverse outcomes affect an organization's professional culture. An organization's tolerance to workplace incivility is directly proportional to the level of workplace incivility at that organization (Gedro & Wang, 2013). An organizational culture that embraces incivility allows high levels of incivility and its adverse outcomes, while an organizational culture that rejects incivility encourages positive work-related outcomes like organizational citizenship behavior. Estes and Wang

(2008) indicate a strong relationship between the levels of incivility and organizational culture.

Workplace incivility creates an unpleasant business environment that can negatively affect a company and its operations (Pearson et al., 2001). Whether done knowingly or unknowingly, workplace incivility is a behavior that negatively impacts the individual or group of individuals who experience or witness it. Incivility may be seen as minor or infrequent rudeness, but when it becomes familiar, it may affect the behaviors of individuals and may force them to become rude or violent. This may lead to memory loss or depression, which can reduce the output of individuals due to loss of concentration at work (Akella & Lewis, 2019). Workplace incivility and rude behavior make employees unhappy. They can lead to negative behaviors like aggressiveness and lower productivity, which may lead to the downfall of the company they work for (Gonthier, 2002). Workplace incivility deserves much research due to its harmful effects on organizations and individuals (Cortina et al., 2001).

1.2. Research Gap

Although the literature on workplace incivility has increased, only some countries have been examined. In a comprehensive literature review paper, Vasconcelos (2020) indicated the existence of only 18 countries as samples used to study workplace incivility and its impact on organizations. These 18 countries included; the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, China, Cyprus, Germany, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Korea, Southeast Asia, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. Only one research paper published on this topic examines the continent of Africa, and it is confined to the country of Nigeria (Abubakar et al., 2018a). This indicates a tremendous underrepresentation of the African continent concerning research knowledge on the topic of workplace incivility. This research intends to look at two African countries, The Gambia and Ghana, as they are as culturally diverse as the other countries already studied. With regards to the research samples that already exist in the literature, a majority of these samples look at the private sector for examples of workplace incivility (Scott et al., 2013; Abubakar et al., 2018a; Arasli et al., 2018)

while a few looked at the public sector (Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina & Magley, 2009). Our research intents to use both the public and private sectors as a sample to examine a potential difference between the two sectors. This is done through a country-level comparison by examining the two countries separately.

Along with studying the varying levels of workplace incivilities, the sources of these incivilities must also be examined (Schilpzand et al., 2016a; Vasconcelos, 2020). There are three primary sources of workplace incivility; supervisor-initiated, coworker-initiated, and customer-initiated. Regrettably, most papers used the umbrella term of incivility instead of separately looking at its three sources and their contributions towards workplace incivility in general or how they can impact employee performance (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). All three sources of workplace incivility have a different effect on the target, so it is rational to consider possible differences in outcomes based on the source of the incivility (Han et al., 2022). Knowing if supervisor-initiated incivility contributes more towards workplace incivility than coworker or customer incivility is essential. Making a hierarchy of which type has the highest contributions toward negative organizational impacts can be equally important. Despite the research on workplace incivility, only two looked at these three separate sources and their impacts (Cho et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2019). In research to investigate the impact of workplace incivility related explicitly to emotional exhaustion and low-level job performance of restaurant service employees in Florida, USA, Cho et al. (2016) found that incivility from the customers had a higher negative impact on the employees which was followed by supervisor incivility with the least being coworker-initiated incivility.

Zhou et al. (2019) concentrated on the spillover effect of experienced workplace incivility from the three sources (supervisor, coworker, and customer) on the targets' work-to-family conflict. This longitudinal study collected data for five uninterrupted weeks from full-time nurses. The results indicated a positive relationship between the two sources of incivility (coworker and customer) and work-to-family conflict. This research indicates that employees are not only affected by internal sources (supervisors and coworkers) of incivility but also by external ones (customers). Due to the limited number of papers looking at the separate impacts of the three sources of incivility and their impacts on employee and organizational performance, this

study is very timely in helping to bolster the available research. These two pieces of research have different developing country populations; public and private institutions in the Gambia and Ghana. Ghana is a predominantly Christian-populated country, and The Gambia is predominantly Muslim-populated. There is a possibility of having different and interesting results due to the different religious populations. The concepts of Protestant work ethics (Arslan, 2001; Weber & Kalberg, 1985) and Islamic work ethics (Yousef, 2001; Ahmad, 2011) will help us understand the potential differences or similarities of incivility between our two sample countries. Muslim work ethics encourages cooperation, unity, and respect for the plight of others, including spirituality at work and communal sentiment in an organization. Ahmad (2011) states that a Muslim work ethic leads to employee creativity, honesty, and trust. Protestant and Muslim work ethics encourage hard work, organizational commitment, creativity, and employee cooperation (Yousef, 2001). According to Weber and Kalberg (2013), Protestant work ethics breeds hard work and productivity. With the similarities between the Protestant and Muslim work ethics, it is interesting to see the potential differences between the Gambia and Ghana in workplace incivility results. Muslim and Protestant work ethics are not measured in this study but are only stated as a source of comparison between countries with different religious work ethics. This research has different dependent variables from the papers mentioned above since it examines the impact of a supervisor, coworker, and customer-initiated incivility on counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.3. Aim and Objectives of the Study

This study investigates the impact of workplace incivility (rudeness) on employee performance.

The objectives of the study are as follows:

- To investigate the impact of workplace incivility through the mediating effect of psychological ownership on employee counterproductive work behavior.
- To investigate the impact of workplace incivility through the mediating effect of psychological ownership on employee turnover intention.

- To investigate the impact of workplace incivility through the mediating effect of psychological ownership on employee organizational citizenship behavior.
- To investigate the impact of psychological ownership through the mediating effect of turnover intention on employee counterproductive work behavior.
- To investigate the impact of psychological ownership through the mediating effect of turnover intention on employee organizational citizenship behavior.

1.4. Research Questions

- What are the antecedents of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior?
- What are the consequences of workplace incivility on employees' counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior?
- What are the consequences of psychological ownership and turnover intention on employee counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior?
- Are there any differences in workplace incivility on employee turnover intention, counterproductive work behavior, and organizational citizenship behavior in The Gambia and Ghana?
- Are there any differences in workplace incivility on employee counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior in The Gambia and Ghana's public and private sectors?

1.5. Scope and Significance of the Study

While research on the impact of workplace incivility has increased, there needs to be more understanding when it comes to separately looking at the impacts of the three sources of incivility (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). This research will separately look at the impact of workplace incivility from a supervisor, coworker, and customer on employee performance instead of aggregating all three sources into one, like most previous research papers. The population of this research is the public and private institutions in The Gambia and Ghana, located in West Africa. The study covers the impact of workplace incivility on counterproductive employee work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior through the mediating roles of psychological

ownership and turnover intention. The research examines companies with head offices in the Greater Banjul Area in The Gambia and the Greater Accra Region in Ghana. The Greater Banjul Area in The Gambia consists of the capital city of Banjul and the Kanifing Municipal Council, hosting about 26% of the country's population. This location hosts major public and private sector companies in the country (Jaiteh, 2008). In Ghana, the Greater Accra Region, out of the ten administrative regions, is the smallest in square kilometers. However, it does host the capital city and significant head offices of both public and private companies (Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council, n.d). This makes the Greater Banjul Area and Greater Accra region fertile for sample selection.

With the increasing research on the workplace incivility concept, scholars have now paid more attention to some of the predicaments it may pose to organizations and individuals. A few countries have been covered in the literature (Vasconcelos, 2020), so covering two African countries, The Gambia and Ghana, with different cultures, may bring exciting results to workplace incivility. Additionally, this research will be using public and private institutions as a sample, unlike the majority of studies on workplace incivility that use private sector institutions for their studies (e.g., Scott et al., 2013; Abubakar et al., 2018a; Arasli et al., 2018). Finally, and most importantly, a lot of the research on workplace incivility aggregates all three sources of initiated incivility under one umbrella. However, this research looks at the separate impact of all three sources of incivility on employee performance. This is only the third paper to look at the negative impact of these three sources of incivility on employee performance, but the first to look at Africa as a sample. It will be the first to examine how a supervisor, coworker, and customer-initiated workplace incivility impact counterproductive work behavior and employees' organizational citizenship behavior through the mediating roles of psychological ownership and turnover intention.

This research is also significant because it examines the causal effect between workplace incivility and employee performance. Additionally, just the comparison of the Gambia and Ghana, in terms of averages of workplace incivility, is a significant contribution. Most importantly, The Gambia, made out of a predominantly Muslim population, and Ghana, a predominantly Christian population, shows the importance of a cross-cultural study based on religious differences. This paper will help scholars

determine if there is a difference in the impacts of a supervisor, coworker, and customer-initiated workplace incivility on employee performance instead of looking at them as a single variable. It will also help public and private institutions in the Gambia and Ghana to know some of the negative impacts that workplace incivility can cause on their employees' performance. The results of this study are also an asset for future researchers in the subject area, especially those based on the African continent.

1.6. Why Research in Africa (The Gambia and Ghana)

Africa is the second most populated continent, with over 1 billion inhabitants. Endowed with most of the natural resources in the world, Africa's presence in the global marketplace is noticeable. However, as a resource, knowledge from the people still needs to be explored mainly (Jackson, 2004). Despite being the second-largest continent with more than 12 percent of the world's population, research on the continent accounts for less than 1% of the total research done around the globe (Duermeijer et al., 2018). This represents a severe underrepresentation of thorough research on the continent (Rossiter & Ishaku, 2019). There is a need for more research on the continent to give insight into the development and managerial realities of the continent as well as organizational issues (Kamoche, 2011). Africa has the youngest and fastest-growing population in the world, which necessitates intellectual investment to harness talent, which consists of a large share of the global population (Marincola & Kariuki, 2020).

The additional research should include more than just the pure sciences, social sciences, and humanities studies. "A society without a human culture is inhuman, and each country has its own culture and history. These deserve to be studied with the same scientific thoroughness as Western cultures (Dekeyser, 2012, p. 1)". Looking at the differences that may exist in the behaviors and attitudes of workers' and managers' cultural values and traditions are essential variables to consider. Research has postulated that Western countries are primarily individualistic, while African nations are community-driven and human-oriented (House et al., 2004). This means there is a possibility of getting very different research results when looking into these different regions. Additionally, the result in one region may not

represent the true reflection of the possible results in the other regions. Ultimately, research results in Western countries may differ from those in African countries due to significant cultural differences.

Research using the whole African continent as a sample may be too expensive, time-consuming, and challenging due to the sheer number of countries and cultural diversity. However, using the argument of House et al. (2004), which postulated that African countries are culturally collectivistic and humane-oriented, allows for the usage of a few countries to represent some realities of the continent, thus the use of The Gambia and Ghana as samples countries from the African continent in this examination. Both countries were British colonies and shared similar laws, educational systems, and administrative procedures. However, the two countries are also different regarding their societal cultures. 71% of the Ghanaian population is Christian, while only about 18% is Muslim (U.S. Department of State, 2021; Fage, n.d). The population of The Gambia, however, is 96% Muslim and only 3.8% Christian (Gailey, n.d.). These similarities and differences make the two countries a rich sample for a comparative study on workplace incivility in African countries.

1.7. The Structure of the Study

This study consists of five chapters outlined as follows;

Chapter I gives a general background of workplace incivility as a research study area. It indicates the gap in the literature and how this study bridges it. The research aims, and objectives are also discussed, as are the research questions. The chapter also looks at the scope and significance of the study and the importance of doing research in Africa, specifically The Gambia, and Ghana.

Chapter II delves into the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study as well as hypothesis development. It also examines the literature on workplace incivility and its possible outcomes. The relationship between workplace incivility and employee performance is also discussed. It also looks at research on psychological ownership and turnover intention which are important mediating variables in the research model.

Chapter III presents the research methodology in detail by outlining the research design, sampling procedures, sample size, data collection processes, and tools, research variables and measurement, and the pilot study with a discussion of its results. This chapter also deals with the data analysis methods and packages used.

Chapter IV discusses the data analysis, ranging from descriptive statistics to structural equation modeling. It involves the interpretation of the results of the analyzed data.

Chapter V discusses and concludes the study. The discussion involves a detailed explanation of the results and their connection to the study's hypothesis as well as the similarities and differences between the results of this study and other studies in the literature. This is followed by a conclusion that looks into the general summary of the study, its essential role in research, and its implications.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter II delves into the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study as well as hypothesis development. It also examines the literature on workplace incivility and its possible outcomes. The relationship between workplace incivility and employee performance is also discussed. It also looks at research on psychological ownership and turnover intention which are important mediating variables in the research model.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

This study uses the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964, 1986, 2017) and the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) as theoretical backgrounds used to formulate the research model in **Figure 2.1** and the research hypotheses in **Table 2.1.**

2.1.1. Social Exchange Theory

The social exchange theory (SET) is one of the major theories used to understand workplace behavior and relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). A wide array of the most essential topics in organizational behavior have been examined through the lens of SET. Among these crucial topics are; commitment, social justice, organizational support (Cropanzano et al., 2017), incivility (Meier & Spector, 2013), psychological ownership (Wattanasak, 2021), social loafing (Hou & Zhang, 2021), etc. These studies indicate that the genesis of SET started with Homans' (1958) publication on social behavior as an exchange. This allowed prominent scholars on SET, like Blau (1964), to build a foundation and restructure the theory. According to Homans (1958) and Emerson (1976), SET indicates a relationship between two people involving a cost and a benefit. Emerson (1976) postulated that a person's

behavior is justified by resource exchange; people's behavior is contingent on other people's behavior. The main principle of SET is this reciprocal interdependence; when a person gains a benefit from another, they are socially expected to reciprocate (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). SET is defined as "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do bring from others" (Blau, 1964, p. 91; Blau, 2017, p. 129). Actors are incredibly motivated to be involved in an exchange when they feel the benefit outweighs the cost (Flynn, 2005).

Gill et al. (2019) define "reciprocal" and "negotiated" as two forms of social exchange. Reciprocal exchange is when an individual performs a benefit for others without knowing if it will be returned or not. A negotiated exchange involves individuals measuring benefits and forming a social contract to repay similar benefits (McLeod et al., 2012; Gill et al., 2019). The benefits of a reciprocal social exchange are often intangible (e.g., influence in a group). In contrast, the benefits of a negotiated exchange are typically tangible (e.g., money) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). SET indicates a substantial nature of social relationships in creating positive work behaviors and attitudes (Nachmias et al., 2022). It also indicates the importance of creating a supportive working environment to enable effective colleague performance (Martins, 2015). SET stipulates the vitality of psychological and sociological exchanges essential in creating effective relationships that breathe positive attitudes and behaviors at the workplace (McClean & Collins, 2011).

Incivility, the core concentration of this study, is a major workplace stressor that disrupts the fundamentals of an employee's social exchange relationships (Meier & Spector, 2013). SET argues that people develop social relationships encouraging mutual obligations and commitments between the exchange partners. However, incivility disrupts these fundamentals by violating the norms of respectful treatment (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Due to the theory's principle of reciprocity, one can argue that when an employee is treated well, they are more likely to exhibit positive behavior. When they are mistreated, they may exhibit the opposite. A positive mediating variable (PO) may change an employee's organizational behaviors. Based on the principle of reciprocity in SET, when employees are treated well at the workplace, they tend to reciprocate through positive

work behaviors. However, when they are not treated well (e.g., facing workplace incivility), they may reciprocate by being involved in negative work behaviors that may be detrimental to the organization (Wattanasak, 2021; Han et al., 2022). Vaitoonkiat and Charoensukmongkol (2020) postulated that when a supervisor in an organization treats their subordinates well, the employees try to reciprocate through positive work behaviors leading to higher organizational performance. However, employees may reciprocate through CWB and low or no OCB when they face incivility. High-quality social exchange reduces negative behaviors like CWB and improves positive behaviors like OCB, while exploitative or abusive exchanges discourage positive behaviors (Mitchell et al., 2012). The social exchange begins when an individual treats another person positively or negatively. Depending on the nature of the treatment, the reciprocation type is established.

2.1.2. Theory of Reasoned Action

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) is a well-developed and extensively used behavioral model that concentrates on individual interest and social influence. It examines how attitudes and subjective norms predict behavioral intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The main purpose of TRA is to understand the intentional behavior of a person by investigating the essential basic motivation to act. The normative belief of the individual also plays a part in whether or not they will continue the behavior. The intention to carry out behavior is fundamental to this theory since it precedes the actual behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Azjen & Madden, 1986; Becker et al., 1995). TRA postulates that people's actions are largely steered by their attitudes, beliefs, and behavioral intentions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). "The theory posits that overt behavior is a function of a person's intention, which in turn is hypothesized to depend on that person's attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norms" (Bagozzi et al., 1992, p. 505). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1977), people's attitudes are systematically associated with their actions when attitudinal predictors are considered.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), TRA consists of two important components; behavioral intentions and subjective norms. Behavioral intention serves as the predictor of an individual's actual behavior. At the same time, subjective

norms deal with the perception of the individual on the existence of social pressure to perform or not perform an action (Ajzen, 2012). The most important factor in acting is the level of an individual's intention to act (Fishbein, 2008). There is a bias toward a behavior before it is carried out that a person uses to analyze if the given behavior is suitable or unsuitable. This is why the subjective norm of an individual is important to consider since it reflects the perceived social pressure to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Becker et al., 1995).

According to Becker et al. (1995), TRA is a suitable theory to explain and predict OCB and, in some cases, CWB. This study leverages TRA to study the relationship between psychological ownership and employee performance (CWB and OCB) through the mediating role of turnover intention. This study postulates that due to the existence of TI as a mediator between PO and employee performance, the CWB of the employees may increase while their OCB may decrease. These behaviors may be influenced by the employee's behavioral intention and subjective norms, as alluded to in the earlier paragraphs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). TRA assumes that, as humans, we behave using rational considerations grounded on our attitudes and the social pressures we perceive (Wibowo & Indarti, 2020). In essence, even though individuals may have the intention to leave an organization, their performance of CWB or OCB is determined by their attitudes and biases as well as organizational social pressure. This study was designed to examine how perceived social pressure and employee behavioral intention may influence an employee's level of TI.

2.2. Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis Development

This study examines the relationship between workplace incivility and employee performance (OCB and CWB) through the mediating roles of psychological ownership and turnover intention, as shown in **Figure 2.1**. The formulation of the study model is based on the use of the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964, 1986, 2017) and the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The social exchange theory (SET) explains the mediating role of PO in the relationship between incivility and employee performance. In contrast, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) explains the mediating role of turnover intention in the relationship between psychological ownership and employee performance.

2.2.1. Workplace Incivility

Being polite has historically led to societies living in elevated levels of peace and harmony as feelings of togetherness and strong communal bonds garner sustained societal growth. Incivility, however, could be seen as the opposite of being polite. This phenomenon is widely spread in our interconnected world and characterizes deviant workplace behavior (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

> Workplace incivility, which refers to all forms of rude and mundane slights, condescending behavior, and routine indignities, has become a topic of concern for all organizations and their management. Workplace incivility constitutes distracting and annoying behaviors such as ignoring someone, withholding information, making sarcastic gestures, spreading rumors and not greeting subordinates, mimicry, looking down on a colleague and sending offensive messages and signals, and damaging a colleague's reputation (Akella & Eid, 2020, p. 1).

Workplace incivility (WPI) has three major qualities (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2001). Firstly, it involves the violation of norms related to interpersonal respect since it indicates condescension toward others. Additionally, WPI is minor in nature, with a low-level intensity of negative behavior compared to other behaviors like mistreatment. Thirdly, WPI lacks a clear indication of intent to harm the target due to the ambiguity of the perpetrator's intention. WPI is different from mistreatment since the instigator of the negative behavior may intend to harm the target or simply lack the knowledge that they are being uncivil (Pearson et al., 2001; Pearson et al., 2005).

Workplace incivility "is low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). The research on workplace incivility may be triggered by the findings of Marks (1996), that indicated 91% of respondents in American research faced incivility, which has increased bouts of violence in the country. Cortina et al. (2001) also concluded that over two-thirds of respondents from their research on public sector employees have reported incivility in their professional organizations. Workplace incivility is a negative behavior that goes against moral values and could lead to aggression and violence in professional organizations. It can also affect the productivity levels of these organizations and

their employees' mental and physical well-being. It is paramount for organizations to know more about the antecedents of incivility and its possible consequences (Anderson & Pearson, 1991). This is the reason why more research on workplace incivility is important for a general understanding of the subject.

Research samples on workplace incivility are mostly from America (Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Cho et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2019), which is no surprise due to the country's culture of research and its large percentage of global GDP. However, some additional countries have also been covered; Australia (Griffin, 2010), New Zealand (Griffin, 2010), Singapore (Lim & Lee, 2011), Canada (Leiter et al., 2012), China (Chen et al., 2013), the Philippines (Scott et al., 2013), Nigeria (Abubakar et al., 2018a) and North Cyprus (Arasli et al., 2018), South Korea (Cha & Sung, 2020). According to Vasconcelos (2020), there are 18 countries (USA, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, China, Cyprus, German, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Korea, Southeast Asia, Sweden, Switzerland, UK) that have been covered by research since the start of focusing on workplace incivility in 1999.

On the African continent, only one piece of research (Abubakar et al., 2018a) looked at workplace incivility. Therefore, further research is needed to look into workplace incivility on the African continent, specifically in The Gambia and Ghana, with a focus on employee performance. The already published papers from the list of countries above took their samples from employees of various jobs and professions, which include public sector employees (Cortina et al., 2001), bank employees (Abubakar et al., 2018a), healthcare workers (Leiter et al., 2012), call center employees (Scott et al., 2013), hotel employees (Arasli et al., 2018), university employees, attorneys and, court employees (Cortina & Magley, 2009).

Methodologically, the majority of research on workplace incivility employed cross-sectional studies. However, some researchers have used both longitudinal and time-lagged research, diary study, and experimental design (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). Some have used experience sampling, mixed methods, non-experimental design, three-wave survey, cross-sectional (qualitative design), grounded theory, and case studies (Vasconcelos, 2020).

Three types of incivility are mentioned in the literature: experienced incivility, witnessed incivility, and instigated incivility. Experienced incivility deals with the targets of the uncivil act. Witnessed incivility defines the party that was present when the act of incivility was done to the target. And instigated incivility examines the perpetrators of the uncivil act (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). A majority of the literature concentrates on experienced workplace incivility and its impact on employees (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Penney & Spector, 2005; Porath & Erez, 2007; Lim et al., 2008; Lim & Lee, 2011; Leiter et al., 2012; Porath & Pearson, 2012 Sliter et al., 2012a; Sliter et al., 2012b; Chen et al., 2013; Schilpzand et al., 2016b Loh & Loi 2018; Moon & Hur, 2018; Tong et al**.,** 2019; Zhou et al., 2019). Researchers on experienced workplace incivility concentrated on its impact and the reasons one could become a target of uncivil acts in the workplace (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). The second most widely researched type of workplace incivility is instigated workplace incivility (e.g., Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina & Magley, 2009; Blau & Andersson, 2005; van Jaatsveld et al., 2010; Scott et al., 2013; Gabriel et al., 2018). This leaves witnessed incivility as the least studied of the three (Pearson & Porath, 2009; Reich & Hershcovis, 2015; Holm et al., 2019). This suggests that more research could be needed on witnessed workplace incivility and how it may impact the observer during the uncivil act. According to Schilpzand et al. (2016a), there are various outcomes of workplace incivility, including behavioral outcomes, all of which impact the targets negatively. These same impacts can also be true for the witness of the uncivil act.

Instigated workplace incivility research has postulated that the instigator likely acts in an uncivil way due to their higher level of organizational power (Cortina et al., 2001), possession of anger traits, or having a dominating conflict-management style (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). Literature on workplace incivility categorizes these into supervisor-initiated, coworker-initiated, and customer-initiated. However, most of the research on the subject matter seems to mass them under one umbrella (i.e., incivility) instead of looking at them separately (Schilpzand et al., 2016a). Each instigator of WI has a different status in relation to the victim and a different effect on the organization. Henceforth, it is sensible to investigate their impacts on the victim based on the instigator. There is little focus on the possible outcomes of incivility from the three different sources of negative behavior. Only two papers in

the literature cover all three sources of incivility separately and their impact, which are Cho et al. (2016) and (Zhou et al., 2019).

While Cho et al. (2016) concentrated on the impacts of these sources, specifically on emotional exhaustion and low-level performance, Zhou et al. (2019) looked at the spillover on the targets' work-to-family conflicts. In order to investigate the impact of workplace incivility on the emotional exhaustion and low-level job performance of restaurant service employees, Cho et al. (2016) found that incivility from the customers had a higher negative impact on the employees. The second highest was supervisor incivility, and the least was coworker-initiated incivility. This longitudinal study collected data for five uninterrupted weeks from full-time nurses, and the results indicated a positive relationship between the two sources of incivility (coworker and customer) and work-to-family conflict. This research indicates that employees are affected by internal sources (supervisors and coworkers) of incivility and external ones (customers).

Due to the limited number of papers looking at the separate impacts of the three sources of incivility and their impact on employee performance, this research looks to close that gap further by examining public and private institutions in the Gambia and Ghana. The different independent variables, supervisor, coworker, and customer-initiated incivility, are also studied for their effects on counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior.

Some researchers, instead of comparing the impact of the three sources of incivility, decided to compare only two sources, while others adopted only one source to examine the impact on employees. The first research attempt to separately look at the sources of workplace incivility was by Sliter et al. (2012b). This study surveyed 120 bank tellers to examine the relationship between their experience of workplace incivility from customers and coworkers along with its impact on their withdrawal behavior and sales performance. The results indicated that customer-initiated incivility led to a drop in sales and an increase in withdrawal behavior, while coworker-initiated incivility led to an increase in withdrawal behavior but had no significant effect on sales performance. This suggests that customer-initiated

workplace incivility has a higher impact on employee and organizational performance compared to coworker-initiated incivility (Sliter et al., 2012b).

After this research was published, some other studies also examined either two sources or one source of incivility and their impacts on employees. Ghosh et al. (2013) and Lan et al. (2020) focused on supervisor and coworker-initiated incivility, while Hur et al. (2016) looked at coworker and customer-initiated incivility. As mentioned above, some papers adopted only one source of incivility as their area of concentration in their research. Some used only supervisor incivility (Jawahar & Schreurs, 2018; Kabat-Farr et al.,2019). Others used coworker incivility (Viotti et al., 2018; Trent & Allen, 2019), while the majority looked at only customer-initiated incivility (van Jaarsveld et al., 2010; Ferguson, 2012; Mullen & Kelloway, 2013; Walker et al., 2014; Hur et al., 2015; Kim & Qu, 2019). Schilpzand et al. (2016a) mention that more research is still needed to look at the three sources of incivility separately instead of their aggregate results. Curious, though, is a piece of research that used the three sources of incivility as moderators instead of independent or dependent variables. Arasli et al. (2018) used supervisor, coworker, and customer-initiated incivility to moderate the relationship between hotel front-desk employees and their job performance outcomes. The results indicated a moderating effect of all three sources.

Common questions across cultures remain: Why do employees behave in an uncivil way? What makes some employees more likely to be targets of workplace incivility than others? Studying the antecedents of workplace incivility can help define answers to these questions. Research on the antecedents of workplace incivility categorizes them into three main groups; individual characteristics, demographic characteristics, and environmental characteristics (Yao et al., 2021; Irum et al., 2020; Han et al., 2022). For any form of WPI to happen, there must be the presence of two or more parties to define the perpetrator and the target. This also means that in understanding the antecedents of workplace incivility, the contribution of one or more of these parties is important (Anderson & Pearson, 1999).

The demographic characteristics that serve as antecedents of workplace incivility include gender, race, education, rank, tenure age, etc. These demographic categories

give a potential perpetrator a list of viable targets (Yao et al., 2021). Employees with high rank and long tenure are considered to be integral team players, unlike employees of lower rank. However, employees with lower ranks are historically associated with lower status, which makes them vulnerable targets of incivility (Warren, 1968; Berger et al., 1972). According to Cortina (2017), women, people of color, and younger (Lim & Lee, 2011) employees are greater targets of workplace incivility compared to men, whites, or older employees. The perpetrator-predation paradigm postulates the existence of a bias against historically underrepresented people or groups with lower power, which make them easy targets for incivility (Cortina et al., 2013).

The individual characteristics of employees play a great role in depicting the antecedents of workplace incivility. One of the major predictors that indicate if an individual would be a victim of incivility or not is personality type (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). A person who is considered emotional may likely express their feelings of unhappiness by engaging in uncivil behaviors. Less agreeable individuals tend to be perpetrators of incivility as they can be argumentative (Irum et al., 2020). Perpetrators of workplace incivility may look for employees who are somewhat more vulnerable due to their unlikability or inability to defend themselves (English et al., 2012; Cortina, 2017; Cortina et al., 2018; Yao et al., 2021).

Perpetrators of incivility are more likely to instigate incivility in a working environment where negative behavior is typically more common due to inconsistent punishment policy enforcement (Cortina, 2017; Yao et al., 2021). Lee and Jensen (2014) postulate that supervisors are the major perpetrators of workplace incivility in professional environments. With a supervisor whose leadership is passive, there is a high chance of employees developing incivility tendencies compared to employees with a supervisor whose leadership style is active. An organization led by a passive avoidance leader unwilling to address complaints encourages an environment where incivility can grow more readily (Han et al., 2022). Working in an organization that entails a lot of pressure from the nature of the job may be a potential reason for negative behaviors like incivility (Pearson et al., 2005; Torkelson et al., 2016).

Unwritten moral obligations are considered to be a psychological contract that an employer is expected to fulfill and, in a repercussion situation where they have not been fulfilled, an environment of distrust is created, which gives incivility a fertile ground to survive (Sayers et al., 2011). As a result of the breach of a psychological contract between the employee and the employer, the employee, in an attempt to show frustration, may conduct negative behaviors, including incivility (Irum et al., 2020). When a job is highly challenging, it may drain an employee's resolve, which may let them treat others harshly. In short, a stressful work environment, with the possibility of role conflict, may be considered a viable antecedent for incivility (Taylor et al., 2012). According to Blau and Andersson (2005), employees who have symptoms of work exhaustion or are dissatisfied with their employment are considered potential perpetrators of incivility. Distributive injustice may also be a continued source of incivility, especially when employees consistently witness the injustices in their workplace (Blau & Andersson, 2005).

Several scholars have concentrated on the detrimental outcomes that negative behavior can cause. Among them are; low job satisfaction (Lim et al., 2008; Alias et al., 2020), low organizational commitment and satisfaction (Reio, 2011), turnover intention (Ghosh et al., 2013), emotional exhaustion (Hur et al., 2015; Cho et al., 2016; Welbourne et al., 2020), psychological withdrawal behavior, and self-blame (Schilpzand et al., 2016b) job burnout (Rahim & Cosby, 2016) low creativity and reduced intrinsic motivation (Hur et al., 2016) knowledge hiding (Arshad & Ismail, 2018) job-related anxiety (De Clercq et al., 2018) low organizational citizenship behavior (Mackey et al., 2019; De Clercq et al., 2019) sabotage behavior (Cheng et al., 2019) counterproductive behavior (Penney & Spector, 2005; Daniels & Jordan, 2019) sleep disorders (Demsky et al., 2019) work to family conflict (Lim & Lee, 2011; Ferguson, 2012; Zhou et al., 2019), etc. Workplace incivility is a constantly encountered phenomenon with a serious negative impact on interpersonal relationships as well as organizational survival. According to research in USA and Canada by Porath and Pearson (2013), 98% of employees encounter incivility at the workplace, and 50% experience it at least once per week. The monetary cost of experiencing incivility is estimated at $14,000 per employee per year due to decreased productivity (Pearson & Porath, 2009). The consequences are very severe since they make employees worry about their safety and sanity all the time, try to

avoid the instigator, who may be a coworker, supervisor, or customer, withdraw from work, or even take their anger out on their customers and at worse their families at home (Schilpzand et al., 2016a).

Incivility leads to reduced performance, counterproductive work behavior, and the intention for revenge (Penney & Spector, 2005; Han et al., 2022). Victims of incivility are often faced with difficult choices caused by negative emotional feelings leading them to disengage from their work, have the intention to quit, or actually quit (Irum et al., 2020). It can also impact the creativity levels of the victims as well as their thought processes, impacting their ability to conduct daily tasks (Hur et al., 2016). According to Pearson and Porath (2009), employees can sometimes spend half their working hours thinking about incivility incidents and reducing their workplace performance and organizational commitment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). According to Vickers (2006), incivility can lead to feelings related to self-alienation. The implications of these negative behavior can have a large financial consequence on the organizations that employ them (Abid et al., 2015).

This research aims to highlight and fill the existing gaps in the literature on workplace incivility. A summary of the existing research on workplace incivility and its possible outcomes is presented in **Table 2.1**. This table helps in understanding the depth of research done on the subject area as well as the areas uncovered

Table 2.1. Workplace Incivility Literature Review Summary

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Alias et al. (2022)	The study investigates what workforce incivility means for public service employees in Putrajaya.	Privacy, Exclusionary behavior, gossiping, hostility, Job satisfaction, Work stress, Knowledge sharing, Psychological contract, Work engagement		Workplace incivility	The study finds that in public service organizations, Knowledge sharing is not affected by workplace incivility. Additionally, there is a relationship between workforce incivility and psychological contract, job satisfaction, work stress, and work engagement.
Chen et al. (2018)	To develop a multidimensional scale of workplace incivility and (b) to cross-validate the multidimensionality of workplace incivility among American and Chinese workers.	Inconsiderate Behavior, Abusive Supervision, Social Exclusion, Inappropriate Jokes, Communication Etiquette, Free-Riding, Gossip and Cursing, Climate of Hostility, Job Satisfaction, Physical Symptoms, and Intention to Quit.		Work incivility, multidimensional workplace incivility	There is a need for organizations to create and design targeted interventions to minimize workplace incivility. The designing of such interventions is essential for both stress management and cross-cultural management.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	***Issue Covered***	***Independent Variable(s)***	***Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)***	***Dependent Variable(s)***	***Finding(s)***
Cortina & Magley, (2009)	Patterns of individual response to workplace incivility	Incivility	Coping mechanisms	Appraisal of Incivility	Incivility triggers negative appraisals, especially when the instigator is in a higher-level position.
Cortina et al., (2002)	Experiences of Interpersonal Incivility among attorneys in federal litigation	Interpersonal mistreatment	Job stress, job satisfaction	Job withdrawal	Female attorneys face a higher rate of incivility compared to male attorneys. The instigators of incivility are senior personnel in the courts and junior personnel. Respondents (attorneys) avoided the reporting of experienced incivility.
Cortina et al., (2001)	To examine the issue of interpersonal mistreatment in a workplace with a focus on workplace incivility as a result of incidence rates, instigators, targets	Interpersonal mistreatment, incidence rates, targets, instigators		Workplace incivility	Most of the powerful people in organizations instigate uncivil acts. Women experience and endure uncivil acts more than men, but both men and women have experienced similar negative effects on how their job satisfaction, job withdrawal, and career salience. An uncivil environment causes psychological distress.
Cortina et al., (2013)	The argument is "that “general” incivility, in some forms, is anything but general, instead representing a modern manifestation of bias that alienates women and people of color from work life. Theories of double jeopardy and intersectionality suggest that women of color may be most at risk for this mistreatment".	Target gender, target job tenure, target age,	Incivility	Turnover intent	Apart from age, gender and race affect uncivil acts in the workplace. These acts increase the intention to leave jobs. Additionally, there is a moderate mediation with race and target gender that also predicts uncivil acts like the women of color getting the worst treatment.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
De Clercq et al., (2019)	The association between workplace incivility and helping behavior	Workplace incivility	Political skill, job dissatisfaction	Helping behavior	Employees who experience workplace incivility reduce their helping behavior due to their sense of job dissatisfaction.
Demsky et al., (2019)	Relationship between workplace incivility and the sleep of employees	Supervisor incivility, Coworker incivility	Negative work rumination, psychological detachment relaxation	Insomnia symptoms	A significant relationship exists between workplace incivility and increased insomnia symptoms through a moderated mediation role of negative work rumination and psychological detachment relaxation.
Ferguson, (2012)	Examination of the spillover and crossover effects of a certain chronic stressor, coworker incivility on target marital satisfaction, partner marital satisfaction, and partner family-to-work conflict. The mediation role of partner's perception of stress transmission from work to the family domain.	Coworker incivility	Partner's perceptions of stress transmission from work to family domain	Target marital satisfaction, Partner marital satisfaction, partner family to work conflicts	Coworker incivility causes both spillover and crossover outcomes on target marital satisfaction, partner marital satisfaction, and partner-to-work conflicts. Additionally, workplace incivility targets do take the stress of those acts from work to home and influence their relationship with their partner.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Han et al. (2022)	Examine an integrative framework to investigate factors contributing to the experience of workplace incivility (including victim demography, individual dispositional differences, and environmental factors); the affective, health-related, social exchange-based, and behavioral outcomes associated with experienced incivility; and boundary conditions for their relationships.	Victim dispositional individual differences, victim demographic individual differences, environmental factors	Experienced incivility, instigator source, occupation, experienced incivility and other forms of mistreatment behaviors (bullying, abusive supervision, sexual harassment)	Affective and health-related outcomes, social exchange-based outcomes, and behavioral and withdrawal outcomes.	Environmental factors and individual differences affect workplace incivility, and workplace incivility is related to a host of affective, health-related, and social exchange-based attitudes and behavioral outcomes.
Harold & Holtz (2015)	The examination of the effect of passive leadership on workplace incivility.	Passive leadership	Experienced workplace incivility	Behavioral incivility	The findings show that there is a positive and significant relationship between behavioral incivility and an indirect effect through experienced incivility.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
He et al. (2020)	Relationship between experienced workplace incivility and detrimental outcomes through the mediating role of negative rumination	Incivility	Negative rumination, perceived organizational support, family-supportive work environment	Job satisfaction, burnout, work-to-family conflict, life satisfaction	There is a significant relationship between workplace incivility and detrimental outcomes through the mediating role of negative rumination. When used as moderated mediators, perceived organizational support and family-supportive work environment reduce detrimental outcomes.
Hershcovis et al. (2017)	The examination of the mediation relationship of belongingness and embarrassment on incivility towards job insecurity and somatic health complaints.	Incivility	Belongingness Embarrassment	Somatic health complaints, job insecurity	we find that incidents of single perpetrator incivility are associated with target feelings of isolation and embarrassment, which in turn relate to targets' perceived job insecurity and somatic symptoms (Studies 1 and 2) both the same day and three days later (Study 2). Moreover, we find that perpetrator power moderates the relationship be- tween incivility and embarrassment, such that targets are more embarrassed when the perpetrator is powerful.
Hülsheger et al., (2020)	Role of trait mindfulness in the antecedents and outcomes of enacted workplace Incivility	Enacted incivility variability, enacted incivility	Trait mindfulness, Guilt	Enacted Incivility	Employees with higher levels of trait mindfulness feel remorse when engaged in uncivil behavior compared to the ones with lower trait mindfulness.
Ilies et al. (2020)	Examination of the effects of positive affect on incivility to coworkers and spouse.	Positive affect	Perspective-taking, moral disengagement	Incivility to coworkers, incivility to spouse	There is an increase in the positive affect of incivility towards the spouse and coworkers through moral disengagement in employees with low and not high perspective taking.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Irum et al. (2020)	To evaluate the effects of workplace incivility on the victimized employee's knowledge-hiding behaviors.	Antecedents of Incivility	Workplace incivility	Consequences of incivility/Victim's response	Incivility increases negative emotions in victims, making them react by engaging in knowledge-hiding behaviors.
Jensen et al., (2019)	Examination of the impact of performance pressure on store shrinks through the role of ethical leadership and store incivility.	Performance pressure	Ethical leadership, store incivility	Store shrink	The interaction of performance pressure and ethical leadership impacts the level of store incivility. The higher the store incivility, the higher it shrinks.
Kleine et al., (2019)	Presenting a detailed meta-analysis of consequences and antecedents of thriving at work.	Individual characteristics, relational resources	Thriving at work, demographics	Health, attitudes, performance	There is a relationship between individual characteristics (psychological capital, proactive personality, positive affect, and work engagement) and thriving at work. A relationship exists between thriving at work and relational characteristics (supportive coworker behavior, supportive leadership behavior, perceived organizational support). Additionally, thriving at work is associated with employees' reactions (health-related outcomes, attitudinal outcomes, performance-related outcomes)

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Klumb et al. (2016)	Examining how negative work interaction creates spillover and crossover effects to home and partner.	Negative work interaction	Low-arousal negative affect at work, high-arousal negative affect at work, negative couple interactions at home	Low-arousal negative affect at home, high-arousal negative affect at home, partners low-arousal negative affect at home, partners high-arousal negative affect at home.	Social stress that causes strain at work has spillover effects on the home as well as crossover effects on a partner. During stressful days, there is a rise in high- and low-arousal negative affect at work.
Lan et al. (2020)	explore the relationship between supervisor and coworkers' workplace incivility and newcomer proactive behaviors.	newcomer's proactive personality, newcomer's current organizational tenure, workplace incivility towards newcomers	Resources depletion of newcomers	newcomer's proactive behaviors	There is a negative relationship between workplace incivility and newcomers' proactive behaviors.
Lata & Chaudhary (2020)	Investigating the relationship between dark personality triad and instigated incivility to colleagues and supervisors through a mediating role of workplace spirituality.	Dark personality triad	Workplace spirituality	Instigated incivility in colleagues, instigated incivility in supervisors	Workplace spirituality moderated the association of Machiavellianism, psychopathy, and narcissism with instigated incivility to supervisors and colleagues. While workplace spirituality enhanced the tendency to instigate incivility among employees exhibiting high levels of Machiavellianism, it reduced the propensity to instigate uncivil acts for employees high on the traits of narcissism and psychopathy.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Locklear et al. (2020)	Investigate how gratitude intervention predicts workplace mistreatment.	Gratitude interventions	Perceived gratitude norms, prosocial motivation, relationship closeness, self-control resources, perceived organizational support	Incivility, gossip, ostracism	Gratitude interventions reduce mistreatment through the enhancement of self-control resources. Gratitude intervention is an effective way of reducing interpersonal mistreatment in organizations.
Mackey et al. (2019)	To explore the relationship between experienced incivility and workplace outcomes.	Experienced incivility		Workplace outcome (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientious, Neuroticism, Openness to experience, Incivility Enactment, Job satisfaction OCB, Turnover intention)	There is a strong adverse relationship between experienced incivility and workplace outcome.
Manzoor et al., (2020)	Exploration of the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intentions.	Workplace incivility	Organization cynicism	Turnover intentions	There is a positive association between workplace incivility and turnover intentions with a mediation role in organizational cynicism.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Mao et al. (2019)	Relationship between social context and employee behavioral response to workplace incivility	Individual incivility	Group incivility differentiation, group silence	Task performance, OCB, CWB	Individual incivility predicted lower task performance and OCB and higher levels of CWB. Contextual characteristics of an employee's group influence their appraisal and response to workplace incivility
Meier & Cho (2018)	How work experiences in the form of stressors affect the family domain	Work stressor	Psychological detachment, Negative affect	Relationship satisfaction, social undermining at home	Experienced work stressors in the form of high workload and workplace incivility affect the family domain through lack of detachment and negative affect.
Meier & Gross, (2015)	Examined whether supervisor incivility causes retaliatory incivility against the supervisor	Supervisor incivility	Trait self-control, exhaustion	Retaliatory incivility	Experience incivility predicts incivility in subsequent interactions, especially when the individuals are exhausted.
Park & Haun (2018)	Relationship between email incivility and work withdrawal through transmitted stress	Email incivility	Perception of stress transmission	Work withdrawal	Results indicate that employees who experienced incivility through emails in a working week are likelier to withdraw from work the following week. The same experience of incivility is transmitted to their partner at home in the form of spillover effects.
Pei et al. (2020)	Examination of the consequences of workplace incivility on employees' family satisfaction	Experienced workplace incivility	Anger, Guilt, narcissism	Family satisfaction	Workplace incivility causes a low level of family satisfaction among employees.

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Penney & Spector, (2005)	Assessment of the effect of workplace incivility on employee satisfaction and CWB.	Workplace incivility		Employees' satisfaction, CWB	Workplace incivility is negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to CWB.
Porath & Erez, (2007)	To analyze the effects of rudeness on task performance and helpfulness.	Rudeness	Disruption to cognitive processes	Task performance and helpfulness	Creative and routine tasks' performance is reduced as a result of rudeness. Further, rude behaviors reduce helpfulness.
Porath & Erez (2009)	Examination of how rudeness decreases witness performance on routine and creative tasks.	Rudeness	Competition, negative affect	Performance on routine and creative tasks	Experiencing rudeness enacted by an authority figure minimizes the witness' performance on both creative tasks and routine tasks.
Porath & Pearson (2012)	The emotional responses of workplace incivility targets	Target perceives incivility	The emotional response of the target, the Status difference between the target and the instigator	Behavioral response of the target	Higher levels of experienced incivility led to anger, fear, and sadness. These conditions, in turn, lead to aggression against incivility instigators, absenteeism, and exit.
Porath et al. (2015)	Effects of Incivility on performance	Incivility		Performance	There are costs associated with incivility. Such costs include but are not limited to the " cognitive toll it takes on people, sneakily robbing them of resources, disrupting working memory, prompting dysfunctional thoughts and ultimately hijacking performance."

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	***Issue Covered***	***Independent Variable(s)***	***Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)***	***Dependent Variable(s)***	***Finding(s)***
Potipiroon & Ford, (2019)	Examination of the effect of supervisor's incivility on turnover intentions, organizational deviance, and task performance: a mediation role of perceived organizational and supervisory support	Supervisor's incivility	Perceived organizational and supervisory support	Turnover intentions, organizational deviance, and task performance	Supervisor's incivility (especially from the ones with higher status) hurts the outcome of the follower.
Samma et al. (2020)	Relationship between workplace ostracism, workplace incivility, and innovative work behavior through the mediating role of job anxiety	Workplace ostracism, Workplace Incivility	Job Anxiety	Innovative work behavior	Workplace ostracism and workplace incivility harm innovative work behavior. Job anxiety has a mediating role between workplace ostracism and workplace incivility to innovative work behavior.
Schilpzand et al., (2016b)	How shared incivility affects "rumination, stress, and psychological withdrawal by reducing self-blame."	Experienced team member incivility	Witnessing a team member's incivility,	Self-blame	A team member experienced incivility affects "mistreatment, task-related stress levels, and psychological withdrawal behavior."
Sliter et al., (2012)	Exploring the impact of two sources of incivility on sales performance and withdrawal behavior	Customer incivility	Customer incivility	Absenteeism, Tardiness, Sales performance	Results indicated that coworker and customer incivility decrease sales performance as well as increases absenteeism and tardiness

Table 2.1. (cont.)

Article	*Issue Covered*	*Independent Variable(s)*	*Mediator(s) & Moderator(s)*	*Dependent Variable(s)*	*Finding(s)*
Taylor et al. (2012)	Examination of the effect of an uncivil workplace on employee attitudes and behavior through a moderating role of conscientiousness.	Workplace incivility	Affective commitment, conscientious -ness	Citizenship performance	"The effect of workplace incivility on citizenship performance to be transmitted through affective commitment and the strength of this effect to depend on individual differences in conscientiousness."
Taylor et al. (2021)	The relationship between workplace incivility and dyads through a moderating role of Perceived Incivility Norms	workplace incivility	Perceived Incivility Norms	Dyads	Experienced-instigated incivility has differences at the level of the dyad.
Tong et al. (2019)	Relationship between workplace incivility to emotional exhaustion and supportive behaviors	Experienced incivility	Generally observed incivility, Self-blame, Trait emotional control	Supportive behavior, Emotional exhaustion	Experienced incivility was positively related to self-blame, and self-blame was also positively related to supportive behavior among employees with high levels of trait emotional control. There was no significant relationship between experienced workplace incivility and emotional exhaustion.
Zhou et al. (2019)	What are the spillover effects of the experienced workplace incivility on work to family conflicts.	Supervisor, coworker, and outsider incivility	Burnout	Work-to-family conflicts	There is a positive relationship between coworker incivility and outsider incivility, as well as work-to-family conflict. Further, burnout mediated this relationship.

2.2.2. Workplace Incivility and Employee Performance (CWB and OCB)

Professionalism in the workplace is significantly interrelated with the organizational ethics of civil behavior (Phillips et al., 2018). Being uncivil, which includes a lack of concern for others as well as being disrespectful and discourteous, is against the ethical traditions of mutual respect in the workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). These uncivil behaviors are correlated with employee performance in the form of counterproductive work behavior (Alyahya et al., 2021; Zhu & Zhang, 2021; Sowe & Arslan, 2023) and organizational citizenship behavior (Porath & Erez, 2009; Taylor et al., 2012; Mackey et al., 2019).

Employee performance can be evaluated based on the contributions made by an employee toward achieving the goals of the organization. Performance as a concept has a normative element that reflects whether an employee's behavior is considered good or bad in connection to their contribution toward organizational goals and objectives. It represents an employee's overall contribution toward an organization's success or failure (Churchill et al., 1985). In this study, OCB and CWB are considered to be the two main variables to measure employee performance. This study looks at the relationship between WPI and employee performance using both what is considered good performance (OCB) and bad performance (CWB). OCB and CWB as variables measuring employee performance are considered to be opposites since the former is a positive behavior and the latter a negative behavior (Fox et al., 2012).

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) is a trending research topic among scholars in the field of negative behavior due to its detrimental impact on organizational growth, efficiency, and effectiveness. CWB indicates behaviors that are purposefully intended to harm an organization or its stakeholders (Spector & Fox, 2005). CWB is “behavior that is intended to have a detrimental effect on organizations and their members. It can include overt acts such as aggression and theft or more passive acts, such as purposely failing to follow instructions or doing work incorrectly” (Fox et al., 2001, p. 292)

.

Research on negative behaviors has indicated different types of CWB, including abuse, withdrawal behavior, deviance, absenteeism, tardiness, sabotage, retaliation, bullying, and aggression (Fox et al., 2001; Spector et al., 2006). WPI in an organization has been positively related to CWB. According to Adams and Webster (2013), and Matthews and Ritter (2016), WPI is positively related to abusive behavior in the workplace. In their research, using a sample of 120 bank tellers to find the relationship between WPI and CWB, Sliter et al. (2012b) indicated a positive relationship between WPI and tardiness.

Other scholars have also looked at the relationship between WPI and withdrawal behavior (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Loi et al., 2015; Sliter et al., 2012a), deviance (Lim & Teo, 2009; Itzkovich, 2016), absenteeism (Porath & Pearson, 2012; Sliter et al., 2012b), and sabotage (Abubakar et al., 2018b; Cheng et al., 2019). All of these scholars have indicated a significantly positive relationship between WPI and the mentioned types of CWB. What is most common in all of these outcomes was the existence of behaviors that were harmful to the organization and its property as well as harm to employees who, as a result, may reduce their effectiveness at the workplace, consider quitting, or actually quit (Fox et al., 2001; Spector et al., 2006).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is popular in positive organizational behavior research. It is a concept that is evolving with the objective of understanding why employees contribute positively towards their organizational development by performing extra roles beyond their job descriptions. The subject area also looks into the circumstances in which employees provide additional support to their colleagues to perform their tasks (Pickford & Joy, 2016).

OCB deals with an employee's intentional and discrete actions to perform tasks outside of their job description. This, for example, could be in the form of helping a coworker finish their tasks on time or even promoting a peaceful working environment in their organization (Bolino et al., 2012). The most comprehensive definition of OCB is that of Organ (1988). According to Organ (1988), OCB is “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that, in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning

of the organization" (p. 4). Organ (1988) mentioned five types of OCB: altruism (helping coworkers accomplish their tasks), conscientiousness (obeying organizational rules), sportsmanship (avoiding unnecessary complaints), courtesy (preventing the occurrence of work-related problems), and civic virtue (being concerned about the life and prosperity of the company). These are all behaviors that are not written in an employment contract and are not punishable when not displayed (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Research on organizational behavior has indicated a negatively significant relationship between WPI and OCB. In their paper, Porath and Erez (2017) postulated that rudeness not only leads to the reduction of task performance but also reduces helpfulness. WPI doesn't only affect the victim but also affects the performance level of any witnesses. (Porath & Erez, 2009). Taylor et al. (2012) indicated a negative relationship between incivility, conscientiousness, and citizenship performance. The results, in short, postulated that with an increase in incivility in an organization, the levels of conscientiousness and citizenship performance are likely to reduce. The results also indicated that when an employee's level of conscientiousness is low, their level of OCB is also low. Conscientiousness can serve as a mediator between incivility and OCB in such a way that when it is higher among employees, their citizenship behavior isn't significantly affected. Taylor et al. (2012) indicated a strong relationship between incivility and low OCB when conscientiousness levels of employees are also low.

In research using two studies with a total sample of 776 respondents, Mackey et al. (2019) indicated a strong relationship between WPI and OCB. This relationship indicates that when WPI increases, the OCB and work satisfaction levels decrease. WPI correlates to job dissatisfaction and low levels of helping behavior (De Clercq et al., (2019).

2.2.3. Psychological Ownership

Psychological Ownership (PO) is described as an individual's feeling of ownership towards a target. These targets include a sense of ownership feeling towards an organization, its products, tools, ideas, and suggestions, the workplace, or even the

job occupied by a person (Rudmin & Berry, 1987; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Yu et al., 2021). The feeling of ownership towards an organization doesn't make the entity legally belong to the individual. The concept of psychological ownership, however, is different from legal ownership. A person can have a strong attachment feeling of ownership, legal or otherwise.

"As a state of mind, psychological ownership is a state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership, material or immaterial, whole or partial, is "theirs." At the core of psychological ownership is the feeling of possessiveness and being psychologically tied to an object" (Pierce et al., 2001, p. 299). PO in an organization creates a shared responsibility for success, giving employees the drive to safeguard the target they psychologically own (Avey et al., 2009). It creates an environment where employees protect the organization's welfare instead of their own interests (Torp & Nielsen, 2018). Employees with a sense of ownership towards an organization are motivated enough to propagate high organizational performance. Furby (1991) postulates that PO leads to positive attitudes towards the target and an increased sense of accountability. PO, according to Pierce and Jussila (2010), can be split into two categories: individual PO and collective PO. Individual PO, according to Pierce et al. (2001), is "a state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership (or a piece of that target) is theirs (i.e., it is 'MINE')" (p. 299). Collective PO is "the collectively held sense that this target of ownership is collective "ours" (Pierce & Jussila, 2010, p.812)". Unlike individual PO, collective PO allows for the sense of ownership of a target by more than one person.

Pierce et al. (2003) postulate that PO has three features that distinguish it from other behavioral concepts. It incorporates the concept of "mine," which signifies a sense of ownership toward an object. Secondly, PO creates a psychological link between a person and the target to the extent that they may see the target as an extension of themselves. Finally, PO yields pleasure coupled with a sense of efficacy and capability. Over the past two decades, the concept of PO has gained a lot of attention from management scholars. Many argue its conceptual differences from other related constructs like commitment, internalization, and identity (Pierce et al., 2001; Cocieru et al., 2019b). However, PO deals with the feelings of possession an individual has

toward a target. PO is a state of mind that relates to the attitude toward a target (Pierce et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2020).

According to Pierce et al. (2003), "Feelings of ownership allow individuals to fulfill three basic human motives: efficacy and effecting, self-identity, and having a safe place… Each motive facilitates the development of psychological ownership" (p. 91). These motives are considered to be the core pillars of PO and aid the development of a person's sense of ownership toward a target (Olckers & van Zyl, 2015). Thus, the sense of ownership towards a target satisfies the basic human needs for a place of belonging, a sense of security, and identity (Pierce & Jussila, 2010). A "place to call home" gives an individual a sense of physical security (Porteous, 1976) and efficacy. Efficacy gives an individual a sense of capability (Bandura, 1977) and self-identity (Burke & Reitzes, 1991).

In addition to these core pillars of PO, research has also examined its routes. The routes of PO are defined as having knowledge of the target, controlling the target, and investing time into the target (Van & Pierce, 2004; Aga et al., 2017; Chatterjee & Shukla, 2018; Lee & Kim, 2020). The more knowledge an individual has about an organization or a target, the more likely they are to feel a sense of PO. As an example, an individual who creates a product at an organization is likely to feel higher levels of PO as they've been present and responsible for all stages of the product's development. (Pierce et al., 2001; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Aga et al., 2017). Control is integral to developing a sense of PO towards a target since it increases feelings of attachment. And lastly, the contribution of time, ideas, energy, and resources invested toward a target is also a route to developing a strong sense of PO. Research has indicated that the higher the investment towards a target, the higher the level of PO an individual feels (Pierce et al., 2001; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

According to Avey et al. (2009), the concept of PO has four dimensions: self-efficacy, accountability, belongingness, and self-identity. Self-efficacy deals with a person's conviction of their ability to successfully carry out a task or implement an action (Bandura, 1997). According to Lerner and Tetlock (1999), accountability is "the implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one's beliefs, feelings and actions to others" (p. 225). A high sense of accountability breathes a

higher level of PO toward an organization or target (Kumar, 2019) and also leads to a higher sense of responsibility toward the target (Morrongiello et al., 2017). Belongingness is a feeling of correct placement in a physical place, family, or organization (Avey et al., 2009). When employees feel that they belong to an organization, their sense of PO increases (Kumar, 2019). According to Belk (1988), when a target is considered to be the extension of "self," it becomes predominant to one's self-identity such that they begin to describe themselves by these targets.

According to Pierce et al. (2001), the three major antecedents of psychological ownership are a feeling of controlling a target, having a versed knowledge of the target, and investing a lot of time and energy in the target. These three antecedents are considered to be the routes to psychological ownership. If an individual feels a high sense of control over a target, it tends to become a self-identifying part of that individual, and this may lead to a feeling of ownership of the target (Belk, 1988). Having control of a target gives the autonomy of operation without difficulty, which enhances feelings of PO (Torp & Nielsen, 2018; Cocieru et al., 2019a; Zhang et al., 2021). Knowing a target or person may create a strong bond between the two parties. The higher the knowledge of a target, the greater the bond, typically (Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce et al., 2004; Cocieru et al., 2019a). Commitment in any form involves the investment of time and energy and sometimes even feelings of love for the target. A committed employee of an organization will invest time and energy beyond what is legally required. After investing this time and energy into a target, it changes into a symbol of an employee's self-concept, which in turn creates a sense of ownership for the target (Chi & Han, 2008). According to Zhang et al. (2021), the safety of an employee is also a valuable antecedent for psychological ownership. This involves a working environment that encourages organizational justice, trust, perceived organizational support, and a cordial relationship with colleagues. When an employee feels safe in an organization, this may trigger a sense of ownership toward the organization.

When employees perceive trust in the organization, it may promote a sense of PO as they may believe that the organization has goodwill toward its employees and is prepared to protect their best interests. This feeling of organizational trust is reciprocated through a sense of organizational PO and membership as well as higher

efforts to productivity (Koirala & Charoensukmongkol, 2020). Additionally, supervisor support can motivate employees to increase contributions to organizational development (Wattanasak, 2021). Having a supportive supervisor doesn't only lead to PO but also leads to job satisfaction and other positive work outcomes (Charoensukmongkol, 2021). The three human motives of efficacy and efficiency, self-identity, and having a place can also be considered strong antecedents of PO as each of these motives facilitates the development of PO (Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce et al., 2004).

PO is considered to have three major outcomes, which involve positive attitudes toward the target, an enhanced self-concept, and a strong sense of responsibility toward the target (Furby, 1991; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). This sense of ownership helps employees in an organization fulfill their need for a place, efficacy, efficiency, and self-identity (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). When an employee develops a sense of ownership towards an organization, they tend to be more satisfied with their job placement and the organization as a whole (Pierce & Jussila, 2010; Md-Sidin et al., 2010; Avey et al., 2012; Nia et al., 2021). PO may also lead to volunteering behavior in an organization (Ainsworth, 2020). Chai et al. (2020) postulated that employees with a high PO are more engaged at work, involved in knowledge creation, as well as open to change. Research has also found a significant link between PO and organizational commitment (Han et al., 2010; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), PO and affective commitment (Liu et al., 2012; Mayhew et al., 2007), as well as PO and increased self-esteem (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Liu et al., 2012; Pan et al., 2014; Jami et al., 2021). Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) argued that employees with a high level of PO are more involved in helping behaviors due to their higher commitment levels toward the organization. Brown et al. (2014a) argued a strong relationship between PO and high organizational performance. Additionally, employees with a high sense of ownership towards an organization become involved in stewardship behavior (Pierce et al., 2003; Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011; Dawkins et al., 2017). In research related to sales performance, Brown et al. (2014b) found a positive relationship between PO and sales performance. Employees with a strong PO towards their organization tend to be more loyal and do not typically want to leave (Olckers & Enslin, 2016; Giordano et al., 2019).

In research conducted on highly knowledge-intensive companies in Taiwan, Han et al. (2010) indicated that employees with PO in their organization mostly participate in the decision-making processes and are more willing to share their knowledge and ideas. Contextual performance for any organization is an important metric to examine. Han et al. (2015) indicated the existence of a strong relationship between employee PO and contextual performance. PO may lead to radical innovation behaviors (Leyer et al., 2020), increase creativity (Martinaityte et al., 2017; Chai et al., 2020), and openness to change (Chai et al., 2020). PO has also been found to be related to OCB (Pierce et al., 2004; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Avey et al., 2009; Pierce & Jussila, 2010; Zhang et al., 2021) and positive in-role performance (Wang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021). According to Wattanasak (2021), employees who have a strong PO toward their organization tend to have higher levels of organizational identification. A sense of belonging to, and ownership of, an organization also leads to employees' intention to stay (Woon et al., 2017).

The majority of the research and results outlined so far indicate the relationship between PO, performance, and behavioral outcomes. However, little research has been done to examine the relationship between PO and financial performance (Torp & Nielsen, 2018). Wagner et al. (2003) postulated a direct and significant relationship between PO and financial performance. A high sense of ownership is also related to earnings per employee and return on investment per asset (Kostova, 1998). According to Brown et al. (2014), PO mediates the relationship between job complexity and sales performance. Due to employees' high PO levels, their sales performances tend to increase. When an employee develops a sense of ownership towards an organization, there is an alignment between their interest and that of the organization, thus enhancing financial performance (Torp & Nielsen, 2018).

With all the positive outcomes of PO discussed above, some scholars examined its possible negative outcomes (Pierce & Jussila, 2010; Baer & Brown, 2012; Dawkins et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019; Cocieru et al., 2019b; Zhang et al., 2021). According to Zhang et al. (2021), an employee with a high degree of PO tends to develop some territorial behaviors. When a person has a high level of PO towards a target, they are inclined to feel that they have rights to the target and may attempt to control the target by limiting possible interaction of the target with other coworkers (Edney,

1976; Brown et al., 2014a). Employees who have strong feelings of ownership towards a target may attempt to hide knowledge or information related to that target (Pierce & Jussila, 2010). Wang et al. (2019) postulated that employees with a high PO might also be engaged in deviant behaviors like attempting to block others from taking their job. Among additional negative behaviors are; violating group norms, detrimental competition, sabotage, and stalking, all of which are considered to be unethical job behaviors. Due to the strong connection that exists between the target and the employee who develops a high level of PO, there is a possibility of resisting change which may negatively affect the organization (Brown et al., 2005; Baer & Brown, 2012).

According to Pierce et al. (2001, 2003), PO tends to make employees develop a high level of responsibility and protective behavior towards a target which can lead to various forms of stress and informational hoarding. (Han et al., 2008). Collective PO may also lead to the diffusion of responsibility and social loafing, which may negatively affect the productivity of the organization (Pierce & Jussila, 2010). Even if an individual shares ideas, they may try to create exclusive control over the ideas, which can cause them to reject other suggestions from their colleagues (Pierce et al., 2009; Baer & Brown, 2012). Suggestions that increase the possession levels of the employee towards the target are embraced, while suggestions that reduce the level of possession are rejected (Baer & Brown, 2012). Employees who have a strong PO towards a target may develop some sense of anger or reactionary defenses when they perceive that their colleagues are using or manipulating the target (Cocieru et al., 2019b).

Prior studies have thoroughly explored the mediating role of PO on the relationship between positive leadership styles, employee engagement, and performance (Ladan et al., 2017a). Li et al. (2015) studied the relationship between knowledge sharing and affective commitment by using PO as a mediator, and the results indicated a positive and significant mediating role of PO. Park et al. (2013), focusing on the employees of the Korean public sector, used PO as a mediator in the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. The relationship between justice and affective commitment can also be mediated by PO (Bernhard & Jaskiewicz, 2011). According to Bernhard and O'Driscoll (2011), PO mediates the relationship between

leadership style and other positive organizational outcomes. These positive outcomes include job satisfaction, extra-role behavior, in-role behavior, and commitment. It also mediates the relationship between leadership and turnover intention, which is considered to be a negative organizational outcome. With a good leadership style, positive organizational outcomes increase and negative outcomes decrease (Bernhard & O'Driscoll, 2011). Olckers et al. (2020) indicated the mediating role of PO in the positive relationship between authentic leadership and OCB. An employee with a strong sense of PO develops a strong sense of responsibility for their organization's productivity. PO can also mediate the relationship between empowering leadership style and pro-environmental behavior (Cheng et al., 2021). With an empowering leader and PO as a mediator, OCB toward the environment increases (Jiang et al., 2019). There is a direct and negative relationship between transformational leadership and the knowledge-hiding behavior of employees. The negative relationship further increases with the use of PO as a mediator. With PO as a mediator, the employees reduce their level of knowledge hiding (Ladan et al., 2017a).

Yildiz et al. (2015) argue that positive employee feelings can lead to positive behaviors through the mediating role of positive attitudes. The study used PO as a positive attitude that mediates the relationship between positive employee feelings and positive behaviors. Liu et al. (2012) researched the relationship between participative decision-making, affective commitment, and OCB and found a mediating role of PO in the relationship. The relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction through PO's mediating role is also positive and significant (Avey et al., 2012). Mayhew et al. (2017) have also postulated the mediating role of PO in the relationship between work environment structure and organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The relationship between autonomy and OCB and organizational commitment is positively mediated by PO (O'Driscoll et al., 2006).

Creativity is typically considered a positive asset with regard to productivity, and creative employees are usually found to have a greater sense of ownership and therefore play a vital role in knowledge creation. According to Yoon et al. (2020), the relationship between creativity and knowledge creation is significantly mediated by PO. Job engagement has a positive relationship with in-role performance,

proactive behavior, and OCB. Using PO as a mediator further increases the strength of these positive relationships (Wang et al., 2019). Olckers and Enslin (2016) indicated the existence of a relationship between PO, workplace trust, and turnover intention. Trust was positively related to PO, while Turnover intention was negatively related to PO. Additionally, PO fully mediated the relationship between trust and turnover intention.

This research will follow the tradition of using PO as a mediator between employee feelings and their behavior towards the organization hence the use of the following testable hypotheses:

H1: *Psychological Ownership negatively mediates the positive relation of workplace incivility to turnover intention*

H2: *Psychological Ownership negatively mediates the positive relation of workplace incivility to Counterproductive Work Behavior*

H3: *Psychological Ownership positively mediates the negative relation of workplace incivility to Organizational Citizenship Behavior*

2.2.4. Turnover Intention

Working in an organization can sometimes be a challenging environment to be productive all the time. Some employees find it easy to work in their organizations, while others may find it difficult and see quitting as their only option. The desire to quit an organization due to various reasons is considered turnover intention. Turnover intention (TI) is "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). It also indicates the extent of an employee's likelihood of quitting an organization (Mobley, 1977). When a working environment is unsuitable for an employee, their turnover intention may increase (Yildiz, 2018). Turnover intention has become a critical issue of concern for human resource departments due to its impact on workforce productivity, service quality, and profitability (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

According to Mijakoski et al. (2015), turnover intention by an employee can be caused by a lack of satisfaction with their job, their high workload, or a lack of support from their superiors and the organization at large. When an employee has the intent to leave, their productivity may reduce (Cho, 2021). Ma et al. (2022) indicated that work-related stress and job burnout are significantly related to high levels of turnover intention. A lack of work-life balance and inflexible organizational policies may also create a breeding ground for TI (Fakunmoju et al., 2010; Haar et al., 2012). Poor pay, lack of recognition, social and cultural adjustment, role conflict, and the availability of other employment opportunities are all causes of TI (Otache & Inekwe, 2021).

Perrier et al. (2010) postulated that turnover intention is an antecedent of actual turnover, which makes it an important element for organizations to consider. Whether it may lead to an actual turnover or not, employees with turnover intention spend a lot of time trying to look for new job opportunities rather than being productive in their current organization (Kaufmann et al., 2022). To address the issues of turnover intention McNall et al. (2009) argued that organizations have to implement positive management policies such as fair employment opportunities, paying employees on time, effective leadership, a smooth relationship between employees and management, and the creation of motivational incentives. The implementation of effective human resource management policies can also be an important remedy for TI (Yucel et al., 2021). Better policies may result in an increase in organizational commitment, which may lead to a reduction in TI (Tsen et al., 2021). TI is considered an important element in sustaining an organization's internal structure, hence the need for organizational commitment to reducing it (Yang et al., 2021).

TI, compared to other reasons for turnover, is considered the most significant predictor of actual turnover, with a variance of 25% (Rubenstein et al., 2017). Organizations are supposed to create an enabling environment that allows their employees to perform at their highest potential. This conducive environment can cultivate employee satisfaction which can help in reducing turnover intention (Zhang et al., 2015; Mohammad et al., 2019). A Study by Freund (2005) postulated that employees who were committed to their organization were satisfied with their work,

and their intention to quit the workplace was very low. To also reduce the negative phenomenon of turnover intention, organizations are supposed to support their employees (Shen et al., 2014; Kim, 2015) and encourage social justice (Blader & Tyler, 2009). Employees tend to be motivated by increased salaries as well as professional development opportunities (Houkes et al., 2003; Iverson & Roy, 1994). Borrowing the common English saying "all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy" indicates the need for also having time to do other things unrelated to work. Tetteh et al. (2021) argued that having fun workplace activities may also help reduce TI.

The antecedents of TI are widely covered in the literature. However, they differ from one organization to another. Lei et al. (2018) state that burnout, job dissatisfaction, and lack of organizational commitment are the major predictors of TI mentioned. There is an indication that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are negatively related to TI (Mosadeghrad et al., 2008; Chonga & Monroe, 2015; Belete, 2018), while burnout is positively related to TI (Bertelli, 2006). When employees are unsatisfied with an organization, their level of TI increases (Kang et al., 2021). Additionally, the motivational level of an employee has a significant relationship with their satisfaction and commitment to their organization. Employees can be motivated through an increase in salaries, opportunities for training, and availability of promotions (Rahman & Nas, 2013; Zhang & Min, 2021). Organizational justice can also be considered an antecedent of TI and a source of motivation for employees. When an employee perceives injustice in their organization, they may lose motivation and feel the desire to quit. The higher their perception of fairness within the organization, the higher their motivation and reduction of TI (Fatt et al., 2010).

Trust is an integral part of running an organization, without which it breeds opportunity for chaos and sabotage. When an organization breaches its contract with an employee, it creates distrust and can lead to a bitter relationship ending in turnover or TI (Abdalla et al., 2021). This distrust can also be created due to unfair decision-making processes (Magner et al., 1996), distributive injustices (Alyahya et al., 2021), as well as the breach of psychological contract (Saeed, 2019), which are all positively related to TI. More often than not, employees with TI assess the job market for availability elsewhere before leaving their current positions (Nuhn &

Wald, 2016; Alyahya et al., 2021). One of the best ways to promote concentration at work is to foster an engaging environment **(**Oliveira & Rocha, 2017).

Working with a supportive supervisor goes a long way in motivating an employee to be more committed to their work. However, an abusive supervisor will only make an employee want to quit or, at worse, quit (Wang, 2020). According to Zhang and Min (2021), when an operations employee, like a project manager, is not willing to share their experience by hiding their knowledge from subordinates, TI can increase among the subordinates. It also creates distrust between the knowledge owner and the knowledge seeker which may create negative relationships which lead to TI. Management and leadership style (Leveck & Jones, 1996; Boyle et al., 1999; Belete, 2018) are an integral part of the antecedents of TI. Conflict with coworkers is also related to TI (Alhashmi et al., 2017), and Su et al. (2021b) indicate that demographic factors are predictors of TI.

Stress-related to work is also another important reason for TI in organizations (Strachota et al., 2003; Dasgupta, 2015). When employees feel alienated by their colleagues at work, they may develop some negative feelings, which may cause the desire to quit (Singh & Srivastava, 2021). In a normal environment, an employee expects support from the organization and their colleagues. The absence of this may make employees feel unwelcome and dissatisfied with the environment and their place in it (Park & Min, 2020). Due to this dissatisfaction, work-life balance may fall out of balance, furthering employee TI (Wang, 2020; Yucel et al., 2021).

TI has a negative relationship with the productivity and effectiveness of organizations since it encourages negative behaviors. In many scenarios, it may lead to actual turnover, which negatively affects organizational performance. Organizations need to identify the possible reasons for TI among their employees to avert any negative effects on their performance levels (Chang et al., 2013). If organizations aim to reduce TI, it is important to consider the major antecedents and look for solutions to reduce them. In their paper, Rahman and Nas (2013) indicated that the major reasons an employee develops an intention to quit are because they lack the opportunity for training, career development, better compensation, and benefits. According to Joo (2010), dissatisfaction with company policies, low level

of commitment, bad organizational learning culture, and poor leadership quality are excellent recipes for TI.

The concept of turnover intention has been widely linked to performance outcomes in organizations (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). Intent to quit a job may harm employees' performances since their proficiency, proactivity, and adaptivity may be negatively compromised (Nuhn & Wald, 2016). Instead of using their energy and sweat to work for the organization, the same employees may be busy looking into new job opportunities, which reduces their productivity (Hui et al., 2007). As a result, their contribution as team player deteriorates drastically (Zaccaro et al., 2002). Additionally, they will not try to improve their work performance, leading to decreased proactivity. Due to the link between turnover intention and reduced employee motivation, a potential outcome may be a reduction in their willingness to adapt to new changes or processes beneficial to the organization (Nuhn et al., 2019). Turnover intention hurts organizational productivity and efficiency and is considered a viable antecedent for actual turnover (Cho & Lewis, 2012).

A cross-cultural study conducted by Coyne and Ong (2007) indicated a negative relationship between turnover intention and organizational citizenship behavior. The results postulate that when an employee has the intention to quit, their organizational citizenship behavior reduces tremendously. This is because their psychological attachment to the organization has reduced hence their love and contribution to it (Xiong & Wen, 2020). Quitting a job may not be a suitable option for all employees, especially when it may be difficult to get another job. However, the employees who aren't able to quit but have the intention to quit are the members that pose the greatest cultural and financial risk to their organizations. Having highly skilled employees who are not fulfilling their potential may create a disruptive environment (Bothma & Roodt, 2013; Guzeller & Celiker, 2020). Otache and Inekwe (2021), in their research of Nigerian polytechnic lecturers, concluded that turnover intention created a lower level of job satisfaction and performance.

Sender et al. (2020) argued that employees with the intention to leave an organization are more likely to engage in deviant behaviors. People with a higher level of intention to quit are statistically more involved in more serious types of

deviant behaviors. Some of these serious types of deviance may include stealing company property, disobeying a supervisor, or arriving late at work (Sender et al., 2020).

Unlike turnover, the use of turnover intention as a mediating variable is very minimal, and Nuhn et al. (2019), Zhu and Zhang (2021), and Alyahya et al. (2021) are among the few to use it. In finding the relationship between distributive justice and social loafing, Alyahya et al. (2021) used turnover intention as a mediating variable. The social exchange theory postulates that if an employee witnesses any form of injustice or insecurity, their possible response may be an intent to leave the organization. The results indicated that turnover intention has a positive and significant mediating role in the relationships between job insecurity, social loafing, distributive injustice, and social loafing. For Zhu and Zhang (2021), turnover intention was used to mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behavior. Based on their correlation results, a significant and positive relationship existed between ostracism, turnover intention, and counterproductive work behavior. The mediating results of the study indicate that ostracism can lead to counterproductive work behavior through the mediating role of turnover intention. On their part, Nuhn et al. (2019) investigated the relationship between performance effects of turnover intention from temporary and permanent organizational levels. The research results indicate turnover intention as a significant mediator between performance effects of turnover intention from temporary and permanent organizational levels. As mentioned above, the use of turnover intention as a mediator is uncommon hence the reason why this research postulates the following hypotheses:

H4: *Turnover intention positively mediates the negative relation of Psychological Ownership to Counterproductive Work Behavior*
H5: *Turnover intention negatively mediates the positive relation of Psychological Ownership to Organizational Citizenship Behavior*

With the use of the social exchange theory and the theory of reasoned action as theoretical frameworks as well as a thorough review of the literature on workplace

incivility, this study has come up with the research model and hypotheses in **Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.2**, respectively.

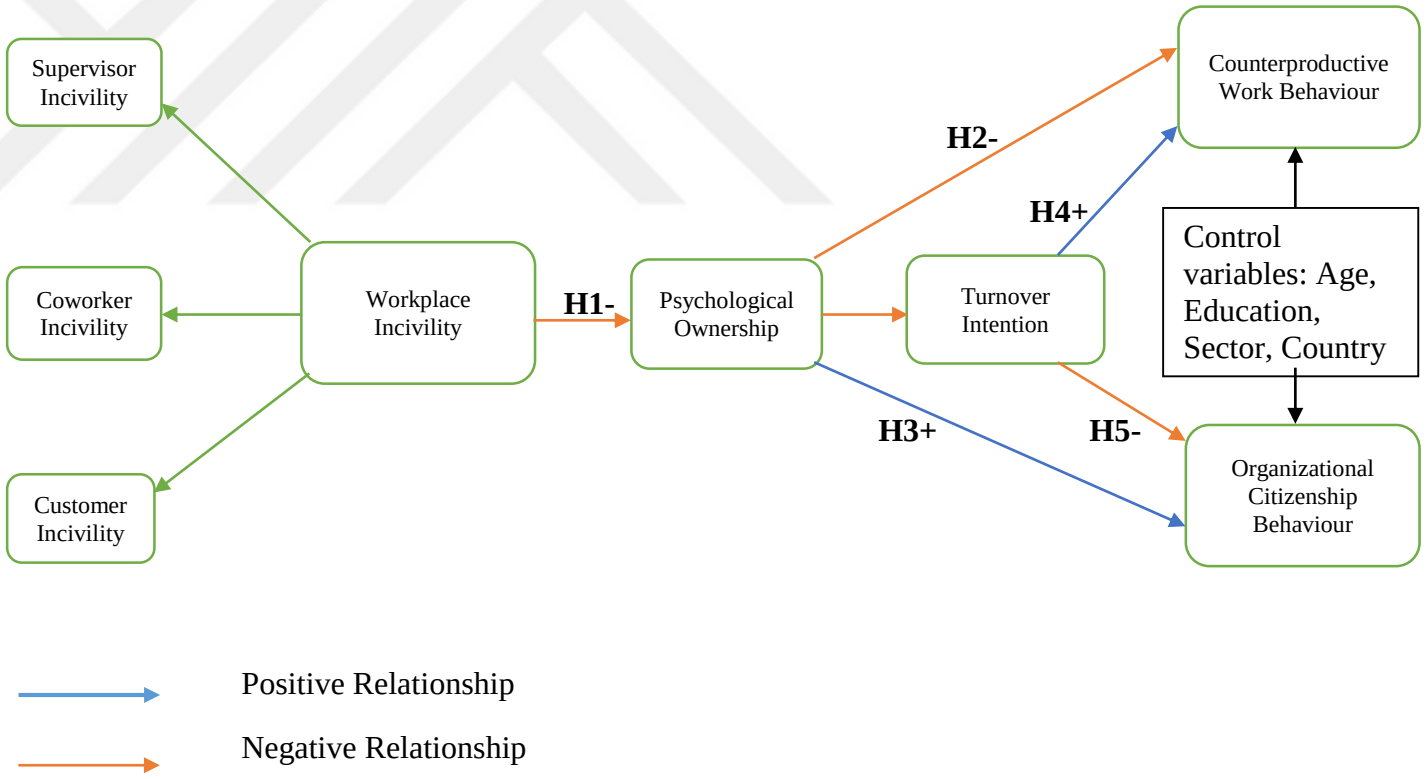


Figure 2.1. Conceptual Framework

Table 2.2. Hypotheses Summary and Expected Signs

Hypothesis	***Expected sign***
H1: *Psychological Ownership negatively mediates the positive relation of workplace incivility to turnover intention*	-
H2: *Psychological Ownership negatively mediates the positive relation of workplace incivility to Counterproductive Work Behavior*	-
H3: *Psychological Ownership positively mediates the negative relation of workplace incivility to Organizational Citizenship Behavior*	+
H4: *Turnover intention positively mediates the negative relation of Psychological Ownership to Counterproductive Work Behavior*	+
H5: *Turnover intention negatively mediates the positive relation of Psychological Ownership to Organizational Citizenship Behavior*	-

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter III presents the research methodology in detail by outlining the research design, sampling procedures, sample size, data collection processes, tools, research variables, and measurement, and the pilot study with a discussion of its results. This chapter also deals with the data analysis methods and packages used.

3.1. Research Design

The research methodology was a roadmap that identified, chose, processed, and analyzed all necessary information. It determined the reliability of data gathered by reducing bias in the answers obtained through the research questions. This study adopted the Saunders et al. (2019) onion model as its research methodology.

3.1.1. Research Paradigm and Philosophy

Philosophically, this study uses a positivist lens involving the usage of existing theories to develop testable hypotheses which are statistically tested for proof or disproof. The positivist philosophy also calls for processes of neutrality to eliminate bias that could influence the findings (Crotty, 1998) and employs numeric information that studies causal links and fundamental laws to examine the phenomena (Saunders et al., 2019). In summary, this philosophy assumes that what is being observed is independent of the observer.

This study uses a positivist research approach guided by the research questions in Chapter I to confirm the hypotheses in Chapter III. To do this, this study deployed two theories, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964, 1986, 2017) and the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), to understand and explain the impact of workplace incivility on employee performance. Using

reductionist assumptions, this study employs SEM to analyze data and aggregate results quantitatively.

3.1.2. Research Approach

This study adopts the deductive approach, which, like the positivist philosophy, uses theory to define hypotheses. The process involves the search for an explanation concerning the causal relationship between concepts and variables, the measurability of the concepts used, and the generalization of results (Saunders et al., 2019).

First, the hypotheses were defined. Secondly, research data was collected by administering a survey questionnaire. Finally, the hypotheses were tested against the data collected. The causal relationships between the independent variable (Workplace Incivility; initiated by supervisor, coworker, and customer), mediating variables (Psychological Ownership and Turnover Intention), and dependent variables (Counterproductive Work Behavior and Organizational Citizenship Behavior) were also examined.

3.1.3. Research Strategy

This research utilizes a questionnaire related to the testable variables. Questionnaires are generally used to collect quantitative data from a representative sample of an accessible population that is then empirically analyzed (Lampard & Pole, 2015; Saunders et al., 2019). The scales in this study were adopted from existing scales that are published in papers from academically peer-reviewed journals and academically reliable sources.

3.1.4. Research Choice

This study uses a mono method that collects numerical data by asking close-ended questions in the questionnaire (Lampard & Pole, 2015; Saunders et al., 2019).

3.1.5. Time Horizon

This study collected cross-sectional data, which involved a one-time data collection instance instead of numerous instances (Saunders et al., 2019). The survey questionnaire was sent to the research sample (employees of public and private institutions in The Gambia and Ghana) to understand the impact of workplace incivility on employee performance.

3.1.6. Techniques and Procedures

Structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques were used to analyze the data collected. “Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon” (Byrne, 2016, p. 3). This research uses a structural model that establishes a relationship between independent, mediating, and dependent variables, tested using SEM.

First, the research population has to be identified (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The target population of this research is employees of public and private institutions from the Gambia and Ghana. To ensure an accessible sample population, the research targeted the highly populated regions of the Greater Banjul Area in The Gambia and the Greater Accra Region in Ghana. The Greater Banjul Area in The Gambia consists of the capital city of Banjul and the surrounding Kanifing Municipal Council, which hosts approximately 26% of the country's total population (Jaiteh, 2008). The Greater Accra Region consists of the capital city of Accra and its surrounding area, which hosts the greatest density of both public and private institutions (Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council, n.d). These two regions were selected due to their accessibility in terms of available sample sizes.

The sampling process involved choosing a group of subjects representing the whole population. Three factors were considered when selecting the sample: cost, time, and accuracy. Sampling procedures are divided into two main categories; probability and non-probability sampling (Kothari, 2004). Probability sampling is used when the exact research population is known and an existing sample exists for guidance. This

study used non-probability sampling. In this sampling technique, the elements in the population do not have any specifiable probability of being chosen as sample subjects. In other words, this sample was not selected in a mathematically random way (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016).

This study used the purposive sampling method in line with non-probability sampling techniques. Instead of obtaining information from the most readily or conveniently available, this method seeks to obtain information from specific target groups. The sampling here is confined to specific types of people who can provide the desired information, either because they are the only ones who have it or because they conform to some criteria set by the study. (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The sample is selected based on knowledge about the area's population and its participants based on the purpose of the study. Under purposive sampling, the maximum variation sampling (MVS) tool was used to select a diverse range of cases relevant to a particular phenomenon that provides adequate insight into the topic under examination to provide the maximum amount of variation possible in the data collected (Saunders et al., 2019).

The sample size in this research is meant to represent a subcategory of the researched population but falls short of accounting for all elements of the target population based on those who participated (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The sample as a subset of the research population helps to draw conclusions that can be generalizable to the entire population of interest (Polit & Beck, 2010). The results obtained from The Gambia and Ghana sample are generalized to be true for the target population.

Using an online sample size calculator that uses the Yamane (1973) formula, our research sample size was determined, as shown in **Figure 3.1.** The results indicated a sample size of 384 with a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5%. This result is in line with the sample size calculation guide by Krejcie & Morgan (1970) and Saunders et al. (2019), who determined that for a research population of one million and above, with a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5%, the minimum acceptable sample size should be 384.

The sample size for The Gambia was determined to be 384 employees from public and private sector institutions based on the sample size guide and calculator. The same guide and calculator were used to determine the sample size of Ghana, which was also 384 employees from public and private institutions. This created a total sample size of 768 employees from public and private institutions in The Gambia and Ghana.

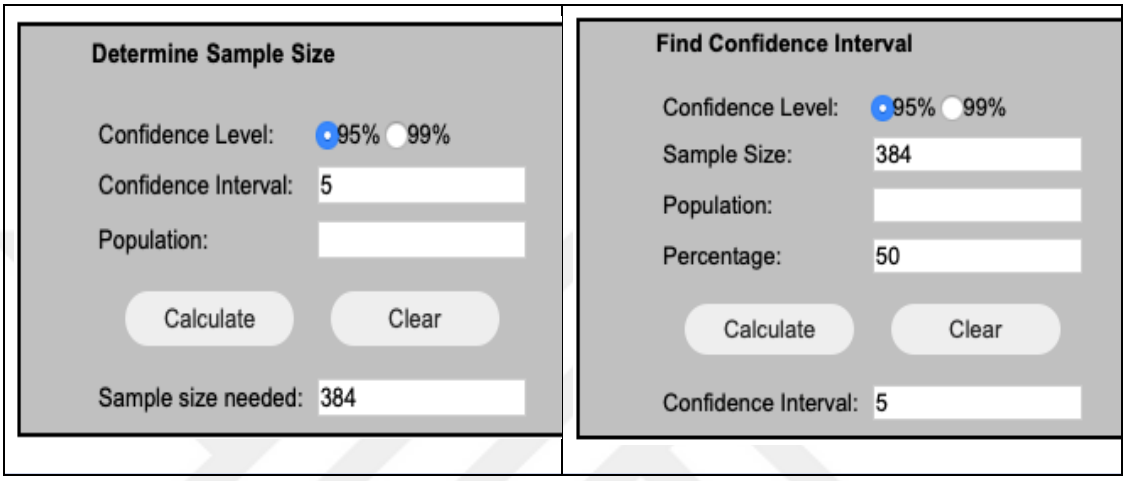


Figure 3.1. Sample Size Results

Source: Online Sample Size Calculator (https://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm)

To avoid common method biases during the response process, the study begins with demographic questions, then the dependent variables questions, then mediating variable questions and ends with independent variable questions (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

To administer the questionnaire, sample organizations were emailed with a supporting cover letter from Ibn Haldun University explaining the details and objectives of the research. In cases where the emails did not receive a reply or the contact details were unavailable, the institutions were physically visited to meet with the management and explain the research details. Hard-copy questionnaires were distributed to willing participants after receiving approvals at the physically visited organizations. To avoid response biases, the research objectives were written on the front page of the questionnaire, and the employees were told that all data collected would be confidential and used only for research purposes. After the hard-copy

questionnaire responses were collected, they were manually inputted into an Excel spreadsheet for data analysis.

3.2. Study Variable Definitions and Measurements

The research model uses seven main scales to measure the five existing main components of workplace incivility (initiated by a supervisor, coworker, and customer), psychological ownership, turnover intention, counterproductive work behavior, and organizational citizenship behavior. The scales were adopted from sources to specifically avoid internal inconsistencies. Additionally, Cronbach's alpha scores of all the scales from their main sources were above 0.7, indicating their measurements' reliability and internal consistency. These scales involve independent variables (workplace incivility; composed of: supervisor incivility, coworker incivility, and customer incivility), mediating variables (psychological ownership; turnover intention), and dependent variables (organizational citizenship behavior; counterproductive work behavior).

3.2.1. Independent Variable

Workplace incivility (WPI) is defined as "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm a target, violating workplace norms for mutual respect. These uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous and display a lack of regard for others" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). The scales for supervisor and coworker incivilities each have seven items adopted from Cortina et al. (2001), while customer incivility has fifteen items adopted from Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). Respondents on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= Never, 2= Rarely, 3= Sometimes, 4= Quite often, 5= Very often) are asked about the frequency of incivility they've faced at work from a supervisor, coworker, and customer.

3.2.2. Mediating Variables

"As a state of mind, psychological ownership is the psychological state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership, material or not, or a piece of the target is "theirs" (i.e., "it is mine"). The core of PO is the feeling of possessiveness

and of being psychologically tied to an object" (Pierce et al., 2001, p. 299). PO has seven items of scale adopted from Van Dyne and Pierce (2004), used to collect responses on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree) to gauge employee sense of ownership towards the organization they work for.

Turnover intention (TI) is defined, again, as “a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). This shows the extent of an employee’s likelihood of leaving an organization (Mobley, 1977). TI has four items adopted from Kelloway et al. (1999), asking respondents on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree) about their intentions to leave their current organization.

3.2.3. Dependent Variables

According to Fox et al. (2001), counterproductive work behavior (CWB) is defined as "behavior that is intended to have a detrimental effect on organizations and their members, which can include overt acts such as aggression and theft or more passive acts, such as purposely failing to follow instructions or doing work incorrectly" (p.292). To measure CWB, a ten-item scale adopted from Spector et al. (2010) was used when asking respondents on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= Never, 2= Once or twice, 3= Once or twice per month, 4= Once or twice per week, 5= Every day) about their frequency of participation in CWB.

According to Organ (1988), organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) are defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p.4). These behaviors are normally additional roles that are outside the job description, which may include helping coworkers complete their tasks. OCB has a ten-item scale adopted from Spector et al. (2010), asking respondents on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= Never, 2= Once or twice, 3= Once or twice per month, 4= Once or twice per week, 5= Every day) about their frequency of participation in OCB.

3.2.4. Control Variables

This study used the demographic variables of age (1=18 to 35, 2= 36 and above), education (1= undergraduate and below, 2= graduate degree), sector (1= public sector, 2= private sector), and country (1= The Gambia, 2= Ghana) to control their possible impacts on the potential outcomes of the study.

3.3. Pilot Study: Questionnaire Pretesting

To avoid using a measurement scale with validity and reliability issues, this research adopted its measurement scales from published papers in reputable academic journals. A pilot study was also conducted to pretest the questionnaire for its level of validity and reliability.

A pilot study was necessary to ensure the questionnaire was ready and accurate for the actual data collection process and examined the consistency of the measurement tool (Lampard & Pole, 2015). A Cronbach alpha value of 0.7 and above from a reliability analysis is typically used to depict the consistency of a measurement scale (Hair et al., 2014). For the pilot study of this research, initial data were collected from 51 employees (see Yurdugül, 2008 for pilot study sample size requirement) of the sample population to test the reliability and validity of the study questionnaire. The reliability of the research constructs was tested separately. All of the results of the individual constructs in **Table 3.1** indicate a Cronbach's alpha score of above 0.7, which indicates adequate reliability, as indicated by Hair et al. (2014).

Table 3.1. Scale Reliability Results

Scale	***Number of Items***	***Cronbach's Alpha***
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	10	0.841
Counterproductive Work Behavior	10	0.782
Supervisor Incivility	7	0.817
Coworker Incivility	7	0.833
Customer Incivility	15	0.948
Psychological Ownership	7	0.817
Turnover Intention	4	0.945

3.4. Validity and Reliability

A thorough review of other peer-reviewed research was completed on this topic, and scales from different authors were also examined. This literature review process gathered evidence of valid and suitable scales used in this study's data collection process. After adopting the scales from reliable, published articles and writing a comprehensive survey questionnaire, the survey construct was sent to other research experts in this field of study for peer review. The responses from these experts indicated that the data collection tool (survey questionnaire) has no validity issues as it can accurately measure the variables and concepts indicated in the research framework (Kothari, 2004; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

Scale reliability is important to consider in creating an adequate questionnaire (Lampard & Pole, 2015). A reliable scale indicates how insulated it is from random error (Pallant, 2020). The reliability of a scale is determined by its Cronbach's alpha score. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 or higher indicates the reliability of a measurement scale (Hair et al., 2014). The reliability results of the pilot study were in line with the required, acceptable results for the scale's reliability.

3.5. Data Analyses

Two statistical data software packages were used to analyze the data collected; IBM SPSS and AMOS. IBM SPSS is considered to be one of the best tools for data analysis since it manages and minimizes the complexity of the data analyzed (Acock, 2005; Stanley & Doucouliagos, 2012). AMOS is also considered to be a robust, reliable, and widely-used data analysis tool, so it was also used in this study (Byrne, 2001, 2016).

IBM SPSS was used to conduct initial data analyses, which involved looking at scale reliability, outliers, and a normality test. It was also used in the larger data analysis, which involved descriptive statistics where the characteristics of the respondents were shown. This was followed by an independent t-test to indicate the differences between groups of respondents.

AMOS was used in conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM). The CFA was done to show the validity and reliability of the research model, while SEM was done to measure the relationships that exist in the research model and to measure the significant levels of the research hypotheses. SEM is considered to be the better method due to its use in confirmatory analysis methods. It helps to identify measurement errors that other multivariate procedures can't by incorporating both observed and unobserved (latent or factor) variables. Finally, the SEM methodology helps in modeling multivariate relationships, estimating points, and finding the interval indirect effects in the models (Byrne, 2016).

3.6. Ethical Consideration

In any form of research, ethical considerations are one of the most important pillars to observe (Patton, 2002). Before the data collection process was conducted, a survey questionnaire was written with different scales created by different scholars. To use these scales, the researcher solicited approval for using the scales from their authors, which was granted. This was followed by an application to approve the research topic and measurement scale to the Ibn Haldun University Social and Human Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee. After a rigorous reviewing process, the research topic and measurement scale was approved (Reference number: E-71395021-020-11174). The study was built for maximum confidentiality when dealing with information regarding employees' personal information and opinions on issues regarding their organization. In the survey's introduction, respondents were informed about the research's purpose and assured that all of the information collected would be kept confidential and only used for research purposes. They were also informed that the process was entirely voluntary. These processes are all in line with standard ethical research guidelines which were followed in this study.

3.7. Study Limitations

Not all organizations contacted were obliged to participate in this research, and in organizations where approval was granted, submission results varied among those

who initially volunteered to participate. Further constraints were had through the timeline to complete the survey and the costs to carry it out. Using close-ended questionnaires also came with its limitations since respondents cannot expand on situational context or detailed insights concerning the phenomenon under investigation. The response rate for this survey was 66%.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Chapter V discusses the data analyses done, ranging from descriptive statistics to structural equation modeling, and includes interpreting the results.

4.1. Initial Data Analysis and Screening

This process involves correcting missing variables, calculating the response rate, analyzing the measurement scale reliability, and performing a normality test of the data.

4.1.1. Response Rate

Response rate indicates the amount of data collected from a population's sample (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Hair et al., 2020). For this study, the response rate was calculated using the Neumann (2014) formula. Total Response rate as a percentage = (Total number of responses/total number in sample) x 100. This survey's total sample response rate was 66%, which is satisfactory for conducting continued analysis as the response rate is greater than 35% (Barunch, 1999). With the use of Neumann's (2014) formula, **Table 4.1** shows a summary of the research response rate.

Table 4.1. Response Rate

Country	*Number of Questionnaires Sent*	*Number of Questionnaires Received*	*Response Rate in Percentage*
The Gambia	384	259	67
Ghana	384	245	64
Both/Total	768	504	66

4.1.2. Missing Variables

Answering questionnaires can be tedious and lead to missing data during data collection (Hair et al., 2020). The value of missing data was not more than 10% (see **Table A.1** in appendices), so the use of average values to account for the missing data, according to George and Mallery (2022), was acceptable since the missing data of any single variable wasn't greater than 15%. The descriptive statistic results in **Table A. 2** show the percentage of data missing during the data collection process.

4.1.3. Scale Reliability

A measurement scale's internal consistency and reliability are very important in finding tangible research results (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). A scale reliability test was done to ensure that the measurement scale used in the study was consistent and appropriate for the study. The results in **Table 4.2** of the test show Cronbach alpha values of greater than 0.7 for all of the components measured independently, which solidifies the dependability of the measurement scale used (Hair et al., 2014; George & Mallery, 2022).

Table 4.2. Scale Reliability Results

Scale	*Number of Items*	*Cronbach's Alpha*
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	10	0.821
Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)	10	0.884
Supervisor Incivility (SI)	7	0.883
Co-worker Incivility (CWI)	7	0.898
Customer Incivility (CI)	15	0.904
Psychological Ownership (PO)	7	0.802
Turnover Intention (TI)	4	0.872

4.1.4. Normality Test

A normality test is important to identify the right data analysis procedures to use. It indicates if the study should be built using a parametric test when the data is normally distributed or a non-parametric test when it is not normally distributed (Pallant, 2020). Researchers use various procedures to measure the normality of their data, including the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test of normality and to

measure skewness (indicating symmetry of distribution) and kurtosis (peakedness of distribution) (George & Mallery, 2022) from descriptive statistics. According to Byrne (2016), "Normal is used to describe a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle with smaller frequencies towards the extremes" (p. 62). For a small sample size of between 50 and 300 respondents, it is advised to use the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test of normality, while a larger sample size of more than 300 respondents is considered to be more robust and appropriate to use skewness and kurtosis to test data normality (Kim, 2013). To assess the normality of the data in this study with a sample size of 504 respondents, skewness and kurtosis tests were done, and the results in **Tables 4.3** and **4.4** indicate that the data collected were normally distributed. Data is normally distributed when skewness and kurtosis are between -2 and +2 (Hair et al., 2014; Bryne, 2016; George & Mallery, 2022). However, some researchers also indicated that a kurtosis between -7 to +7 is also considered normal data (Kline, 2015; Kim, 2013). All of the results in **Tables 4.3** and **4.4**, with outcomes of skewness and kurtosis between -2 to +2, align with the required skewness and kurtosis results for a normally distributed research sample.

Table 4.3. Normality Results Based on Variable Average Scores

Test of Normality Using Skewness and Kurtosis

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
OCB	504	1	5	3.38	0.783	-0.080	.109	-.328	.217
CWB	504	1	5	1.84	0.820	1.099	.109	.354	.217
SI	504	1	5	2.11	0.909	0.705	.109	-.102	.217
CWI	504	1	5	2.09	0.943	0.746	.109	.013	.217
CI	504	1	5	2.34	0.775	0.374	.109	.007	.217
PO	504	1	5	3.28	0.880	-0.480	.109	.171	.217
TI	504	1	5	2.75	1.070	0.094	.109	-.572	.217
Valid N (listwise)	504								

Note. OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; CWB=Counterproductive Work Behavior; SI=Supervisor Incivility; CWI=Co-worker Incivility; CI=Customer Incivility; PO=Psychological Ownership; TI=Turnover Intention.

Table 4.4. Normality Results Based on Individual Variables

Test of Normality Using Skewness and Kurtosis

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Gender	504	1	2	1.47	0.5	0.12	.109	-1.994	.217
Age	504	1	5	2.40	1.019	0.796	.109	0.205	.217
Marital Status	504	1	2	1.61	0.488	-0.449	.109	-1.806	.217
Education	504	1	5	2.61	1.007	0.228	.109	-0.423	.217
Sector	504	1	2	1.47	0.5	0.112	.109	-1.995	.217
Country	504	1	2	1.49	0.5	0.056	.109	-2.005	.217
Experience	504	1	5	2.20	1.219	0.91	.109	-0.066	.217
OCB1	504	1	5	3.28	1.337	-0.127	.109	-1.225	.217
OCB2	504	1	5	3.56	1.234	-0.271	.109	-1.189	.217
OCB3	504	1	5	3.33	1.252	-0.126	.109	-1.065	.217
OCB4	504	1	5	3.74	1.251	-0.582	.109	-0.875	.217
OCB5	504	1	5	3.76	1.232	-0.62	.109	-0.763	.217
OCB6	504	1	5	3.73	1.204	-0.539	.109	-0.875	.217
OCB7	504	1	5	3.42	1.207	-0.286	.109	-0.871	.217
OCB8	504	1	5	2.96	1.320	0.066	.109	-1.145	.217
OCB9	504	1	5	2.82	1.281	0.151	.109	-1.004	.217
OCB10	504	1	5	3.21	1.340	-0.137	.109	-1.188	.217
CWB1	504	1	5	1.69	1.164	1.625	.109	1.516	.217
CWB2	504	1	5	2.33	1.239	0.675	.109	-0.567	.217
CWB3	504	1	5	1.87	1.138	1.103	.109	0.191	.217
CWB4	504	1	5	2.05	1.177	0.818	.109	-0.466	.217
CWB5	504	1	5	1.76	1.242	1.511	.109	1.044	.217
CWB6	504	1	5	1.56	1.121	1.979	.109	2.740	.217
CWB7	504	1	5	1.65	1.042	1.572	.109	1.472	.217
CWB8	504	1	5	1.82	1.115	1.260	.109	0.702	.217
CWB9	504	1	5	1.85	1.153	1.219	.109	0.373	.217
CWB10	504	1	5	1.75	1.303	1.537	.109	0.917	.217
SI1	504	1	5	2.16	1.248	0.806	.109	-0.42	.217
SI2	504	1	5	2.36	1.132	0.590	.109	-0.369	.217
SI3	504	1	5	2.02	1.061	0.643	.109	-0.604	.217
SI4	504	1	5	2.07	1.250	0.896	.109	-0.394	.217
SI5	504	1	5	2.06	1.267	0.939	.109	-0.252	.217
SI6	504	1	5	2.09	1.200	0.885	.109	-0.204	.217
SI7	504	1	5	1.97	1.131	0.981	.109	0.108	.217
CWI1	504	1	5	1.93	1.165	1.114	.109	0.352	.217
CWI2	504	1	5	2.17	1.081	0.849	.109	0.252	.217
CWI3	504	1	5	2.04	1.134	0.817	.109	-0.265	.217
CWI4	504	1	5	2.07	1.245	0.927	.109	-0.277	.217
CWI5	504	1	5	2.08	1.277	0.941	.109	-0.264	.217
CWI6	504	1	5	2.19	1.277	0.739	.109	-0.645	.217
CWI7	504	1	5	2.15	1.195	0.778	.109	-0.318	.217
CI1	504	1	5	2.63	1.264	0.339	.109	-0.823	.217
CI2	504	1	5	2.72	1.161	0.22	.109	-0.681	.217
CI3	504	1	5	2.55	1.165	0.341	.109	-0.615	.217
CI4	504	1	5	2.45	1.184	0.405	.109	-0.734	.217

Table 4.4. (cont.)

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
CI5	504	1	5	2.85	1.232	0.1	.109	-0.822	.217
CI6	504	1	5	2.36	1.170	0.579	.109	-0.408	.217
CI7	504	1	5	2.16	1.143	0.806	.109	-0.054	.217
CI8	504	1	5	2.42	1.143	0.54	.109	-0.438	.217
CI9	504	1	5	2.23	1.187	0.716	.109	-0.342	.217
CI10	504	1	5	2.04	1.132	0.909	.109	-0.075	.217
CI11	504	1	5	2.44	1.220	0.533	.109	-0.517	.217
CI12	504	1	5	2.04	1.217	0.979	.109	-0.084	.217
CI13	504	1	5	1.92	1.184	1.149	.109	0.324	.217
CI14	504	1	5	2.07	1.183	0.955	.109	-0.016	.217
CI15	504	1	5	2.18	1.236	0.896	.109	-0.125	.217
PO1	504	1	5	3.21	1.462	-0.258	.109	-1.295	.217
PO2	504	1	5	3.53	1.251	-0.513	.109	-0.803	.217
PO3	504	1	5	3.26	1.255	-0.256	.109	-0.863	.217
PO4	504	1	5	3.28	1.298	-0.329	.109	-0.972	.217
PO5	504	1	5	3.62	1.294	-0.717	.109	-0.59	.217
PO6	504	1	5	3.22	1.215	-0.192	.109	-0.78	.217
PO7	504	1	5	2.88	1.312	0.032	.109	-1.103	.217
TI1	504	1	5	2.68	1.286	0.198	.109	-1.011	.217
TI2	504	1	5	2.69	1.239	0.243	.109	-0.901	.217
TI3	504	1	5	2.83	1.257	0.08	.109	-0.962	.217
TI4	504	1	5	2.80	1.255	0.074	.109	-0.96	.217
Valid N (listwise)	504								

Note. OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; CWB=Counterproductive Work Behavior; SI=Supervisor Incivility; CWI=Co-worker Incivility; CI=Customer Incivility; PO=Psychological Ownership; TI=Turnover Intention.

4.2. Sample Characteristics

This involves the frequency analysis of the main sample and the frequency analysis based on country samples.

4.2.1. Main Sample Characteristics

The sample characteristics of a study are usually determined by running descriptive analysis, which is designed to give a researcher information regarding the distribution of their variables (Pallant, 2020; George & Mallery, 2022). Based on the results in **Table 4.5**, this study's sample size is 504 employees from both the public and private sectors in The Gambia and Ghana. Of the 504 respondents, 267 are male and 237 are female, representing 53% and 47% of the sample population, respectively. Regarding the sample distribution based on sector, 266 are from the

public sector, while 238 are from the private sector. From the sample of 504 respondents, 259, representing 51.4%, are from The Gambia, and 245, representing 48.6%, are from Ghana. 68% of the respondents are either diploma or undergraduate degree holders, representing a total number of 343 respondents. A slight majority of the respondents representing 60.9% of the sample are married, while 39.1% are single. 64.7% of the respondents are young people aged 18 to 35, while the remaining 35.3% are aged 36 and above. 343 out of 504 respondents have worked between 0 and 10 years, representing 68% of the population, while the remaining 32% of the sample have work experience lasting longer than ten years.

Table 4.5. Main Sample Characteristics

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
	GENDER		
Male	267	53.0	53.0
Female	237	47.0	100.0
	AGE		
18-25	78	15.5	15.5
26-35	248	49.2	64.7
36-45	101	20.0	84.7
46-55	54	10.7	95.4
56 and above	23	4.6	100.0
	MARITAL STATUS		
Single	197	39.1	39.1
Married	307	60.9	100.0
	EDUCATION		
High School	69	13.7	13.7
Diploma	167	33.1	46.8
Bachelor's Degree	176	34.9	81.7
Master's Degree	75	14.9	96.6
PhD	17	3.4	100.0
	SECTOR		
Public Sector	266	52.8	52.8
Private Sector	238	47.2	100.0
	EXPERIENCE		
0-5	176	34.9	34.9
6-10	167	33.1	68.1
11-15	84	16.7	84.7
16-23	37	7.3	92.1
21 and above	40	7.9	100.0
	COUNTRY		
The Gambia	259	51.4	51.4
Ghana	245	48.6	100.0

4.2.2. Sample Characteristics by Country

Of the 259 respondents from The Gambia, 160 are male, and 99 are female, while in Ghana, 107 respondents are male and 138 are female. This indicates that the

respondents from The Gambia are male-dominated, while those from Ghana are slightly female-dominated. 176 out of the 259 respondents in The Gambia are married, while 83 of them are single, 131 are married, and 114 are single in Ghana. The sample respondents from The Gambia are dominated by the public sector with 165 representatives out of the total 259, while private sector respondents were dominant in Ghana with a total of 144 out of 245. Both respondents from The Gambia and Ghana skew young from the ages of 18 to 35. Of the 259 respondents from The Gambia, 156 are young people, while of the 245 Ghanaian respondents, 170 are young. Both The Gambia and Ghana have a majority of the respondents with either a diploma or undergraduate degree, representing a total of 190 out of 259 from The Gambia and 153 out of 245 from Ghana, respectively. From both countries, the majority of the respondents have a work experience between 0 to 10 years, with a total of 179 out of 259 from The Gambia and 164 out of 245 from Ghana. A summary of these results is shown in **Table 4.6**.

Table 4.6. Sample Characteristics by Country

COUNTRY * GENDER Crosstabulation

		GENDER		Total
		Male	Female	
COUNTRY	The Gambia	160	99	259
	Ghana	107	138	245
	Total	267	237	504

COUNTRY * MARITAL STATUS Crosstabulation

		MARITAL STATUS		Total
		Single	Married	
COUNTRY	The Gambia	83	176	259
	Ghana	114	131	245
	Total	197	307	504

COUNTRY * SECTOR Crosstabulation

		SECTOR		Total
		Public Sector	Private Sector	
COUNTRY	The Gambia	165	94	259
	Ghana	101	144	245
	Total	266	238	504

COUNTRY * AGE Crosstabulation

		AGE					Total
		18-25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56 and above	
COUNTRY	The Gambia	30	126	65	34	4	259
	Ghana	48	122	36	20	19	245
	Total	78	248	101	54	23	504

Table 4.6. (cont.)

COUNTRY * EDUCATION Crosstabulation

		EDUCATION					Total
		High School	Diploma	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	PhD	
COUNTRY	The Gambia	22	109	81	43	4	259
	Ghana	47	58	95	32	13	245
	Total	69	167	176	75	17	504

COUNTRY * EXPERIENCE Crosstabulation

		EXPERIENCE					Total
		0-5	6-10	11-15	16-23	21 and above	
COUNTRY	The Gambia	100	79	38	26	16	259
	Ghana	76	88	46	11	24	245
	Total	176	167	84	37	40	504

4.3. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics and correlation analysis results in **Table 4.7** indicate the mean and standard deviation results and the correlation among variables used in this study. The mean results indicate a high level of OCB (3.38) and PO (3.28) among employees, moderate levels of SI (2.11), CWI (2.09), and CI (2.34), as well as a low level of CWB (1.84). The mean results show the presence of both positive and negative behaviors among employees in public and private sector institutions from the surveyed sample. The correlation results indicate a significant relationship among most of the relationships among the variables. Only three relationships were statistically insignificant: PO and SI ($r = -.026$, $p = 0.558$), PO and CI ($r = .023$, $p = 0.612$), and TI and PO ($r = -.043$, $p = 0.333$). The rest of the relationships that exist in **Table 4.7** are all significant, with p-values of 0.01 and 0.05. The correlation results are all less than 0.8, which indicates a lack of a multi-collinearity problem (Bryne, 2016; George & Mallery, 2022).

Table 4.7. Descriptive and Correlations Analysis

Variable	*Mean*	*SD*	*OCB*	*CWB*	*SI*	*CWI*	*CI*	*PO*	*TI*
OCB	3.38	.783	1						
CWB	1.84	.820	-.200**	1					
SI	2.11	.909	-.142**	.593**	1				
CWI	2.09	.943	-.174**	.527**	.703**	1			
CI	2.34	.775	-.131**	.476**	.446**	.491**	1		
PO	3.28	.880	.264**	-.103*	-.026	-.097*	,023	1	
TI	2.75	1.070	-.096*	.259**	.277**	.176**	.211**	-.043	1

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Note. SD=Standard Deviation; OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; CWB=Counterproductive Work Behavior; SI=Supervisor Incivility; CWI=Co-worker Incivility; CI=Customer Incivility; PO=Psychological Ownership; TI=Turnover Intention.

4.4. Independent Sample T-test

To compare the average scores of the two groupings in the demographic variables of the study, an independent sample t-test was applied. This helps in knowing whether a significant difference exists between two different groups of respondents in a research sample. (Pallant, 2020; George & Mallery, 2022). When the Sig. (2-tailed) statistics value with a 95% confidence level is equal to or less than 0.05, there is a significant difference between the groups, and when the Sig. (2-tailed) statistics value is above 0.05; there is no significant difference between the groups (Pallant, 2020; George & Mallery, 2022). For this research, an independent sample t-test was done for gender (male and female), sector (public sector and private sector), country (The Gambia and Ghana), age (18 to 35 and 36 and above), education (undergraduate and below and graduate degree), and work experience (0 to 10 and 11 and above). The analyses of differences between groups of these demographic variables are separately discussed below.

4.4.1. Independent Sample T-test Based on Gender

Results of the independent sample t-test on gender, as shown in **Table 4.8** regarding how males and females in the research sample see OCB, CWB, SI, CWI, CI, PO, and TI, vary in some aspects since some are significant and others are not. There is a significant difference with regards to how males and females saw or responded to

OCB (sig 0.044), CWB (sig 0.005), SI (sig 0.032), CWI (sig 0.001), CI (sig 0.006), PO (sig 0.000), and an insignificant difference with regards to TI (sig 0.602). The group statistic averages in **Table 4.8** shows the extent of the difference between male and female respondents. Regarding OCB means (male 3.45 and female 3.31), there is an indication that, compared to females, males are more involved in OCB. The means for CWB (male 1.74 and female 1.94) show a higher level of CWB in females than their male counterparts. The means of SI (male 2.02 and female 2.20), CWI (male 1.95 and female 2.24), and CI (male 2.25 and female 2.44) all indicate a higher level of experienced workplace incivility among females, which could be a reason for more involvement in CWB as a form of retaliation or reciprocity. These results indicate that females in the workplace face more incivility compared to their male counterparts. For PO means (male 3.45 and female 3.31), there is an indication that males have a higher sense of PO compared to females. For TI, there is no significant difference with the means of both males and females (male 2.77 and female 2.72).

Table 4.8. Independent T-test Results Based on Gender

Independent Samples Test						
Variable	***Gender***	***N***	***Mean***	***Mean Difference***	***t***	***Sig. (2-tailed)***
OCB	Male	267	3.45		2.017	0.044
	Female	237	3.31	0.141	2.025	0.043
CWB	Male	267	1.74		-2.81	0.005
	Female	237	1.94	-0.204	-2.799	0.005
SI	Male	267	2.02		-2.148	0.032
	Female	237	2.20	-0.174	-2.137	0.033
CWI	Male	267	1.95		-3.456	0.001
	Female	237	2.24	-0.288	-3.438	0.001
CI	Male	267	2.25		-2.755	0.006
	Female	237	2.44	-0.189	-2.746	0.006
PO	Male	267	3.43		3.919	0.000
	Female	237	3.12	0.303	3.907	0.000
TI	Male	267	2.77		0.522	0.602
	Female	237	2.72	0.050	0.524	0.601

4.4.2. Independent Sample T-test Based on Sector

Similar to gender, there are significant differences between groups in some variables when examining the sector, as shown in **Table 4.9.** The significant differences among the public and private sector employees with regards to the variables exist in OCB (sig 0.046), CWB (sig 0.012), PO (sig 0.025), and TI (sig 0.010). However,

insignificant differences exist in SI (sig 0.459), CWI (sig 0.568), and CI (sig 0.336). The Group statistic averages in **Table 4.9** outline these results. The mean results show a higher level of OCB (public sector 3.45 and private sector 3.31) and PO (public sector 3.37 and private sector 3.19) in the public sector. The same results also show a higher rate of CWB (public sector 1.75 and private sector 1.93) and TI (public sector 2.63 and private sector 2.88) in the private sector. There are no significant differences concerning the levels of SI (public sector 2.08 and private sector 2.12), CWI (public sector 2.07 and private sector 2.12), or CI (public sector 2.31 and private sector 2.37) in responses from employees in both sectors. However, the results of the means indicate the existence of workplace incivility in the form of SI, CWI, and CI.

Table 4.9. Independent T-test Results Based on Sector

Independent Samples Test

Variable	***Sector***	***N***	***Mean***	***Mean Difference***	***t***	***Sig. (2-tailed)***
OCB	Public Sector	266	3.45		2.002	0.046
	Private Sector	238	3.31	0.140	1.995	0.047
CWB	Public Sector	266	1.75		-2.517	0.012
	Private Sector	238	1.93	-0.183	-2.492	0.013
SI	Public Sector	266	2.08		-0.740	0.459
	Private Sector	238	2.14	-0.060	-0.741	0.459
CWI	Public Sector	266	2.07		-0.571	0.568
	Private Sector	238	2.12	-0.048	-0.572	0.568
CI	Public Sector	266	2.31		-0.963	0.336
	Private Sector	238	2.37	-0.067	-0.961	0.337
PO	Public Sector	266	3.37		2.249	0.025
	Private Sector	238	3.19	0.176	2.250	0.025
TI	Public Sector	266	2.63		-2.598	0.010
	Private Sector	238	2.88	-0.247	-2.590	0.010

4.4.3. Independent Sample T-test Based on Country

An independent sample t-test comparing group differences based on country indicates a significant difference in all of the variables. Based on the results shown in **Table 4.10**, there is a significant difference in the way respondents viewed OCB (sig 0.000), CWB (sig 0.000), SI (sig 0.000), CWI (sig 0.000), CI (sig 0.000), PO (sig 0.001), and TI (sig 0.000). The mean results in **Table 4.10** of OCB (The Gambia 3.53 and Ghana 3.23), CWB (The Gambia 1.45 and Ghana 2.24), SI (The Gambia 1.82 and Ghana 2.40), CWI (The Gambia 1.76 and Ghana 2.41), CI (The Gambia

2.19 and Ghana 2.49), PO (The Gambia 3.41 and Ghana 3.15), and TI (The Gambia 2.56 and Ghana 2.94) all show a difference in responses from The Gambia and Ghana. These mean results indicate a higher level of OCB and PO from employees in The Gambia. It also indicates a higher level of CWB, SI, CI, and TI among employees from Ghana. In short, positive behavior and PO are trend higher in The Gambia, while negative behaviors like CWB and workplace incivility in the form of SI, CWI, and CI are higher in Ghana based on the responses. Due to this high level of negative behaviors among employees in Ghana, there is also a higher level of TI. However, a higher negative behavior among employees in Ghana does not necessarily exhibit a lack of negative behavior among employees in The Gambia. Both employees from The Gambia and Ghana exhibit positive and negative behaviors at the workplace.

Table 4.10. Independent T-test Results Based on Country

Independent Samples Test

Variable	***Country***	***N***	***Mean***	***Mean Difference***	***t***	***Sig. (2-tailed)***
OCB	The Gambia	259	3.53		4.341	0.000
	Ghana	245	3.23	0.298	4.347	0.000
CWB	The Gambia	259	1.45		-12.348	0.000
	Ghana	245	2.24	-0.791	-12.169	0.000
SI	The Gambia	259	1.82		-7.508	0.000
	Ghana	245	2.40	-0.577	-7.485	0.000
CWI	The Gambia	259	1.78		-7.924	0.000
	Ghana	245	2.41	-0.628	-7.896	0.000
CI	The Gambia	259	2.19		-4.425	0.000
	Ghana	245	2.49	-0.300	-4.413	0.000
PO	The Gambia	259	3.41		3.341	0.001
	Ghana	245	3.15	0.259	3.339	0.001
TI	The Gambia	259	2.56		-4.057	0.000
	Ghana	245	2.94	-0.381	-4.067	0.000

4.4.4. Independent Sample T-test Based on Age

Results shown in **Table 4.11,** based on age comparison, show a significant difference between the two age groups (18 to 35 and 36 and above) regarding levels of OCB and PO. The result for OCB (sig=0.005) indicates different means from employees between 18 to 35 (3.31) and 36 and above (3.51). This, in essence, means that the older sample group is more aligned toward OCB than the younger employees. Regarding the differences based on PO, there is also a significant difference (sig=0.003) with a mean score for employees from 18 to 35 measured as 3.20 and for

employees from 36 years and above measured as 3.44. As shown in **Table 4.11,** this mean result indicates a higher PO level among older employees (ages 36 and above) compared to younger employees (18 to 35). The results indicate a lack of significant group differences regarding CWB, SI, CWI, CI, and TI. However, the mean scores of these variables are all above 2 except for CWB, which is close to 2 with mean values above 1.8. This indicates a prevalence of CWB, SI, CWI, CI, and TI among all ages of employees from both The Gambia and Ghana.

Table 4.11. Independent T-test Results Based on Age

Independent Samples Test

Variable	***Age***	***N***	***Mean***	***Mean Difference***	***t***	***Sig. (2-tailed)***
OCB	18-35	326	3.31		-2.851	0.005
	36 and above	178	3.51	-0.207	-2.81	0.005
CWB	18-35	326	1.83		-0.013	0.990
	36 and above	178	1.84	-0.001	-0.013	0.989
SI	18-35	326	2.10		-0.248	0.804
	36 and above	178	2.12	-0.021	-0.25	0.803
CWI	18-35	326	2.08		-0.269	0.788
	36 and above	178	2.11	-0.024	-0.271	0.787
CI	18-35	326	2.34		-0.112	0.911
	36 and above	178	2.34	-0.008	-0.115	0.909
PO	18-35	326	3.20		-3.038	0.003
	36 and above	178	3.44	-0.247	-3.003	0.003
TI	18-35	326	2.81		1.795	0.073
	36 and above	178	2.63	0.179	1.813	0.071

4.4.5. Independent Sample T-test Based on Education

The independent t-test for the sample's education level looks at two groups: those with graduate degrees and those without. The results shown in **Table 4.12** indicate a significant difference in these groups regarding the level of CI (sig=0.042) they face and their sense of PO (sig=0.001). The mean results of these two variables, as shown in **Table 4.12**, display CI as 2.37 and PO as 3.23 for those without a graduate degree and CI as 2.19 and PO as 3.55 for those with a graduate degree. This mean result indicates that higher levels of education decrease experienced CI and increase feelings of PO. Even though the differences in OCB, CWB, SI, CWI, PO, and TI are not significantly different within these two groups, the mean results still indicate the prevalence of these issues in the two groups.

Table 4.12. Independent T-test Results Based on Education

Independent Samples Test

Variable	*Education*	*N*	*Mean*	*Mean Difference*	*t*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*
OCB	Undergraduate and below	412	3.36		-1.12	0.263
	Graduate Degree	92	3.46	-0.101	-1.16	0.248
CWB	Undergraduate and below	412	1.84		0.288	0.773
	Graduate Degree	92	1.81	0.027	0.257	0.797
SI	Undergraduate and below	412	2.09		-0.712	0.477
	Graduate Degree	92	2.17	-0.075	-0.643	0.521
CWI	Undergraduate and below	412	2.11		0.976	0.33
	Graduate Degree	92	2.00	0.106	0.957	0.341
CI	Undergraduate and below	412	2.37		2.037	0.042
	Graduate Degree	92	2.19	0.182	1.952	0.053
PO	Undergraduate and below	412	3.23		-3.204	0.001
	Graduate Degree	92	3.55	-0.322	-3.426	0.001
TI	Undergraduate and below	412	2.74		-0.494	0.621
	Graduate Degree	92	2.80	-0.061	-0.484	0.629

4.4.6. Independent Sample T-test Based on Experience

An independent t-test was done for employees having 10 years or less of work experience and employees with more than 10 years of experience. The results shown in **Table 4.13** indicate a significant difference between the two groups when it comes to SI (sig=0.022), CI (sig=0.001), and PO (sig=0.024). The mean results in **Table 4.13** indicate that employees with greater than 10 years of experience, with a mean of 2.24, face increased levels of SI compared to employees with 10 years of work experience or less, with a mean of 2.04. The results for CI are similar; those with longer work experience face increased levels of CI, with a mean of 2.5 than those with less experience, with a mean of 2.26. Interestingly, even though employees with longer work experience face increased levels of SI and CI, they typically still maintain an increased sense of PO, with a measured mean of 3.41, compared to employees with less experience, displaying a mean of 3.22. The independent sample t-test does not indicate a significant difference for OCB, CWB, CWI, or TI.

Table 4.13. Independent T-test Results Based on Experience

Independent Samples Test						
Variable	**Experience**	***N***	***Mean***	***Mean Difference***	***t***	***Sig. (2-tailed)***
OCB	0-10	343	3.34		-1.534	0.126
	11 and above	161	3.46	-0.115	-1.542	0.124
CWB	0-10	343	1.79		-1.695	0.091
	11 and above	161	1.93	-0.132	-1.702	0.090
SI	0-10	343	2.04		-2.300	0.022
	11 and above	161	2.24	-0.199	-2.363	0.019
CWI	0-10	343	2.05		-1.270	0.205
	11 and above	161	2.17	-0.114	-1.283	0.201
CI	0-10	343	2.26		-3.193	0.001
	11 and above	0.001	2.50	-0.234	-3.241	0.001
PO	0-10	0.024	3.22		-2.258	0.024
	11 and above	0.025	3.41	-0.189	-2.246	0.025
TI	0-10	0.766	2.76		0.298	0.766
	11 and above	0.769	2.73	0.030	0.294	0.769

4.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To test the validity of the measurement model, a second-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done, as shown in **Figure 4.1**. The results indicate that there were no validity issues. The CFA was completed before conducting SEM analysis to test research hypotheses (Hair et al., 2014; Byrne, 2016).

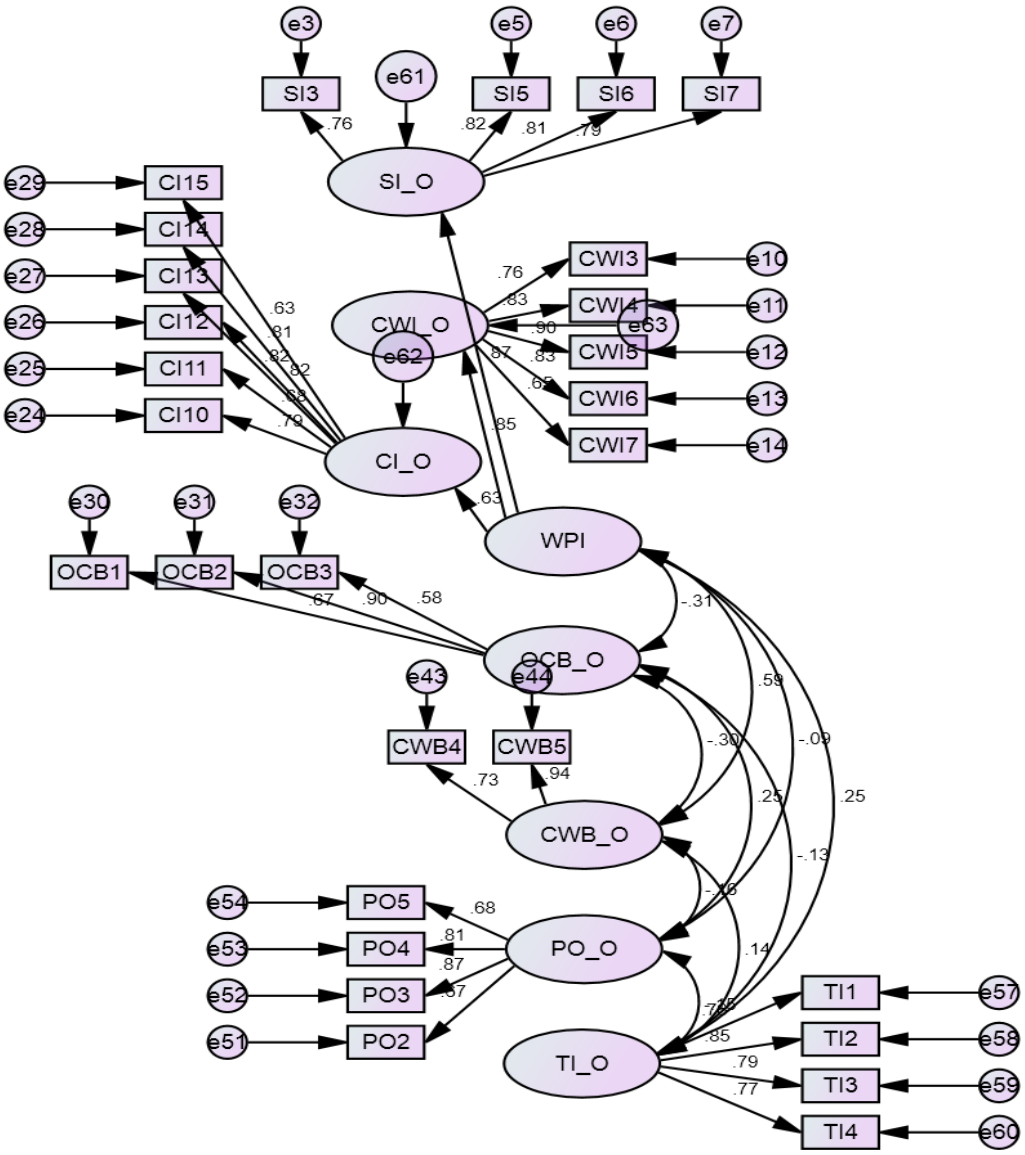


Figure 4.1. CFA Path Model

Note. SI_O=supervisor incivility; CWI_O=coworker incivility; CI_O=customer incivility; WPI=workplace incivility; OCB_O=organizational citizenship behavior; CWB_O=counterproductive work behavior; PO_O=psychological ownership; TI_O=turnover intention.

4.5.1. Model Reliability

For measuring a study's intended latent construct, the measurement scale's reliability should be considered. The composite reliability (CR) results of this study, as shown in **Table 4.15,** indicate that the measurement scale is internally consistent in measuring the latent variables, as all scores are above 0.8. According to Hair et al.

(2014), a scale is considered reliable when the CR scores are equal to or greater than 0.6, which aligns with the results obtained in this study.

4.5.2. Model Validity

Model validity involves construct validity, discriminant validity, and convergent validity.

The obtained model fit results of the CFA model indicate an acceptable construct validity. The model fit results, as shown in **Table 5.14,** indicate a Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF) score of 2.7 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) score of 0.885 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1984; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Hair et al., 2014), Tucker-Lewis coefficient/Index (TLI) score of 0.917 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) score of 0.926 (Bentler, 1990; Fan et al., 1999), and a Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) score of 0.058 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The results reveal that the model fits the data with an absolute fit score of RMSEA 0.058, GFI 0.926, an incremental fit score of TLI 0.917, CFI 0.926, and a parsimonious fit score of *CMIN/DF* 2.7 (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.14. CFA Model Fit Indexes

Model Fit Summary

CMIN/DF	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
2.7	0.885	0.917	0.926	0.058

To measure the discriminant and convergent validity of the CFA model, the average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), and AVE correlation values are important to examine. For convergent validity, an AVE score of at least 0.5 is considered sufficient (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results in **Table 4.15** show that all of the variables have AVE scores greater than 0.5. To achieve sufficient discriminant validity, the MSV scores of the variables should be less than the AVE scores, which the results confirm in **Table 4.15**. Discriminant validity is also achieved when the square root of a variable's AVE is greater than its correlation value with other constructs in a model. It is achieved if the cascading, diagonal

values, shown in bold in **Table 4.15** (0,728, 0,841, 0,760, 0,796, and 0,790), are higher than the values of variables in its row and its column (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, discriminant validity is achieved when the correlations between independent variables do not exceed 0.85, as shown in the results.

Table 4.15. Composite Reliability (CR), Convergent Validity, and Discriminant Validity Results

	CR	*AVE*	*MSV*	*OCB*	*CWB*	*PO*	*TI*	*WPI*
OCB	0.766	0.530	0.095	**0.728**				
CWB	0.826	0.707	0.353	-0.303	**0.841**			
PO	0.844	0.578	0.064	0.253	-0.162	**0.760**		
TI	0.873	0.633	0.061	-0.132	0.144	-0.153	**0.796**	
WPI	0.831	0.625	0.353	-0.308	0.594	-0.087	0.246	**0.790**

Note. CR=composite reliability; AVE=average variance extracted; MSV=maximum shared variance OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; CWB=Counterproductive Work Behavior; PO=Psychological Ownership; TI=Turnover Intention; WPI= Workplace Incivility

4.6. Common Method Bias Test

To avoid the existence of bias in the study, a common method bias (CMB) test was conducted. CMB can lead to false internal consistency since it is capable of causing measurement errors by abnormally increasing or decreasing observed relationships among constructs (Change et al., 2010). When CMB is used in research, it may reduce the reliability of the measurements and the validity of the obtained results (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012).

The most common method of measuring CMB is using the Harman single factor, which uses explorative factor analysis with the use of a single factor where all of the variables are accounted for. The analysis is constrained so that there is no rotation (Harman & Harman, 1976; Podsakoff et al., 2003). For common method bias (CMB) to exist, the newly created common latent factor's variance must be greater than 50%. The results of our analysis in **Table 4.16** indicate a variance of 23.198%, below this 50% upper limit.

Using SEM models, the common latent factor method is an additional way of measuring CMB and is largely considered to be more reliable (Eichhorn, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). This method creates a new latest variable in the already existing SEM

model and correlates this variable to all the other variables. The newly created paths that connect the new latent variable to the other variables are constrained to be equal, and the variance of the common factor is constrained to be 1 (Eichhorn, 2014). The results of the common latent factor method, as indicated in **Figure 4.3,** has a variance of 0.33. Taking the square root of the common latent factor variance yields a variance percentage of 50%. Since a CMB issue is triggered from a variance percentage of greater than 50%, this close figure still indicates a no CMB result.

Table 4.16. Harman's Single Factor Test Results

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	13.919	23.198	23.198	13.919	23.198	23.198
2	4.770	7.949	31.147			
3	3.608	6.013	37.160			
4	3.110	5.183	42.344			
5	2.789	4.648	46.991			
6	2.496	4.159	51.151			
7	2.114	3.523	54.673			
8	1.757	2.929	57.602			
9	1.418	2.364	59.966			
10	1.335	2.225	62.191			
11	1.164	1.940	64.131			
12	1.048	1.747	65.878			
13	1.013	1.689	67.567			
14	0.934	1.557	69.124			
15	0.863	1.438	70.562			
16	0.834	1.390	71.952			
17	0.798	1.329	73.281			
18	0.789	1.315	74.596			
19	0.708	1.180	75.776			
20	0.692	1.154	76.93			
21	0.663	1.105	78.035			
22	0.625	1.041	79.076			
23	0.596	0.994	80.070			
24	0.582	0.970	81.040			
25	0.558	0.931	81.971			
26	0.542	0.903	82.874			
27	0.489	0.815	83.689			
28	0.480	0.800	84.488			
29	0.469	0.782	85.271			
30	0.461	0.769	86.040			
31	0.454	0.757	86.797			
32	0.433	0.722	87.518			
33	0.406	0.676	88.194			
34	0.401	0.668	88.863			

Table 4.16 (cont.)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
35	0.393	0.655	89.518			
36	0.372	0.620	90.138			
37	0.367	0.612	90.750			
38	0.349	0.581	91.331			
39	0.338	0.563	91.895			
40	0.337	0.562	92.457			
41	0.325	0.542	92.999			
42	0.315	0.525	93.523			
43	0.311	0.519	94.042			
44	0.301	0.502	94.545			
45	0.287	0.479	95.023			
46	0.266	0.444	95.467			
47	0.255	0.425	95.892			
48	0.239	0.398	96.290			
49	0.235	0.391	96.681			
50	0.231	0.385	97.066			
51	0.224	0.374	97.440			
52	0.212	0.354	97.794			
53	0.199	0.331	98.125			
54	0.193	0.322	98.447			
55	0.187	0.312	98.759			
56	0.178	0.297	99.055			
57	0.161	0.268	99.323			
58	0.149	0.248	99.571			
59	0.141	0.234	99.806			
60	0.117	0.194	100			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

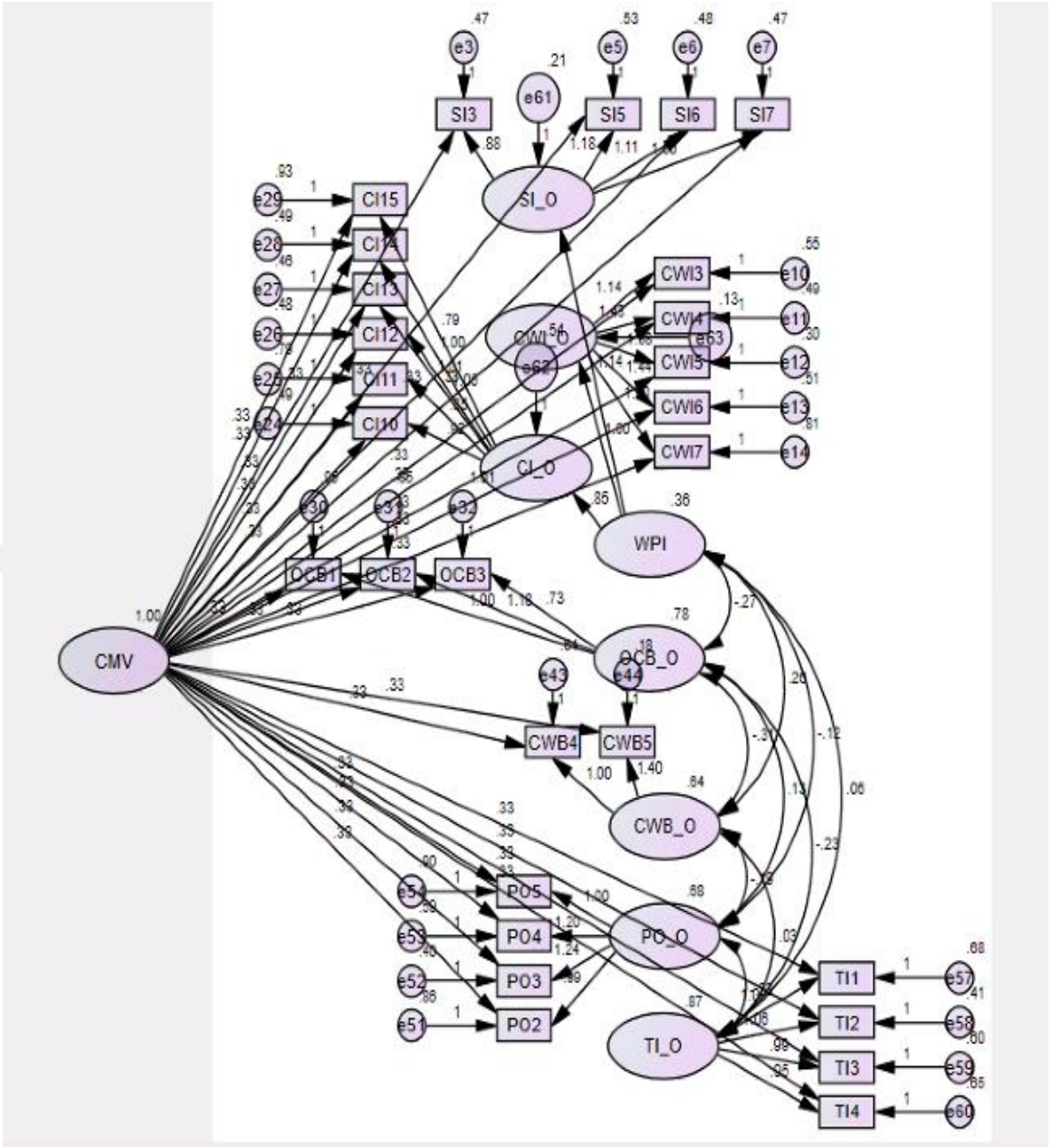


Figure 4.2. Using the Common Latent Factor Method

4.7. Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) with maximum likelihood as an estimation method, as shown in **Figure 4.3,** was used to test the causal relationships in the model (Kline, 2015; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016).

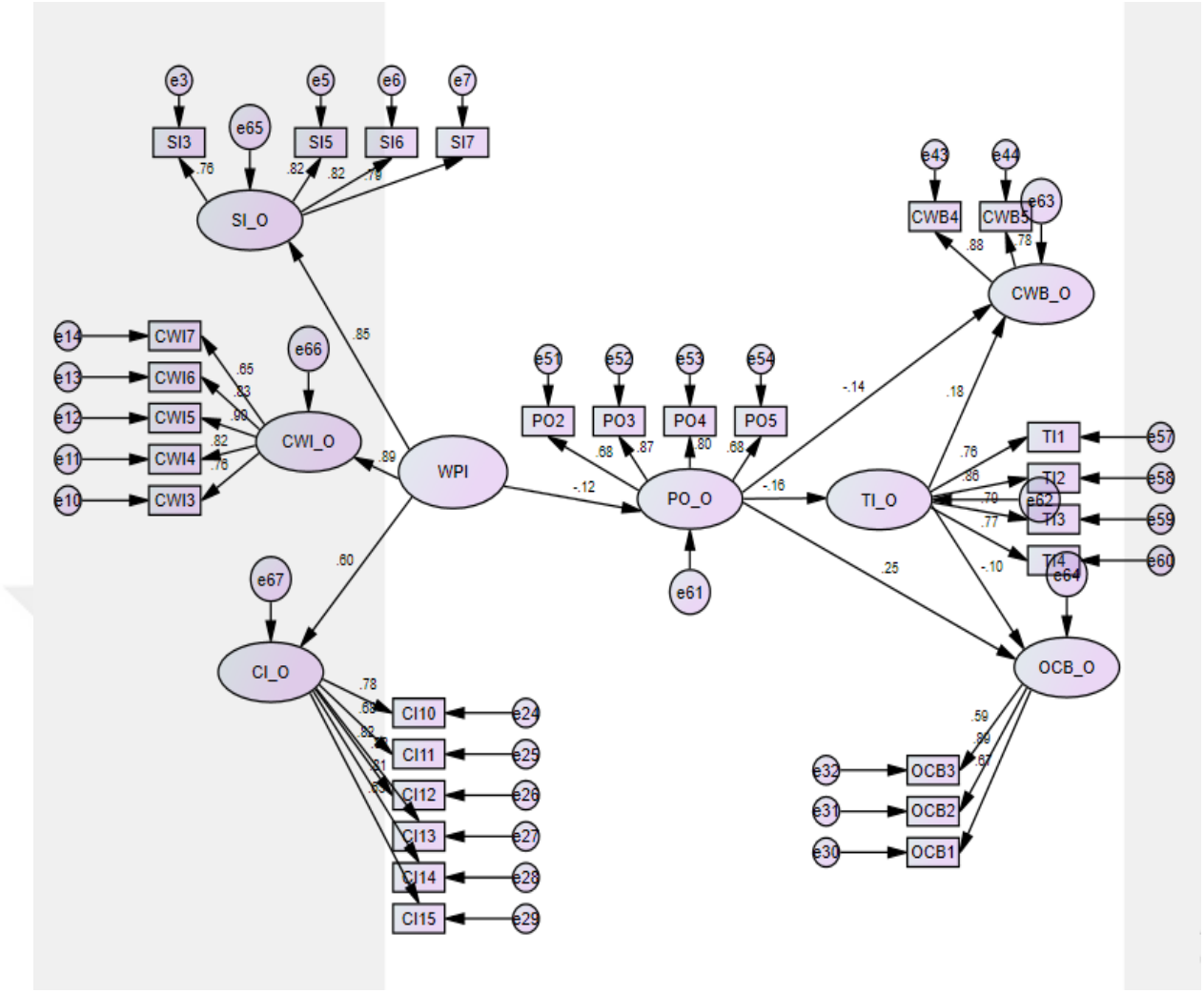


Figure 4.3. SEM Path Model

Note. SI_O=supervisor incivility; CWI_O=coworker incivility; CI_O=customer incivility; WPI=workplace incivility; OCB_O=organizational citizenship behavior; CWB_O=counterproductive work behavior; PO_O=psychological ownership; TI_O=turnover intention.

4.7.1. Construct Validity

Considering the model fit requirements helps to determine whether the model fits the data collected and whether it can be considered robust enough to measure the existing relationships (Hair et al., 2014; Byrne, 2016). The results of the model fit indexes, as shown in **Table 4.17,** indicate that the model fits the data with a CMIN/DF score of 3.231 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985), GFI score of 0.857 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1984; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Hair et al., 2014), TLI score of 0.891 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), CFI score of 0.902 (Bentler, 1990; Fan et al., 1999), and an RMSEA

score of 0.067 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The results reveal that the model fits the data with the acceptable absolute fit (RMSEA 0.067, GFI 0.857), incremental fit (TLI 0.891, CFI 0.902), and parsimonious fit (*CMIN/DF* 3.231) (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.17. SEM Model Fit Indexes

Model Fit Summary

CMIN/DF	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
3.231	0.857	0.891	0.902	0.067

4.7.2. SEM Path Regression Coefficient Results and Their Significance

The SEM path model results help indicate the existing relationship between variables and assist in measuring the significance of the research hypotheses (Hair et al., 2014; Byrne, 2016). The SEM regression results indicate a negatively significant relationship (sig. 0.025) between workplace incivility and psychological ownership. The estimate of this significant relationship is -0.137, which means that when WPI increases by 1, PO decreases by -0.137. The relationship between psychological ownership and turnover intention is also considered significant, measured at 0.003, with an estimate of -0.174, indicating that when PO increases by 1, TI reduces by -0.174. Additionally, the relationship between psychological ownership and counterproductive work behavior is negatively correlated, with a significance level of 0.009 and an estimate of -0.165. When PO increases by 1, CWB reduces by -0.165.

Psychological ownership and organizational citizenship behavior indicate a positive relationship with a significance level of 0.001 and an estimated 0.258. Conclusively, when PO increases by 1, OCB also increases by 0.258. Furthermore, the regression results indicate a negatively significant relationship (sig 0.056) between turnover intention and organizational citizenship behavior. The estimate of this relationship is -0.09, meaning when TI increases by 1, OCB decreases by -0.09.

The final relationship of the SEM regression results is turnover intention and counterproductive work behavior. The results indicate a positively significant relationship (sig 0.001) between TI and CWB with an estimated 0.186. This, in short, means when TI increases by 1, CWB also increases by 0.186. The results shown in

Table 4.18 and **Table 4.19** indicate that all of this study's hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, and H5) are considered statistically significant with p-values of 0.05 or less (Byrne, 2016). **Figure 4.4** shows the supported relationships and hypotheses.

Table 4.18. SEM Regression Results

			Estimate	*S.E.*	*C.R.*	*P*	*Label*
PO	<---	WPI	-0.137	0.061	-2.245	0.025**	Supported
TI	<---	WPI	0.299	0.068	4.397	***	Supported
CWB	<---	WPI	0.652	0.077	8.509	***	Supported
OCB	<---	WPI	-0.343	0.067	-5.145	***	Supported
TI	<---	PO	-0.174	0.058	-3.016	0.003**	Supported
CWB	<---	PO	-0.165	0.063	-2.619	0.009**	Supported
OCB	<---	PO	0.258	0.057	4.511	***	Supported
OCB	<---	TI	-0.09	0.047	-1.913	0.056*	Supported
CWB	<---	TI	0.186	0.056	3.322	***	Supported

Note. OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; CWB=Counterproductive Work Behavior; PO=Psychological Ownership; TI=Turnover Intention; WPI= Workplace Incivility

***p <0.01
**p<0.05
*p<0.10

Table 4.19. Hypotheses and Results

Hypothesis	*Expected sign*	*Estimate with Actual sign*	*P-Value*	*Level of Support*
H1: *Psychological Ownership negatively mediates the positive relation of workplace incivility to turnover intention*	-	-0.137	0.025	Supported
H2: *Psychological Ownership negatively mediates the positive relation of workplace incivility to Counterproductive Work Behavior*	-	-0.165	0.009	Supported
H3: *Psychological Ownership positively mediates the negative relation of workplace incivility to Organizational Citizenship Behavior*	+	+0.258	0.001	Supported
H4: *Turnover intention positively mediates the negative relation of Psychological Ownership to Counterproductive Work Behavior*	+	+0.186	0.001	Supported
H5: *Turnover intention negatively mediates the positive relation of Psychological Ownership to Organizational Citizenship Behavior*	-	-0.09	0.056	Supported

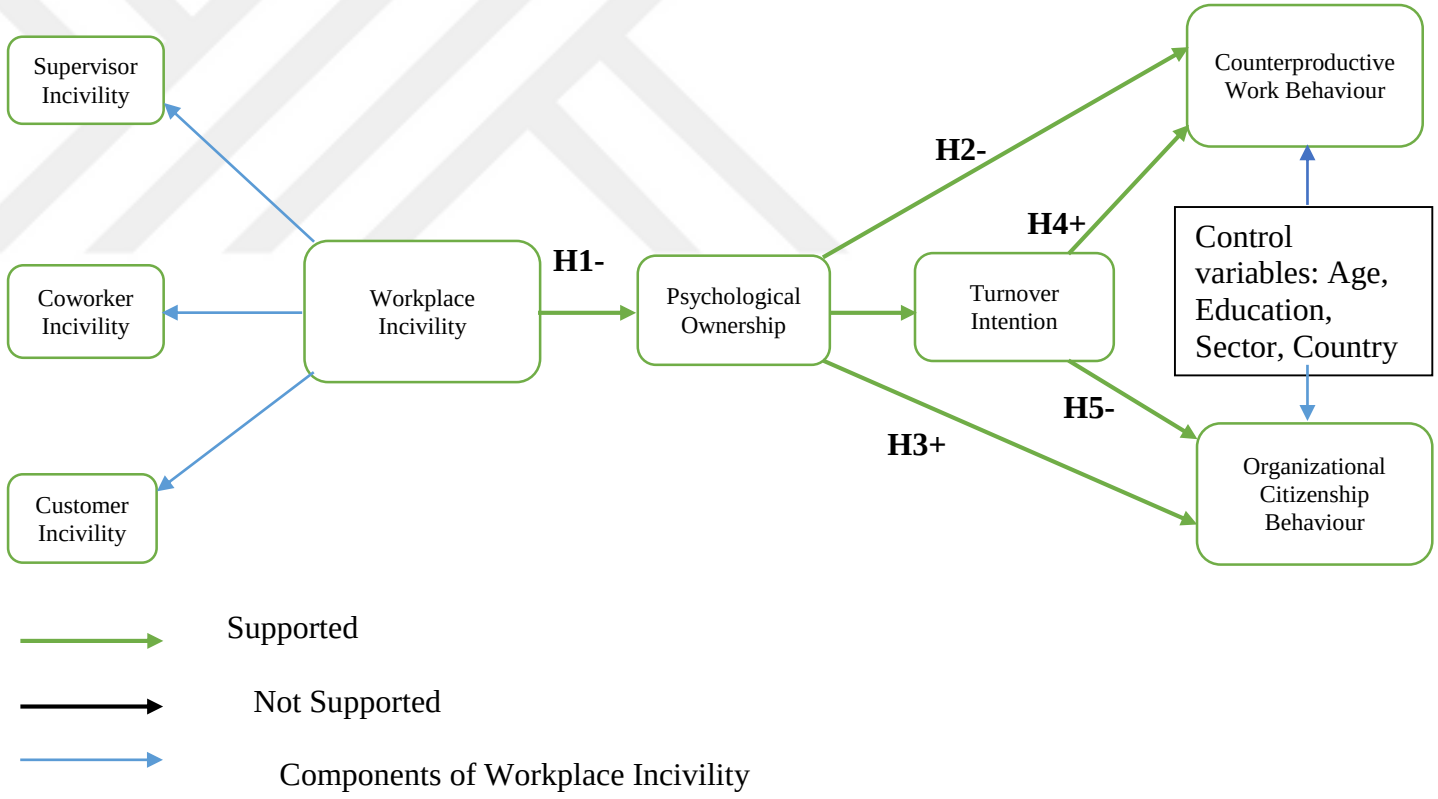


Figure 4.4. Hypothesis and Level of Support

4.7.3. SEM Path Regression Coefficient Results and Their Significance Using Control Variables

Variables that may be seen as potential influences on the analysis outcome can be controlled to mitigate their impact on the results obtained (Hair et al., 2014). This study controlled the impact of four variables (age, education, sector, and country) on the dependent variables (CWB and OCB). The results for these controlled variables are shown in **Table 4.20.** Model 1 represents the Base Model, which has no control variables, while Models 2 to 5 use control variables. Results under Model 2, which uses country as a control variable, indicate an insignificant relationship between TI and OCB, as well as TI and CWB. In Model 1, the relationships between TI and OCB and TI and CWB are statistically significant. However, when the effect of the country was controlled, these two relationships were insignificant. Model 3, which controlled for the sector's impact, indicates similar results to the Base Model. Controlling for age in Model 4 and education in Model 5 both yielded the same results. Controlling for the influence of country on the results yields the only significant difference between Model 1(without a control variable) and Model 2 (using country as a control variable).

Table 4.20. SEM Results Using Control Variables

Relationships			*Main Model (Model 1)*		*Model 2*		*Model 3*		*Model 4*		*Model 5*	
Variables			**Estimate**	**P**	**Estimate**	**P**	**Estimate**	**P**	**Estimate**	**P**	**Estimate**	**P**
PO	<-	WPI	-0.137	0.025**	-0.127	0.036**	-0.14	0.022**	-0.137	0.024**	-0.138	0.024**
TI	<-	PO	-0.174	0.003**	-0.175	0.003**	-0.175	0.003**	-0.174	0.003**	-0.174	0.003**
CWB	<-	PO	-0.165	0.009**	-0.096	0.026**	-0.151	0.007**	-0.174	0.005**	-0.153	0.011**
OCB	<-	PO	0.258	***	0.226	***	0.253	***	0.246	***	0.266	***
OCB	<-	TI	-0.090	0.056*	-0.049	0.287	-0.081	0.083*	-0.091	0.055*	-0.086	0.069*
CWB	<-	TI	0.186	***	0.026	0.475	0.102	0.032**	0.181	0.001**	0.177	0.001**

Note. *Model 1=no controlled variable; Model 2=country is controlled; Model 3=sector is controlled; Model 4= age is controlled; Model 5=education is controlled.*

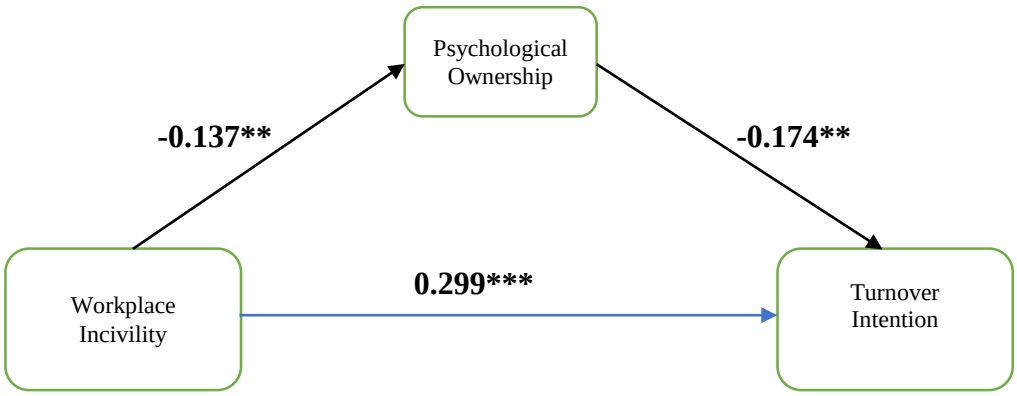
***p <0.01
**p<0.05
*p<0.10

4.8. Mediation Analysis Results

Determining the relationship between workplace incivility and employee performance meant using psychological ownership and turnover intention as mediating variables. The statistically significant hypotheses in all the existing relationships indicate a mediating role played by psychological ownership and turnover intention. These two mediators' roles are shown in **Table 4.21 and Figures 4.5** through **4.9**.

4.8.1. Mediation Results of Psychological Ownership

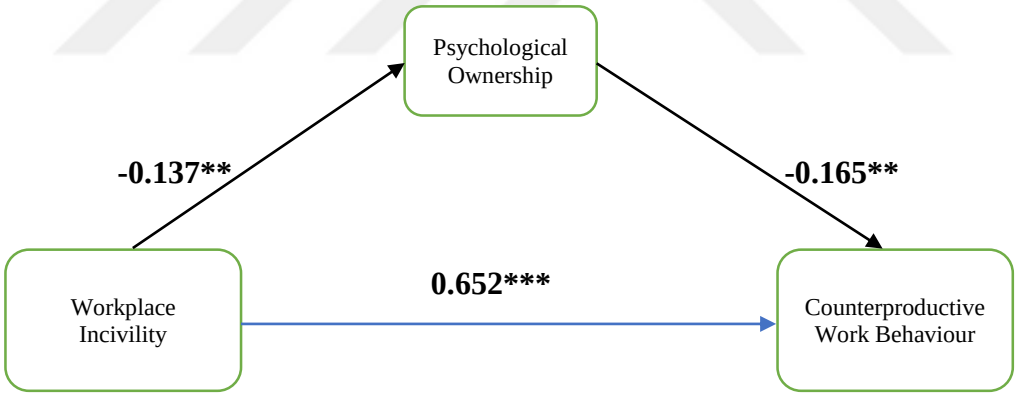
In the model, PO mediates between the independent variable (workplace incivility) and the dependent variables (TI, OCB, and CWB). The direct effect between WPI and TI is 0.299, WPI and CWB 0.652, and WPI and OCB is -0.343, which are all statistically significant at < 0.01. Using bootstrapping, the total indirect relationship between WPI to TI is 0.024 (sig= < 0.05), WPI to CWB is 0.023, at a significant level of less than 0.10, and WPI to OCB is -0.035 (sig= < 0.10), as shown in **Figures 4.5, 4.6, and 4.7**. Since the direct relationships (WPI to TI), (WPI to CWB), and (WPI to OCB) are all statistically significant and the indirect relationships between WPI to TI (p-value 0.046), WPI to CWB (p-value 0.061), and WPI to OCB (p-value 0.05) are also significant, this indicates the existence of a partial mediation in relationships between WPI to TI, WPI to CWB, and WPI to OCB through PO. Conclusively, PO is a mediating variable between WPI and TI, WPI and CWB, and WPI and OCB. PO serves as a complementary mediation between the relationships of WPI to TI, WPI to CWB, and WPI to OCB since the signs of direct and indirect relationships are the same.



1) Indirect Effect = **-0.137** x **-0,174** = **0.024****
2) Indirect Effect Using Bootstrapping p-value = **0.046****
3) Direct Effect = **0.299*****
4) Both Indirect paths (WPI to PO and PO to TI) are significant
5) There is **partial mediation** since both the direct and indirect effects are statistically significant
6) Since the signs of the direct and indirect effects are the same, we have a **complementary mediation**

*** p < 0.01
** p < 0.05

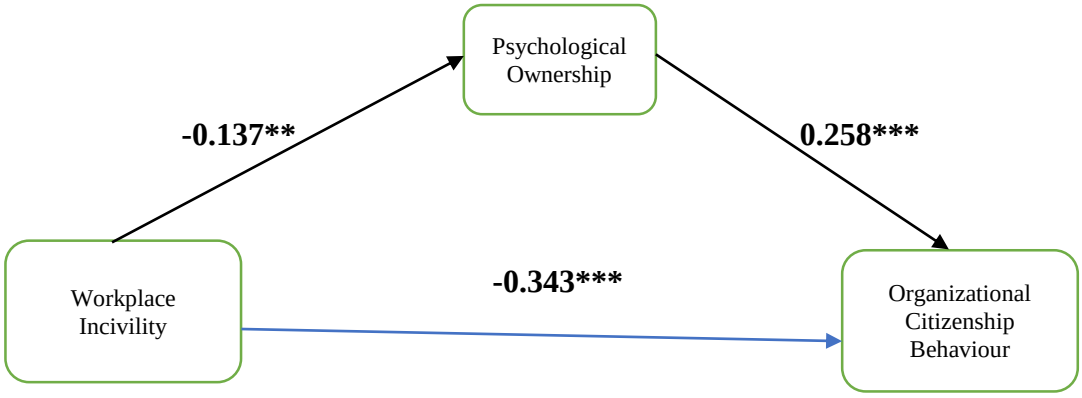
Figure 4.5. Relationships and Effects of Predictor (WPI) and Mediator (PO) on TI



1) Indirect Effect = **-0.137** x **-0.165** = **0.023***
2) Indirect Effect Using Bootstrapping p-value = **0.061***
3) Direct Effect = **0.652*****
4) Both Indirect paths (WPI to PO and PO to CWB) are significant
5) There is **partial mediation** since both the direct and indirect effects are statistically significant
6) Since the signs of the direct and indirect effects are the same, we have a **complementary mediation**

*** p < 0.01
** p < 0.05
* p < 0.10

Figure 4.6. Relationships and Effects of Predictor (WPI) and Mediator (PO) on CWB



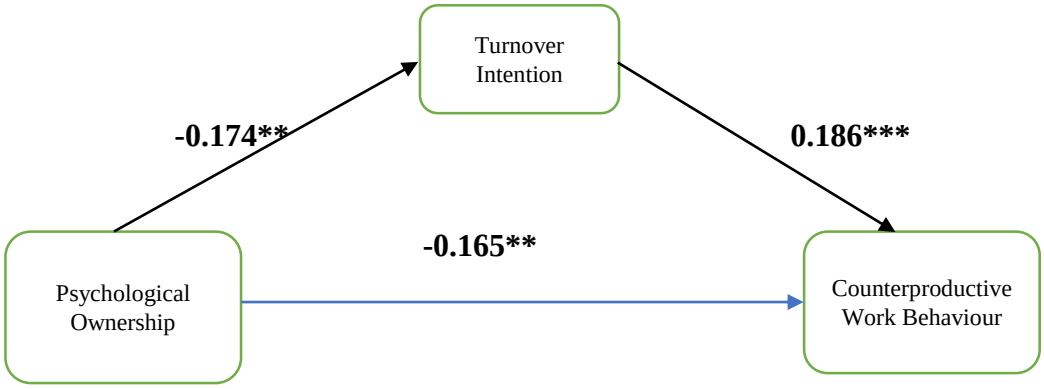
1) Indirect Effect = **-0.137** x **0.258** = **-0.035***
2) Indirect Effect Using Bootstrapping p-value **= 0.05***
3) Direct Effect = **-0.343*****
4) Both Indirect paths (WPI to PO and PO to OCB) are significant
5) There is **partial mediation** since both the direct and indirect effects are statistically significant
6) Since the signs of the direct and indirect effects are the same, we have a **complementary mediation**

*** p < 0.01
** p < 0.05
* p < 0.10

Figure 4.7. Relationships and Effects of Predictor (WPI) and Mediator (PO) on OCB

4.8.2. Mediation Results of Turnover Intention

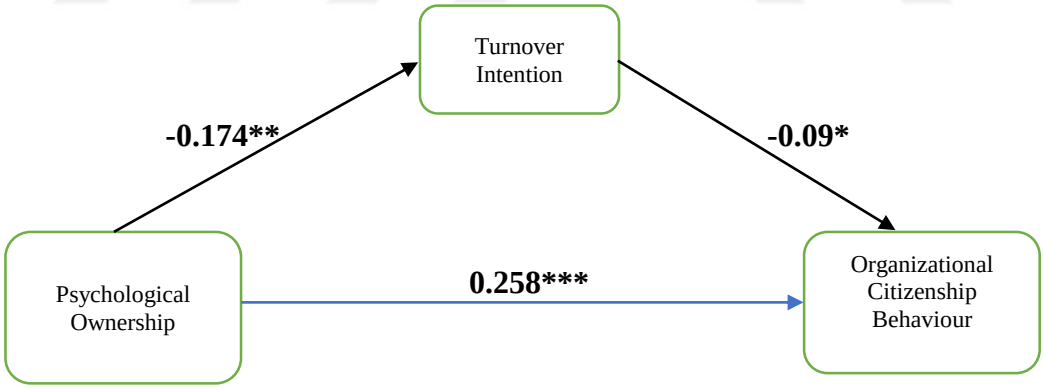
The turnover intention was also used as a mediator in the relationship between PO and the dependent variables of CWB and OCB. The direct effect between PO and CWB is -0.165, which is statistically significant at < 0.05. Using bootstrapping, the indirect effect of PO to CWB through TI is also significant, with an estimate of -0.032 and a p-value < 0.05 (see **Figure 4.8**). Since both PO's direct and indirect effects on CWB are significant, TI serves as a partial mediator. Additionally, the direct relationship between PO and OCB is 0.258, which is significant at less than 0.01. The indirect relationship using bootstrapping between PO and OCB through TI is also significant at less than 0.05, as shown in **Figure 4.9**. Since the direct relationship between PO and OCB are significant, and the indirect relationship through TI is also significant, this indicates the partial mediating role played by TI in this relationship. TI serves as a complementary mediator in the relationship between PO and CWB and between PO and OCB since the signs of direct and indirect relationships are the same.



1) Indirect Effect = **-0.174** x **0.186** = **-0.032****
2) Indirect Effect Using Bootstrapping p-value = **0.014****
3) Direct Effect = **-0.165****
4) Both Indirect paths (PO to TI and TI to CWB) are significant
5) There is **partial mediation** since both the direct and indirect effects are statistically significant
6) Since the signs of the direct and indirect effects are the same, we have a **complementary mediation**

*** p < 0.01
** p < 0.05

Figure 4.8. Relationships and Effects of Predictor (PO) and Mediator (TI) on CWB



1) Indirect Effect = **-0.174** x **-0.09** = **0.016****
2) Indirect Effect Using Bootstrapping p-value **= 0.046****
3) Direct Effect = **0.258*****
4) Both Indirect paths (PO to TI and TI to OCB) are significant
5) There is **partial mediation** since both the direct and indirect effects are statistically significant
6) Since the signs of the direct and indirect effects are the same, we have a **complementary mediation**

*** p < 0.01
** p < 0.05
* p < 0.10

Figure 4.9. Relationships and Effects of Predictor (PO) and Mediator (TI) on OCB

Table 4.21. Standardized Direct-Indirect Effects and Results

Path	**Total *Effect***	***Direct Effect***	***Indirect Effect***	***Indirect Effect Using Bootstrapping P-values***	***Result***
WPI -> PO -> TI	0.343	0.299***	0.024**	0.046**	Partial Mediation - Complementary Mediation
WPI -> PO -> CWB	0.657	0.652***	0.023*	0.061*	Partial Mediation - Complementary Mediation
WPI -> PO -> OCB	-0.372	-0.343***	-0.035*	0.05*	Partial Mediation - Complementary Mediation
PO -> TI -> CWB	-0.179	-0.165**	-0.032**	0.014**	Partial Mediation - Complementary Mediation
PO -> TI -> OCB	0.273	0.258***	0.016**	0.046**	Partial Mediation - Complementary Mediation

*** p < 0.01
** p < 0.05
* p < 0.10

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Workplace incivility (WPI) is a risk to organizational productivity around the globe. It is a phenomenon that is present across all institutions and all cultures. WPI often involves rude behavior towards a target, which may affect their cognitive behavior and work performance. And employees who face these negative behaviors are statistically more likely to reciprocate these behaviors, leading to counterproductive work behavior, knowledge hiding, and reducing general positive work behaviors. Due to these negative impacts, research on the subject area has gained momentum among scholars of organizational behavior studies. Negative behaviors that are connected to WPI include; low job satisfaction, turnover intention, psychological withdrawal, low organizational commitment, low creativity, and a general lack of motivation to perform organizational duties.

Most existing studies related to WPI concentrate on how this phenomenon impacts employee performance and organizational operations. These studies have mostly been conducted in developed and emerging economies (Vasconcelos, 2020). Less than 1% of the total research published on workplace incivility used developing countries as samples. Only one publication used Nigeria as a sample to study the outcomes of WPI (Abubakar et al., 2018a). WPI is a phenomenon that does not have geographical boundaries. Most studies that examine WPI mostly use private sector organizations and neglect the public sector. Research to better understand the phenomenon of WPI should not only concentrate on a single sector. Typically, scholars conducting research on WPI don't examine sources of incivility as separate entities but instead in an aggregate. This makes it difficult to determine which of the sources of incivility could have a higher impact on an employee's organizational behavior and job performance. One interesting point observed in the current literature is a lack of country-level comparison. No study has attempted to compare countries and examine possible similarities or differences that may exist along country lines.

This study, contributing to the literature on workplace incivility, has examined how this negative phenomenon impacts employee performance (i.e., CWB and OCB) in an organization. It used mediating variables (PO and TI) to study their possible impact on these direct relationships. This study is the first of its kind to make a country-level comparison of WPI and its impact on employee performance. Instead of using a single sector to examine the impact of WPI on employee performance, this research used both the public and private sector institutions from two countries, The Gambia and Ghana, as samples. This allowed me to look at country-level differences and investigate sector-level differences between these countries. Finally, instead of using WPI as a general factor, this research looked at the three main sources of WPI (supervisor-initiated, coworker-initiated, and customer-initiated) and how they separately contribute to WPI overall with a specific focus on employee performance.

This research sample was selected because the African continent is underrepresented in research related to WPI and because it allows comparing sectors within numerous African countries. The Gambia and Ghana are similar in many ways. These two countries share similar histories as they were both British colonies, thus leading them both to have official languages of English. The effects of British rule on these former colonies impacts everything from their current economic, educational, and institutional systems while simultaneously allowing vast differences in geographical topography, culture, and religion.

This study's results were analyzed using three main tools: an independent t-test, SEM analysis, and mediation analysis. To make a country comparison between The Gambia and Ghana, as well as a sector comparison between the public and private sectors, an independent sample t-test was used. This same test was also used to make a gender comparison to gauge varying responses to the questions asked.

The independent t-test results, based on country, indicated a significant difference in all the study variables. This means that the respondents from The Gambia and Ghana significantly differ in their understandings of the used variables. Based on the averages of SI, CWI, and CI, which are components of WPI, employees in Ghana face increased levels of incivility when compared to their Gambian counterparts. Due to the higher levels of WPI, they face in their institutions, these Ghanaian employees

are also more involved in CWB and have increased levels of TI. Employees in The Gambia who face a lower level of WPI and TI than their Ghanaian counterparts are also more involved in OCB and have an increased sense of PO. These results, in short, indicate an increased level of negative behaviors in Ghana when compared to The Gambia based on the responses obtained from the research sample. Conversely, there are higher levels of positive behaviors among employees in The Gambia. However, both positive and negative behaviors exist in both countries.

The sector-level independent t-test between the public and private sector organizations showed some notable differences. With regards to the levels of WPI in the form of SI, CWI, and CI in both public and private sector institutions, there are no statistically significant differences, but looking at the averages, there is a slight difference, which indicates a higher level of SI, CWI, and CI among employees from the private sector compared to the public sector. The averages of WPI indicate a moderate existence of WPI in both sectors. Regarding positive behavior and feelings in the forms of OCB and PO, respectively, the public sector has higher levels of OCB and PO. Due to the slightly higher levels of negative behavior in the form of SI, CWI, and CI among employees from the private sector, their TI is also higher.

Independent t-test results based on gender indicate a significant difference between males and females concerning their responses on OCB, CWB, SI, CWI, CI, and PO and an insignificant difference in terms of TI. Compared to their male counterparts, females experience higher levels of incivility in the form of SI, CWI, and CI at the workplace. Compared to female respondents, males are more involved in positive behaviors in the form of OCB and positive feelings in the form of PO. This result which indicates a higher level of experienced WPI among females compared to males is similar to Cortina et al. (2001; 2002), who indicated a greater frequency of experiences incivility among women when compared to men.

SEM and mediation analyses were conducted to test the research hypotheses and the relationships among variables. WPI, according to the SEM results, has a negative relationship with PO. When WPI increases, the sense of organizational ownership among employees decreases. However, when the level of PO is high among employees, their level of CWB and TI decreases, but their level of OCB increases.

The results are similar to research that indicate a positive relationship between PO and OCB (Pierce et al., 2004; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Avey et al., 2009; Pierce & Jussila, 2010; Zhang et al., 2021) as well as a negative relationship between PO and TI (Olckers & Enslin, 2016; Giordano et al., 2019). TI contributes to high levels of CWB and low levels of OCB. A high sense of ownership leads to an increase in positive behavior and a decrease in negative behavior.

The hypotheses of this study investigated the relationship of WPI to employee performance (CWB and OCB) through the mediating role of PO and TI. Research has indicated the existence of a relationship between WPI and employee performance in the form of CWB and OCB. Some scholars have postulated that WPI is positively related to CWB (Alyahya et al., 2021; Zhu & Zhang, 2021; Sowe & Arslan, 2023), while others negatively relate WPI to OCB (Porath & Erez, 2009; Taylor et al., 2012; Mackey et al., 2019). Since the direct relationships between WPI to employee performance, in the form of CWB and OCB, were well established in the literature, this study continued examining these relationships through positive (PO) and negative (TI) mediating variables.

The mediation results of this study indicate a partial mediation effect between WPI to CWB, OCB, and TI through PO. PO negatively mediated the positive relationship between WPI to TI such that TI levels of employees reduce hence the significance of Hypothesis 1. The positively significant relationship that exists between WPI and CWB was negatively mediated by PO. This indicates that even when an employee experiences WPI, when their PO levels are high, then their CWB reduces. This indicates that Hypothesis 2 is statistically significant. There is a negatively significant relationship between WPI and OCB. Even if an employee experiences WPI, when their sense of PO is high, their level of OCB is also high; therefore, Hypothesis 3 is accepted.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 looked at the relationships between PO and employee performance, specifically CWB and OCB, through the mediating role of TI. Results indicated a mediating role played by TI in these relationships. According to Hypothesis 4, TI positively mediates the negative relationship between PO to CWB. The relationship between PO and CWB is negative; however, with the use of TI as a

mediator, this relationship became positive. This means that even though an employee may have a high level of PO if they also have a higher level of TI, then they may exhibit some form of CWB. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is accepted. Hypothesis 5 looked at the relationship between PO and OCB through TI. The mediating results indicate that the positive relationship between PO and OCB is negatively mediated by TI. This means that even though employees with high PO perform OCB, their level of OCB decreases when their TI increases, allowing acceptance of Hypothesis 5.

5.1. Study Implications

Businesses and service-providing institutions working in diverse cultural backgrounds are generally confronted with the global phenomenon of workplace incivility that often leads to negative financial impacts. Institutions that employ people from various backgrounds should encourage a working environment that promotes civility. Proactive policies can help create a motivated workforce with positive organizational behaviors such as loyalty, commitment, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. WPI creates negative, detrimental behaviors, and The Gambia and Ghana are no exceptions. There is a need to spend more time and resources in creating an enabling environment and policy that preaches respect for the plight of others as well as preaching against unethical or negative behaviors. This process should be led by heads of institutions who are willing to create an environment that enables employees to work in peace and harmony. Additionally, employees should be trained on the importance of working in an environment free from negative behaviors and the advantages of working in an environment that operates with common workplace ethics around peaceful coexistence.

Studies on WPI, to a large extent, have concentrated on samples from developed countries, leaving the developing countries underrepresented. This study contributes to the literature by making a cross-country analysis allowing future scholars to review the results of the two countries. This study does not only stop at comparing countries, but it also compares public and private sectors. The results have implications for the management of institutions as it indicates that employees who experience negative behavior also have lower productivity levels.

These results may encourage organizational leadership to create environments that encourage civility and promote positive behavior, enhancing a diverse and dynamic workforce. This study implies that WPI has a statistically significant impact on an employee's performance, which policymakers, managers, and researchers can use as a reference to comprehend the context of WPI and its impact on employee performance. The vital implication of this research is its contribution to the literature on WPI by advancing the understanding of the phenomenon from both a country- and sector-level comparison.

5.2. Theoretical Contribution

The results of this study built on existing shreds of evidence that indicate a positively significant relationship between WPI and CWB and a negatively significant relationship between WPI and OCB using social exchange theory. SET indicates a relationship between two people that involve cost and benefit with an element of reciprocity. This, in essence, may indicate that employees with experienced WPI reciprocate in the form of CWB and reduced OCB levels. These theoretical underpinnings are in line with the results obtained by this study. This research didn't only look at the direct relationships between WPI and employee performance, but it also used a positive mediator (PO) to see if the results would differ from that of previous publications. According to the SET's principle of reciprocity, when an individual is treated positively, they are expected to return the favor, and the same could be argued in cases where the person is treated negatively to also reciprocate with negative behaviors. This study used PO to mediate the relationship between WPI and employee performance. Normally with previous results in the literature, employees with higher levels of experienced WPI reciprocate in the form of CWB. However, with the use of psychological ownership as a mediator, employee CWB reduces. This, in short, means that even though an employee may experience WPI when their level of PO is high, it helps in reducing their possible involvement in CWB. Adding PO as a mediator has altered the understanding of SET in examining the relationship between WPI to CWB, and OCB. Instead of the negative behavior in the form of WPI being reciprocated through CWB, the mediation of PO has reduced the levels of possible CWB and increased the levels of OCB.

Another theory used in this study is the theory of reasoned action (TRA) which postulates that peoples' behaviors are a function of their intention which is contingent on their attitudes and subjective norms. This theory explains the relationship between WPI and employee performance through the mediating role of TI. TRA is used in the literature to predict CWB and OCB. This study used TRA to examine the relationship between PO and employee performance (CWB and OCB) through the mediating role of TI. Employees with higher levels of PO are logically expected to have higher levels of OCB and lower levels of CWB when the TRA is used as a premise. However, this logic has changed with the use of TI as a mediating variable. Even though employees with higher levels of PO are logically expected to have higher levels of OCB, with TI as a mediator, their levels of OCB have dropped, and their levels of CWB which is normally supposed to drop, have increased.

This study, with regards to its theoretical contribution, has helped our understanding of some related constructs that are not well covered in the literature relating WPI and employee performance in both the public and private sector institution from The Gambia and Ghana. Key among the theoretical contributions of this study is helping to better comprehend the relationship between WPI and employee performance through PO and TI. The findings of this research indicate that the relationship between WPI and employee performance is not straightforward since various variables can mediate the relationship. The study also contributes to the understanding of WPI and its relationship with employee performance by exploring the factors that can help better comprehend this link. Using PO and TI as mediating variables in the relationship between WPI and employee performance expands our understanding of the subject matter from previous studies. Most importantly, using public and private sector institutions from The Gambia and Ghana as a sample helps demonstrate the different perspectives of WPI and Employee performance from different cultural settings.

5.3. Study Limitations and Guide for Future Research

Africa is a continent of fifty-four countries, but this study could only cover two countries due to minimal time and resources. There is a need for more studies comparing countries and sectors. This could involve looking at how cultural

differences impact the performance of employees who experience WPI. Future research should continue to look at the three sources (supervisor-initiated, coworker-initiated, and customer-initiated) of workplace incivility separately and how they impact employee performance. This will allow researchers to understand which WPI source has a graver impact on employee performance.

REFERENCES

Abdalla M. J., Said, H., Ali, L., Ali, F., & Chen, X. (2021). COVID-19 and unpaid leave: Impacts of psychological contract breach on organizational distrust and turnover intention: Mediating role of emotional exhaustion. *Tourism management perspectives*, *39*, 100854.

Abid, G., Khan, B., Rafiq, Z., & Ahmed, A. (2015). Workplace incivility: Uncivil activities, antecedents, consequences, and level of incivility. *Science International*, *27*(6), 6307-6312.

Abolfazl Vagharseyyedin, S. (2015). Workplace incivility: A concept analysis. *Contemporary Nurse*, *50*(1), 115-125.

Abubakar, A. M., Megeirhi, H. A., & Shneikat, B. (2018a). Tolerance for workplace incivility, employee cynicism, and job search behavior. *The Service Industries Journal*, *38*(9-10), 629-643.

Abubakar, A. M., Yazdian, T. F., & Behravesh, E. (2018b). A riposte to ostracism and tolerance to workplace incivility: a generational perspective. *Personnel Review*, 47(2), 441-457

Acock, A. C. (2005). Working with missing values. *Journal of Marriage and family*, *67*(4), 1012-1028.

Adams, G. A., & Webster, J. R. (2013). Emotional regulation as a mediator between interpersonal mistreatment and distress. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *22*(6), 697-710.

Ahmad, M. S. (2011). Work ethics: an Islamic prospective. *Journal of Human Sciences*, *8*(1), 850-859.

Ainsworth, J. (2020). Feelings of ownership and volunteering: Examining psychological ownership as a volunteering motivation for nonprofit service organisations. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *52*, 101931.

Ajzen, I. (2012). Martin Fishbein's legacy: The reasoned action approach. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *640*(1), 11-27.

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin*, *84*(5), 888-918.

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ajzen, I., & Madden, T. J. (1986). Prediction of goal-directed behavior: Attitudes, intentions, and perceived behavioral control. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, *22*(5), 453-474.

Akella, D., & Eid, N. (2021). An institutional perspective on workplace incivility: case studies from academia. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, *16*(1), 54-75.

Akella, D., & Lewis, V. J. (2019). The Modern Face of Workplace Incivility. *Organization Management Journal*, *16*(2), 55-60.

Alhashmi, M., Jabeen, F., Al-Nasser, A. D., & Papastathopoulos, A. (2017). The Antecedents of Employee Turnover Intentions in The Police Force in The United Arab Emirates: A Conceptual Framework. *International Journal of Business & Society*, *18*(3), 449-462.

Alias, M., Ojo, A. O., & Ameruddin, N. F. L. (2022). Workplace incivility: the impact on the Malaysian public service department. *European Journal of Training and Development*, *46*(3/4), 356-372.

Alyahya, M. A., Elshaer, I. A., & Sobaih, A. E. E. (2021). The Impact of Job Insecurity and Distributive Injustice Post COVID-19 on Social Loafing Behavior among Hotel Workers: Mediating Role of Turnover Intention. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*(1), 411-424.

Alyahya, M. A., Elshaer, I. A., & Sobaih, A. E. E. (2021). The Impact of Job Insecurity and Distributive Injustice Post COVID-19 on Social Loafing Behavior among Hotel Workers: Mediating Role of Turnover Intention. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*(1), 411-424.

Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of management review*, *24*(3), 452-471.

Arasli, H., Hejraty Namin, B., & Abubakar, A. M. (2018). Workplace incivility as a moderator of the relationships between polychronicity and job outcomes. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *30*(3), 1245-1272.

Arslan, M. (2001). The work ethic values of protestant British, Catholic Irish and Muslim Turkish managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *31*(4), 321-339.

Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Crossley, C. D., & Luthans, F. (2009). Psychological ownership: Theoretical extensions, measurement and relation to work outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *30*(2), 173-191.

Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Palanski, M. E. (2012). Exploring the process of ethical leadership: The mediating role of employee voice and psychological ownership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *107*(1), 21-34.

Baer, M., & Brown, G. (2012). Blind in one eye: How psychological ownership of ideas affects the types of suggestions people adopt. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *118*(1), 60-71.

Bagozzi, R. P., Baumgartner, H., & Yi, Y. (1992). State versus action orientation and the theory of reasoned action: An application to coupon usage. *Journal of consumer research*, *18*(4), 505-518.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological review*, *84*(2), 191-215.

Baruch, Y. (1999). Response rate in academic studies-A comparative analysis. *Human relations*, *52*(4), 421-438.

Bashir, M., Shabbir, R., Saleem, S., Abrar, M., Saqib, S., & Gill, S. H. (2020). Job-Related and Nonjob-Related Gossips Among Low-Ranked Employees in Unionized Service Organization. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*(994) 1-12.

Becker, T. E., Randall, D. M., & Riegel, C. D. (1995). The multidimensional view of commitment and the theory of reasoned action: A comparative evaluation. *Journal of Management*, *21*(4), 617-638.

Belete, A. K. (2018). Turnover intention influencing factors of employees: an empirical work review. *Journal of Entrepreneurship & Organization Management*, *7*(3), 1-7.

Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the extended self. *Journal of consumer research*, *15*(2), 139-168.

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological bulletin*, *107*(2), 238-246.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological bulletin*, *88*(3), 588-606.

Berger, J., Cohen, B. P., & Zelditch Jr, M. (1972). Status characteristics and social interaction. *American Sociological Review*, 37(3), 241-255.

Bernhard, F., & Jaskiewicz, P. (2011). Ownership perceptions in family businesses: psychological difficulties of the retiring owner-manager. *Doing succession in Europe: Generational transfers in family businesses in comparative perspective*, 189-216.

Bernhard, F., & O'Driscoll, M. P. (2011). Psychological ownership in small family-owned businesses: Leadership style and nonfamily-employees' work attitudes and behaviors. *Group & Organization Management*, *36*(3), 345-384.

Bertelli, A. M. (2007). Determinants of bureaucratic turnover intention: Evidence from the Department of the Treasury. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, *17*(2), 235-258.

Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2009). Testing and extending the group engagement model: linkages between social identity, procedural justice, economic outcomes, and extrarole behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, *94*(2), 445-464.

Blau, G., & Andersson, L. (2005). Testing a measure of instigated workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *78*(4), 595-614.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. John Wiley & Sons.

Blau, P. M. (1986). *Exchange and power in social life*. Routledge.

Blau, P. M. (2017). *Exchange and power in social life*. Routledge.

Bolino, M. C., Klotz, A. C., Turnley, W. H., & Harvey, J. (2013). Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *34*(4), 542-559.

Bothma, C. F., & Roodt, G. (2013). The validation of the turnover intention scale. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(1), 1-12.

Boyle, D. K., Bott, M. J., Hansen, H. E., Woods, C. Q., & Taunton, R. L. (1999). Manager's leadership and critical care nurses' intent to stay. *American Journal of Critical Care*, *8*(6), 361-371.

Brown, G., Crossley, C., & Robinson, S. L. (2014a). Psychological ownership, territorial behavior, and being perceived as a team contributor: The critical role of trust in the work environment. *Personnel psychology*, *67*(2), 463-485.

Brown, G., Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. (2005). Territoriality in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *30*(3), 577-594.

Brown, G., Pierce, J. L., & Crossley, C. (2014b). Toward an understanding of the development of ownership feelings. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(3), 318-338.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative Ways of Assessing Model Fit: in KA Bollen and JS Long (Eds.), Testing structural equation models (pp. 445-455).

Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1991). An identity theory approach to commitment. *Social psychology quarterly*, *54*(3), 239-251.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). Structural equation modeling with AMOS, EQS, and LISREL: Comparative approaches to testing for the factorial validity of a measuring instrument. *International journal of testing*, *1*(1), 55-86.

Byrne, B. M. (2016). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts. *Applications, and programming, (3rd ed.)*. Routledge.

Cha, C., & Sung, C. (2020). Factors related to nursing performance in South Korean intensive care units. *International Journal of Nursing Practice*, 26(6), e12874

Chai, D. S., Song, J. H., & You, Y. M. (2020). Psychological ownership and openness to change: The mediating effects of work engagement, and knowledge creation. *Performance improvement quarterly*, *33*(3), 305-326.

Chang, W. J. A., Wang, Y. S., & Huang, T. C. (2013). Work design–related antecedents of turnover intention: A multilevel approach. *Human Resource Management*, *52*(1), 1-26.

Change, S., Witteloostuijn, A. V., & Eden, L. (2010). From the editors: Common method variance in international research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *41*(2), 178-184.

Charoensukmongkol, P. (2021). How Chinese expatriates' cultural intelligence promotes supervisor-subordinate guanxi with Thai employees: the mediating effect of expatriates' benevolence. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, *21*(1), 9-30.

Chatterjee, S., & Shukla, A. (2018). Employees' support perceptions as antecedent to psychological ownership: A study of Indian IT professionals. *IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *17*(1), 7-23.

Chen, Y., Wang, Z., Peng, Y., Geimer, J., Sharp, O., & Jex, S. (2019). The multidimensionality of workplace incivility: Cross-cultural evidence. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *26*(4), 356-366

Cheng, B., Zhou, X., & Guo, G. (2019). Family-to-work spillover effects of family incivility on employee sabotage in the service industry. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 30(2), 270-287.

Cheng, Z., Liu, W., Zhou, K., Che, Y., & Han, Y. (2021). Promoting employees' pro-environmental behavior through empowering leadership: The roles of psychological ownership, empowerment role identity, and environmental self-identity. *Business Ethics, the Environment & Responsibility*, *30*(4), 604-618.

Chi, N. W., & Han, T. S. (2008). Exploring the linkages between formal ownership and psychological ownership for the organization: The mediating role of organizational justice. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *81*(4), 691-711.

Cho, H. (2021). The Impacts of Leisure Nostalgia on Well-Being and Turnover Intention: The Mediating Roles of Leisure Satisfaction and Work Commitment. *Leisure Sciences*, 1-21.

Cho, M., Bonn, M. A., Han, S. J., & Lee, K. H. (2016). Workplace incivility and its effect upon restaurant frontline service employee emotions and service performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(12), 1-44.

Cho, Y. J., & Lewis, G. B. (2012). Turnover intention and turnover behavior: Implications for retaining federal employees. *Review of public personnel administration*, *32*(1), 4-23.

Chong, V. K., & Monroe, G. S. (2015). The impact of the antecedents and consequences of job burnout on junior accountants' turnover intentions: a structural equation modelling approach. *Accounting & Finance*, *55*(1), 105-132.

Churchill Jr, G. A., Ford, N. M., Hartley, S. W., & Walker Jr, O. C. (1985). The determinants of salesperson performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of marketing research*, *22*(2), 103-118.

Cocieru, O. C., Delia, E. B., & Katz, M. (2019a). It's our club! From supporter psychological ownership to supporter formal ownership. *Sport Management Review*, *22*(3), 322-334.

Cocieru, O. C., Lyle, M. C., Hindman, L. C., & McDonald, M. A. (2019b). The 'dark side'of psychological ownership during times of change. *Journal of Change Management*, *19*(4), 266-282.

Cortina, L. M. (2008). Unseen injustice: Incivility as modern discrimination in organizations. *Academy of management review*, *33*(1), 55-75.

Cortina, L. M., Lonsway, K. A., Magley, V. J., Freeman, L. V., Collinsworth, L. L., Hunter, M., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (2002). What's gender got to do with it? Incivility in the federal courts. *Law & Social Inquiry*, *27*(2), 235-270.

Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2009). Patterns and profiles of response to incivility in the workplace. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *14*(3), 272.

Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E. A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V. J. (2013). Selective incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of management*, *39*(6), 1579-1605.

Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Magley, V. J., & Nelson, K. (2017). Researching rudeness: The past, present, and future of the science of incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *22*(3), 299-313.

Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *6*(1), 64-80.

Cortina, L. M., Rabelo, V. C., & Holland, K. J. (2018). Beyond blaming the victim: Toward a more progressive understanding of workplace mistreatment. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *11*(1), 81-100.

Coyne, I., & Ong, T. (2007). Organizational citizenship behaviour and turnover intention: A cross-cultural study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(6), 1085-1097.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, *31*(6), 874-900.

Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of management annals*, *11*(1), 479-516.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage.

Dasgupta, P. (2015). Turnover intentions among nurses in private hospitals: Antecedents and mediators. *Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management*, *4*(3), 1-15.

Dawkins, S., Tian, A. W., Newman, A., & Martin, A. (2017). Psychological ownership: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*(2), 163-183.

De Clercq, D., Haq, I. U., Azeem, M. U., & Ahmad, H. N. (2019). The relationship between workplace incivility and helping behavior: roles of job dissatisfaction and political skill. *The Journal of psychology*, *153*(5), 507-527.

De Clercq, D., Haq, I.U. & Azeem, M.U. (2018). Self-efficacy to spur job performance: roles of job- related anxiety and perceived workplace incivility. Management Decision, 56(4), 891-907.

Dekeyser, R. (2012). Scientific research and information in developing countries: Necessity, threats and opportunities. *Accessed from: https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/b962/61e71e186bc933235a65f2c38b73349981db.pdf. Accessed date*, November *26*, 2019.

Demsky, C. A., Fritz, C., Hammer, L. B., & Black, A. E. (2019). Workplace incivility and employee sleep: The role of rumination and recovery experiences. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *24*(2), 228-240.

Duermeijer, C., Amir, M. & Schoombee, L. (2018). Africa generates less than 1% of the world's research; data analytics can change that. Elsevier Connect. *Accessed from: https://www.elsevier.com/connect/africa-generates-less-than-1-of-the-worlds-research-data-analytics-can-change-that. Accessed date, March 6, 2022.*

Edney, J. J. (1976). Comment on functional properties. *Environment and behavior*, *8*(1), 31-47.

Eichhorn, B. R. (2014). Common method variance techniques. *Cleveland State University, Department of Operations & Supply Chain Management. Cleveland, OH: SAS Institute Inc*, *1*(11).

Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2, 335-362.

English, T., John, O. P., Srivastava, S., & Gross, J. J. (2012). Emotion regulation and peer-rated social functioning: A 4-year longitudinal study. *Journal of research in personality*, *46*(6), 780-784.

Estes, B., & Wang, J. (2008). Workplace incivility: Impacts on individual and organizational performance. *Human Resource Development Review, 7(2),* 218-240.

Fage, J.D. (N.D) Ghana. *Britannica. Accessed from: https://www.britannica.com/place/Ghana. Accessed date, March 6, 2022.*

Fakunmoju, S., Woodruff, K., Kim, H. H., LeFevre, A., & Hong, M. (2010). Intention to leave a job: The role of individual factors, job tension, and supervisory support. *Administration in Social Work*, *34*(4), 313-328.

Fan, X., Thompson, B., & Wang, L. (1999). Effects of sample size, estimation methods, and model specification on structural equation modeling fit indexes. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, *6*(1), 56-83.

Fatt, C. K., Khin, E. W. S., & Heng, T. N. (2010). The impact of organizational justice on employee's job satisfaction: The Malaysian companies perspectives. *American Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, *2*(1), 56-63.

Ferguson, M. (2012). You cannot leave it at the office: Spillover and crossover of coworker incivility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(4), 571-588.

Fishbein, M. (2008). A reasoned action approach to health promotion. *Medical Decision Making*, *28*(6), 834-844.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2010). *Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach*. New York: Psychology Press.

Flynn, F. J. (2005). Identity orientations and forms of social exchange in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *30*(4), 737-750.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research*, *18*(1), 39-50.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 59(3), 291-309.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., Goh, A., Bruursema, K., & Kessler, S. R. (2012). The deviant citizen: Measuring potential positive relations between counterproductive work behaviour and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *85*(1), 199-220.

Freund, A. (2005). Commitment and job satisfaction as predictors of turnover intentions among welfare workers. *Administration in social work*, *29*(2), 5-21.

Fritze, M. P., Marchand, A., Eisingerich, A. B., & Benkenstein, M. (2020). Access-based services as substitutes for material possessions: the role of psychological ownership. *Journal of Service Research*, *23*(3), 368-385.

Furby, L. (1991). Understanding the psychology of possession and ownership: A personal memoir and an appraisal of our progress. *Journal of social behavior and personality*, *6*(6), 457-463.

Gabriel, A. S., Butts, M. M., Yuan, Z., Rosen, R. L., & Sliter, M. T. (2018). Further understanding incivility in the workplace: The effects of gender, agency, and communion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *103*(4), 362.

Gailey, H.A. (N.D) The Gambia. *Accessed from: https://www.britannica.com/place/The-Gambia. Accessed date, March 6, 2022.*

Gedro, J., & Wang, J. (2013). Creating civil and respectful organizations through the scholar-practitioner bridge. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *15*(3), 284-295.

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2022). *IBM SPSS statistics 27 step by step: A simple guide and reference*. Routledge.

Ghosh, R., Reio Jr, T. G., & Bang, H. (2013). Reducing turnover intent: Supervisor and co-worker incivility and socialization-related learning. *Human Resource Development International*, *16*(2), 169-185.

Gill, H., Cassidy, S. A., Cragg, C., Algate, P., Weijs, C. A., & Finegan, J. E. (2019). Beyond reciprocity: the role of empowerment in understanding felt trust. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *28*(6), 845-858.

Giordano, A. P., Patient, D., Passos, A. M., & Sguera, F. (2020). Antecedents and consequences of collective psychological ownership: The validation of a conceptual model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *41*(1), 32-49.

Gonthier, G., & Morrissey, K. (2002). *Rude awakenings: Overcoming civility crisis in the workplace*. Dearborn Trade Publishing.

Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (N.D.) About Greater Accra Region. *Accessed from: http://www.gtarcc.gov.gh/index.php/about-gar/. Accessed date, March 3, 2022.*

Griffin, B. (2010). Multilevel relationships between organizational-level incivility, justice and intention to stay. *Work & Stress*, *24*(4), 309-323.

Guzeller, C. O., & Celiker, N. (2019). Examining the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention via a meta-analysis. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 14(1),102-120.

Haar, J. M., Roche, M., & Taylor, D. (2012). Work-family conflict and turnover intentions of indigenous employees: the importance of the whanau/family for Maori. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*(12), 2546-2560.

Hair, J. F., Page, M., & Brunsveld, N. (2020). *Essentials of business research methods*. Routledge.

Hair, J., Black, W.C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R.E. (2014). Multivariate Data Analysis (7th ed). NJ: Prentice-Hall Publication.

Han, S., Harold, C. M., Oh, I. S., Kim, J. K., & Agolli, A. (2022). A meta-analysis integrating 20 years of workplace incivility research: Antecedents, consequences, and boundary conditions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *43*(3), 497-523.

Han, T. S., Chiang, H. H., & Chang, A. (2008, August). Employee participation, psychological ownership, and knowledge sharing: mediating role of organizational commitment. In *Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, August* (pp. 8-13).

Han, T. S., Chiang, H. H., & Chang, A. (2010). Employee participation in decision making, psychological ownership and knowledge sharing: mediating role of organizational commitment in Taiwanese high-tech organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(12), 2218–2233.

Han, T. S., Chiang, H. H., McConville, D., & Chiang, C. L. (2015). A longitudinal investigation of person–organization fit, person–job fit, and contextual performance: The mediating role of psychological ownership. *Human Performance*, *28*(5), 425-439.

Harman, H. H. (1976). *Modern factor analysis*(3rd ed.). University of Chicago press.

Harold, C. M., & Holtz, B. C. (2015). The effects of passive leadership on workplace incivility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *36*(1), 16-38.

He, Y., Walker, J. M., Payne, S. C., & Miner, K. N. (2021). Explaining the negative impact of workplace incivility on work and non-work outcomes: The roles of negative rumination and organizational support. *Stress and Health*, *37*(2), 297-309.

Hershcovis, M. S. (2011). “Incivility, social undermining, bullying… oh my!”: A call to reconcile constructs within workplace aggression research. *Journal of organizational behavior*, *32*(3), 499-519.

Hershcovis, M. S., & Barling, J. (2010). Towards a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression: A meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(1), 24-44.

Hershcovis, M. S., Ogunfowora, B., Reich, T. C., & Christie, A. M. (2017). Targeted workplace incivility: The roles of belongingness, embarrassment, and power. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*(7), 1057-1075.

Holm, K., Torkelson, E., & Bäckström, M. (2019). Exploring links between witnessed and instigated workplace incivility. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, *12*(3), 160-175.

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American journal of sociology*, *63*(6), 597-606.

Hou, R., & Zhang, C. (2021). Reducing social loafing in online brand communities: Insights from social exchange theory. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *49*(5), 1-10.

Houkes, I., Janssen, P. P., de Jonge, J., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Specific determinants of intrinsic work motivation, emotional exhaustion and turnover intention: A multisample longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and organizational Psychology*, *76*(4), 427-450.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage publications.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological methods*, *3*(4), 424-453.

Hui, C., Wong, A., & Tjosvold, D. (2007). Turnover intention and performance in China: The role of positive affectivity, Chinese values, perceived organizational support and constructive controversy. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *80*(4), 735-751.

Hülsheger, U. R., van Gils, S., & Walkowiak, A. (2021). The regulating role of mindfulness in enacted workplace incivility: An experience sampling study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*(8), 1250-1267.

Hur, W. M., Moon, T. W., & Han, S. J. (2015). The effect of customer incivility on service employees’ customer orientation through double-mediation of surface acting and emotional exhaustion. *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*, *25*(4), 394-413.

Hur, W. M., Moon, T., & Jun, J. K. (2016). The effect of workplace incivility on service employee creativity: the mediating role of emotional exhaustion and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 30(12), 302-315.

Ilies, R., Guo, C. Y., Lim, S., Yam, K. C., & Li, X. (2020). Happy but uncivil? Examining when and why positive affect leads to incivility. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *165*, 595-614.

Irum, A., Ghosh, K., & Pandey, A. (2020). Workplace incivility and knowledge hiding: a research agenda. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 27(3), 958-980.

Itzkovich, Y. (2016). The impact of employees' status on incivility, deviant behaviour and job insecurity. *EuroMed Journal of Business*, 11(2), 304-318.

Iverson, R. D., & Roy, P. (1994). A causal model of behavioral commitment: Evidence from a study of Australian blue-collar employees. *Journal of management*, *20*(1), 15-41.

Jackson, T. (2004). *Management and change in Africa* (pp. 1-48). London: Routledge.

Jaiteh, M.S. (2008) Greater Banjul Area. *The Atlas of The Gambia. Accessed from: http://www.columbia.edu/~msj42/GreaterBanjulArea.htm. Accessed date, March 6, 2022.*

Jami, A., Kouchaki, M., & Gino, F. (2021). I own, so I help out: How psychological ownership increases prosocial behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *47*(5), 698-715.

Jawahar, I. M., & Schreurs, B. (2018). Supervisor incivility and how it affects subordinates' performance: a matter of trust. *Personnel Review*, *47*(3), 709-726.

Jensen, J. M., Cole, M. S., & Rubin, R. S. (2019). Predicting retail shrink from performance pressure, ethical leader behavior, and store-level incivility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(6), 723-739.

Jiang, M., Wang, H., & Li, M. (2019). Linking empowering leadership and organizational citizenship behavior toward environment: The role of psychological ownership and future time perspective. *Frontiers in psychology*, 10(2612), 1-13.

Joo, B. K. (2010). Organizational commitment for knowledge workers: The roles of perceived organizational learning culture, leader–member exchange quality, and turnover intention. *Human resource development quarterly*, *21*(1), 69-85.

Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8: User's reference guide*. Scientific Software International.

Kabat-Farr, D., Walsh, B. M., & McGonagle, A. K. (2019). Uncivil supervisors and perceived work ability: the joint moderating roles of job involvement and grit. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *156*(4), 971-985.

Kamoche, K. (2011). Contemporary developments in the management of human resources in Africa. *Journal of World Business*, *46*(1), 1-4.

Kang, I. G., Croft, B., & Bichelmeyer, B. A. (2021). Predictors of turnover intention in US Federal Government Workforce: Machine learning evidence that perceived comprehensive HR practices predict turnover intention. *Public Personnel Management*, *50*(4), 538-558.

Kaufmann, W., Borry, E. L., & DeHart-Davis, L. (2022). Can effective organizational rules keep employees from leaving? a study of green tape and turnover intention. *Public Management Review*, 1-22.

Kim, H. Y. (2013). Statistical notes for clinical researchers: assessing normal distribution (2) using skewness and kurtosis. *Restorative dentistry & endodontics*, *38*(1), 52-54.

Kim, H., & Qu, H. (2019). Employees' burnout and emotional intelligence as mediator and moderator in the negative spiral of incivility. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 1412-1431.

Kim, J. (2015). What increases public employees' turnover intention?. *Public Personnel Management*, *44*(4), 496-519.

Kleine, A. K., Rudolph, C. W., & Zacher, H. (2019). Thriving at work: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(9-10), 973-999.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. Guilford publications.

Klumb, P. L., Voelkle, M. C., & Siegler, S. (2017). How negative social interactions at work seep into the home: A prosocial and an antisocial pathway. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*(5), 629-649.

Koirala, M., & Charoensukmongkol, P. (2020). Contributions of CSR perception to employees commitment and job satisfaction: Does personal income matter?. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, *41*(2), 303-307.

Kostova, T. (1998). Quality of inter-unit relationships in MNEs as a source of competitive advantage. *New managerial mindsets: Organizational transformation and strategy implementation*, *299*, 324

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *30*(3), 607-610.

Kumar, J. (2019). How psychological ownership stimulates participation in online brand communities? The moderating role of member type. *Journal of Business Research*, *105*, 243-257.

Kuvaas, B., & Dysvik, A. (2010). Exploring alternative relationships between perceived investment in employee development, perceived supervisor support and employee outcomes. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *20*(2), 138-156.

Ladan, S., Nordin, N. B., & Belal, H. M. (2017). Influence of transformational leadership on knowledge hiding: Mediating role of organizational psychological ownership. *International Journal of Business and Management Science*, *7*(2), 261-277.

Lampard, R., & Pole, C. (2015). *Practical social investigation: Qualitative and quantitative methods in social research*. Routledge.

Lan, Y., Xia, Y., Li, S., Wu, W., Hui, J., & Deng, H. (2020). Thwarted enthusiasm: effects of workplace incivility on newcomer proactive behaviors. *Chinese Management Studies*, *14*(4), 1035-1056.

Lata, M., & Chaudhary, R. (2020). Dark Triad and instigated incivility: The moderating role of workplace spirituality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *166*, 110090.

Lee, J., & Jensen, J. M. (2014). The effects of active constructive and passive corrective leadership on workplace incivility and the mediating role of fairness perceptions. *Group & Organization Management*, *39*(4), 416-443.

Lee, K., & Kim, Y. (2021). Ambidexterity for my Job or Firm? Investigation of the Impacts of Psychological Ownership on Exploitation, Exploration, and Ambidexterity. *European Management Review*, *18*(2), 141-156.

Lei, J., Luo, M., Chui, E., & Lu, W. (2019). Whether professional training matters: Attitudinal antecedents to the turnover intentions of social workers in Guangzhou, China. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *45*(3), 444-454.

Leiter, M. P., Day, A., Oore, D. G., & Laschinger, H. K. S. (2012). Getting better and staying better: Assessing civility, incivility, distress, and job attitudes one year after a civility intervention. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17(4), 425–434.

Lerner, J. S., & Tetlock, P. E. (1999). Accounting for the effects of accountability. *Psychological bulletin*, *125*(2), 255-275.

Leveck, M. L., & Jones, C. B. (1996). The nursing practice environment, staff retention, and quality of care. *Research in nursing & health*, *19*(4), 331-343.

Leyer, M., Hirzel, A. K., & Moormann, J. (2021). It's Mine, I Decide What To Change: The Role Of Psychological Ownership In Employees' process

Innovation Behaviour. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, *25*(01), 2150013-1-2150013-28.

Li, J., Yuan, L., Ning, L., & Li-Ying, J. (2015). Knowledge sharing and affective commitment: the mediating role of psychological ownership. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. 19(6), 1146-1166.

Lim, S., & Cortina, L. M. (2005). Interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace: the interface and impact of general incivility and sexual harassment. *Journal of applied psychology*, *90*(3), 483-496.

Lim, S., & Lee, A. (2011). Work and nonwork outcomes of workplace incivility: Does family support help? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(1), 95–111.

Lim, S., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Personal and workgroup incivility: impact on work and health outcomes. *Journal of applied psychology*, *93*(1), 95-107.

Lim, V. K., & Teo, T. S. (2009). Mind your E-manners: Impact of cyber incivility on employees' work attitude and behavior. *Information & Management*, *46*(8), 419-425.

Liu, J., Wang, H., Hui, C., & Lee, C. (2012). Psychological ownership: How having control matters. *Journal of Management Studies*, *49*(5), 869-895.

Liu, P., Xiao, C., He, J., Wang, X., & Li, A. (2020). Experienced workplace incivility, anger, guilt, and family satisfaction: The double-edged effect of narcissism. *Personality and individual differences*, *154*, 109642.

Locklear, L. R., Taylor, S. G., & Ambrose, M. L. (2021). How a gratitude intervention influences workplace mistreatment: A multiple mediation model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*(9), 1314-1333.

Loh, J. M., & Loi, N. (2018). Tit for tat: Burnout as a mediator between workplace incivility and instigated workplace incivility. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, *10*(1), 100-111.

Loi, N. M., Loh, J. M., & Hine, D. W. (2015). Don't rock the boat: The moderating role of gender in the relationship between workplace incivility and work withdrawal. *Journal of Management Development*, 34 (2), 169-186.

Lu, L., Liu, J., & Zhao, N. (2017). Why employees stay: the roles of psychological ownership, territoriality and work relationship closeness in affecting employee turnover intention. *Frontiers of Business Research in China*, *11*(1), 1-16.

Ma, Y., Chen, F., Xing, D., Meng, Q., & Zhang, Y. (2022). Study on the associated factors of turnover intention among emergency nurses in China and the relationship between major factors. *International Emergency Nursing*, *60*, (101106), 1-6.

MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological methods*, *1*(2), 130-149.

MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2012). Common method bias in marketing: Causes, mechanisms, and procedural remedies. *Journal of retailing*, *88*(4), 542-555.

Mackey, J. D., Bishoff, J. D., Daniels, S. R., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2019). Incivility's relationship with workplace outcomes: Enactment as a boundary condition in two samples. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *155*, 513-528.

Magner, N., Welker, R. B., & Johnson, G. G. (1996). The interactive effects of participation and outcome favourability on turnover intentions and evaluations of supervisors. *Journal of occupational and organizational Psychology*, *69*(2), 135-143.

Malhotra, N. K., Kim, S. S., & Patil, A. (2006). Common method variance in IS research: A comparison of alternative approaches and a reanalysis of past research. *Management science*, *52*(12), 1865-1883.

Manzoor, M. T., Manzoor, T., & Khan, M. (2020). Workplace incivility: a cynicism booster leading to turnover intentions. *Decision*, *47(1)*, 91-99.

Mao, C., Chang, C. H., Johnson, R. E., & Sun, J. (2019). Incivility and employee performance, citizenship, and counterproductive behaviors: Implications of the social context. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *24*(2), 213-227.

Marincola, E., & Kariuki, T. (2020). Quality research in Africa and why it is important. *ACS omega*, *5*(38), 24155-24157.

Marks, J. (1996). The American uncivil wars. *US News & World Report*, *120*(16), 66-72.

Marsh, H. W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). Application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept: First-and higher order factor models and their invariance across groups. *Psychological bulletin*, *97*(3), 562-582.

Martinaityte, I., Unsworth, K. L., & Sacramento, C. A. (2020). Is the project 'mine'or 'ours'? A multilevel investigation of the effects of individual and collective psychological ownership. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *93*(2), 302-327.

Martins, L. P. (2015). HR leaders hold the key to effective diversity management:… as more and more important decisions are taken at local level. *Human Resource Management International Digest*. 23(5), 49-53.

Matthews, R. A., & Ritter, K. J. (2016). A concise, content valid, gender invariant measure of workplace incivility. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *21*(3), 352-365.

Mayhew, M. G., Ashkanasy, N. M., Bramble, T., & Gardner, J. (2007). A study of the antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership in organizational settings. *The Journal of social psychology*, *147*(5), 477-500.

McClean, E., & Collins, C. J. (2011). High-commitment HR practices, employee effort, and firm performance: Investigating the effects of HR practices across employee groups within professional services firms. *Human resource management*, *50*(3), 341-363.

McLeod, J., Jenkin, A., Walters, G., & Irving, R. (2021). The role and performance of supporter directors: A social exchange theory perspective. *Sport Management Review*, *24*(5), 862-885.

McNall, L. A., Masuda, A. D., & Nicklin, J. M. (2009). Flexible work arrangements, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions: The mediating role of work-to-family enrichment. *The Journal of psychology*, *144*(1), 61-81.

Md-Sidin, S., Sambasivan, M., & Muniandy, N. (2009). Impact of psychological ownership on the performance of business school lecturers. *Journal of Education for Business*, *85*(1), 50-56.

Meier, L. L., & Cho, E. (2019). Work stressors and partner social undermining: Comparing negative affect and psychological detachment as mechanisms. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *24*(3), 359-372.

Meier, L. L., & Gross, S. (2015). Episodes of incivility between subordinates and supervisors: Examining the role of self-control and time with an interaction-record diary study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *36*(8), 1096-1113.

Meier, L. L., & Spector, P. E. (2013). Reciprocal effects of work stressors and counterproductive work behavior: A five-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(3), 529-539.

Mitchell, M. S., Cropanzano, R. S., & Quisenberry, D. M. (2012). Social exchange theory, exchange resources, and interpersonal relationships: A modest resolution of theoretical difficulties. In *Handbook of social resource theory* (pp. 99-118). Springer, New York, NY.

Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of applied psychology*, *62*(2) 237-240.

Mohammad, J., Quoquab, F., Halimah, S., & Thurasamy, R. (2019). Workplace internet leisure and employees' productivity: The mediating role of employee satisfaction. *Internet Research*, 29(4), 725-748.

Moon, T. W., & Hur, W. M. (2018). Go home and kick the dog: Spillover effects of experienced coworker incivility on customer-directed counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*, *28*(5), 554-575.

Morrongiello, C., N'Goala, G., & Kreziak, D. (2017). Customer psychological empowerment as a critical source of customer engagement. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, *47*(1), 61-87.

Mosadeghrad, A. M., Ferlie, E., & Rosenberg, D. (2008). A study of the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention among hospital employees. *Health services management research*, *21*(4), 211-227.

Mullen, J. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2013). The effects of interpersonal customer mistreatment on employee retaliation. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, *6*(2), 118-128.

Nachmias, S., Mitsakis, F., Aravopoulou, E., Rees, C. J., & Kouki, A. (2021). Line managers' perceptions of diversity management: insights from a social exchange theory perspective. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 44(2), 294-318

Neuman, W. L., & Robson, K. (2014). *Basics of social research*. Toronto: Pearson Canada.

Nuhn, H. F., & Wald, A. (2016). Antecedents of team turnover intentions in temporary organizations: Development of a research model. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 9(1), 194-213.

Nuhn, H. F., Heidenreich, S., & Wald, A. (2019). Performance outcomes of turnover intentions in temporary organizations: A dyadic study on the effects at the individual, team, and organizational level. *European Management Review*, *16*(2), 255-271.

O'driscoll, M. P., Pierce, J. L., & Coghlan, A. M. (2006). The psychology of ownership: Work environment structure, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*(3), 388-416.

Olckers, C., & Enslin, C. (2016). Psychological ownership in relation to workplace trust and turnover intent. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *26*(2), 119-126.

Olckers, C., & Van Zyl, L. (2016). The relationship between employment equity perceptions and psychological ownership in a South African mining house: The role of ethnicity. *Social Indicators Research*, *127*(2), 887-901.

Olckers, C., Du Plessis, M., & Casaleggio, R. (2020). Authentic leadership, organisational citizenship behaviours, and intention to quit: the indirect effect of psychological ownership. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *50*(3), 371-384.

Oliveira, L. B. D., & Rocha, J. D. C. (2017). Work engagement: Individual and situational antecedents and its relationship with turnover intention. *Revista brasileira de gestão de negócios*, *19*(65), 415-431.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington Books/DC heath and com.

Otache, I., & Inekwe, E. O. I. (2021). The relationship between job satisfaction, turnover intentions and performance of Nigerian polytechnic lecturers with doctorate degrees. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 14(2), 762-783.

Pallant, J. (2020). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS*. Routledge.

Pan, X. F., Qin, Q., & Gao, F. (2014). Psychological ownership, organization-based self-esteem and positive organizational behaviors. *Chinese Management Studies*, 8(1),127-148.

Park, C. H., Song, J. H., Yoon, S. W., & Kim, J. (2013). A missing link: psychological ownership as a mediator between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Human Resource Development International*, *16*(5), 558-574.

Park, J., & Min, H. K. (2020). Turnover intention in the hospitality industry: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *90*, 102599.

Park, Y., & Haun, V. C. (2018). The long arm of email incivility: Transmitted stress to the partner and partner work withdrawal. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*(10), 1268-1282.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative research & evaluation methods. Sage.

Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). On the nature, consequences, and remedies of workplace incivility: No time for "nice"? Think again. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *19*(1), 7-18.

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). Workplace incivility.

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Wegner, J. W. (2001). When workers flout convention: A study of workplace incivility. *Human relations*, *54*(11), 1387-1419.

Pearson, C., & Porath, C. (2009). The cost of bad behavior: How incivility is damaging your business and what to do about it. New York: Penguin.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *26*(7), 777-796.

Perryer, C., Jordan, C., Firns, I., & Travaglione, A. (2010). Predicting turnover intentions: The interactive effects of organizational commitment and perceived organizational support. *Management Research Review*. 33(9), 911-923.

Phillips, G. S., MacKusick, C. I., & Whichello, R. (2018). Workplace incivility in nursing: A literature review through the lens of ethics and spirituality. *Journal of Christian nursing*, *35*(1), 7-12.

Pickford, H. C., & Joy, G. (2016). Organizational Citizenship Behaviours Definitions and Dimensions. Said Business School, Egrove Park.

Pierce, J. L., & Jussila, I. (2010). Collective psychological ownership within the work and organizational context: Construct introduction and elaboration. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(6), 810-834.

Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2001). Toward a theory of psychological ownership in organizations. *Academy of management review*, *26*(2), 298-310.

Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2003). The state of psychological ownership: Integrating and extending a century of research. *Review of general psychology*, *7*(1), 84-107.

Pierce, J. L., O'driscoll, M. P., & Coghlan, A. M. (2004). Work environment structure and psychological ownership: The mediating effects of control. *The Journal of social psychology*, *144*(5), 507-534.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of applied psychology*, *88*(5), 879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The leadership quarterly*, *1*(2), 107-142.

Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2010). Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: Myths and strategies. *International journal of nursing studies*, *47*(11), 1451-1458.

Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2007). Does rudeness matter? The effects of rude behavior on task performance and helpfulness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(5), 1181–1197.

Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2009). Overlooked but not untouched: How rudeness reduces onlookers' performance on routine and creative tasks. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *109*(1), 29-44.

Porath, C. L., Foulk, T., & Erez, A. (2015). How incivility hijacks performance: It robs cognitive resources, increases dysfunctional behavior, and infects team dynamics and functioning. *Organizational Dynamics*, *14*(4),1035-1056.

Porath, C. L., & Pearson, C. M. (2010). The cost of bad behavior. *Organizational dynamics*, 39(1), 64–71.

Porath, C. L., & Pearson, C. M. (2012). Emotional and behavioral responses to workplace incivility and the impact of hierarchical status. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(S1), E326–E357.

Porath, C., & Pearson, C. (2013). The price of incivility. *Harvard business review*, *91*(1-2), 114-121.

Porteous, J. D. (1976). Home: The territorial core. *Geographical Review*, *66*(4), 383-390.

Potipiroon, W., & Ford, M. T. (2019). Relational costs of status: Can the relationship between supervisor incivility, perceived support, and follower outcomes be exacerbated?. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *92*(4), 873-896.

Rahim, A., & Cosby, D. M. (2016). A model of workplace incivility, job burnout, turnover intentions, and job performance. *Journal of Management Development*, *35*(10), 1255-1265.

Rahman, W., & Nas, Z. (2013). Employee development and turnover intention: theory validation. *European journal of training and development*, 37 (6), 564-579.

Reamer, F. G. (1998). The evolution of social work ethics. *Social work*, *43*(6), 488-500.

Reich, T. C., & Hershcovis, M. S. (2015). Observing workplace incivility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(1), 203-215.

Reio Jr, T. G. (2011). Supervisor and coworker incivility: Testing the work frustration-aggression model. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *13*(1), 54-68.

Reio Jr, T. G., & Sanders-Reio, J. (2011). Thinking about workplace engagement: Does supervisor and coworker incivility really matter?. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *13*(4), 462-478.

Rokhman, W. (2010). The effect of Islamic work ethics on work outcomes. *EJBO-Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and Organization Studies*, 15(1), 21-27.

Rossiter, J. & Ishaku, J. (2019). More and Better Research Needed on Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Center for Global Development. Accessed from: https://www.cgdev.org/blog/more-and-better-research-needed-education-sub-saharan-africa. Accessed date, March 6, 2022.*

Rubenstein, A. L., Eberly, M. B., Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (2018). Surveying the forest: A meta-analysis, moderator investigation, and future-oriented discussion of the antecedents of voluntary employee turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, *71*(1), 23-65.

Rudmin, F. W., & Berry, J. W. (1987). Semantics of ownership: A free-recall study of property. *The Psychological Record, 37*(2), 257-268.

Saeed, M. (2020). Mediation effect of psychological contract between personality dimensions and turnover intention. *Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Science, 25*(50), 205-220.

Samma, M., Zhao, Y., Rasool, S. F., Han, X., & Ali, S. (2020, November). Exploring the relationship between innovative work behavior, job anxiety, workplace ostracism, and workplace incivility: empirical evidence from small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs). In *Healthcare*. 8(4), 1-15.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research methods for business students (8th ed.)*. Pearson education.

Sayers, J. K., Sears, K. L., Kelly, K. M., & Harbke, C. R. (2011). When employees engage in workplace incivility: The interactive effect of psychological contract violation and organizational justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 23*(4), 269-283.

Schilpzand, P., De Pater, I. E., & Erez, A. (2016a). Workplace incivility: A review of the literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational behavior, 37*, S57-S88.

Schilpzand, P., Leavitt, K., & Lim, S. (2016b). Incivility hates company: Shared incivility attenuates rumination, stress, and psychological withdrawal by reducing self-blame. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 133*, 33-44.

Schumacker, R.E. and Lomax, R.G. (2016), A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling (4th ed), Routledge, New York.

Scott, K. L., Restubog, S. L., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2013). A social exchange-based model of the antecedents of workplace exclusion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(1), 37–48.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & sons.

Sender, A., Morf, M., & Feierabend, A. (2021). Aiming to Leave and Aiming to Harm: the Role of Turnover Intentions and Job Opportunities for Minor and Serious Deviance. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 36*(3), 449-460.

Sharif Nia, H., Pahlevan Sharif, S., She, L., Sivarajan Froelicher, E., Kaveh, O., & Rahmatpour, P. (2022). The relationship between abusive supervision, psychological ownership, and quality of nursing care: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Perspectives in psychiatric care, 58*(4), 1223-1231.

Shen, Y., Jackson, T., Ding, C., Yuan, D., Zhao, L., Dou, Y., & Zhang, Q. (2014). Linking perceived organizational support with employee work outcomes in a

Chinese context: Organizational identification as a mediator. *European Management Journal*, *32*(3), 406-412.

Singh, L. B., & Srivastava, S. (2021). Linking workplace ostracism to turnover intention: A moderated mediation approach. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *46*, 244-256.

Sliter, K. A., Sliter, M. T., Withrow, S. A., & Jex, S. M. (2012a). Employee adiposity and incivility: Establishing a link and identifying demographic moderators and negative consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *17*(4), 409–424.

Sliter, M., Sliter, K., & Jex, S. (2012b). The employee as a punching bag: The effect of multiple sources of incivility on employee withdrawal behavior and sales performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(1), 121–139.

Sowe, S., & Arslan, M. (2023). Exploring the Impact of Workplace Incivility on Employee Counterproductive Work Behavior through the Mediating Role of Turnover Intention: Evidence from The Gambia and Ghana. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*, *12*(1), 1-21.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). The Stressor-Emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behavior. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 151–174). American Psychological Association.

Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A., & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Do we know what we think we know?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(4), 781-790.

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal?. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *68*(3), 446-460.

Stanley, T. D., & Doucouliagos, H. (2012). *Meta-regression analysis in economics and business*. Routledge.

Strachota, E., Normandin, P., O'brien, N., Clary, M., & Krukow, B. (2003). Reasons registered nurses leave or change employment status. *JONA: The Journal of Nursing Administration*, *33*(2), 111-117.

Su, X., Liang, K., & Wong, V. (2021b). The impact of collective psychological ownership on turnover intention among social service workers. *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, *45*(4), 352-364.

Tanaka, J. S., & Huba, G. J. (1985). A fit index for covariance structure models under arbitrary GLS estimation. *British journal of mathematical and statistical psychology*, *38*(2), 197-201.

Taylor, S. G., Bedeian, A. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking workplace incivility to citizenship performance: The combined effects of affective commitment and conscientiousness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(7), 878-893.

Taylor, S. G., Bedeian, A. G., Cole, M. S., & Zhang, Z. (2017). Developing and testing a dynamic model of workplace incivility change. *Journal of Management*, *43*(3), 645-670.

Taylor, S. G., & Kluemper, D. H. (2012). Linking perceptions of role stress and incivility to workplace aggression: The moderating role of personality. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *17*(3), 316-329.

Taylor, S. G., Locklear, L. R., Kluemper, D. H., & Lu, X. (2021). Beyond targets and instigators: Examining workplace incivility in dyads and the moderating role of perceived incivility norms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *107*(8), 1288–1302.

Tett, R. P., & Guterman, H. A. (2000). Situation trait relevance, trait expression, and cross-situational consistency: Testing a principle of trait activation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *34*(4), 397-423. Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel psychology*, *46*(2), 259-293.

Tetteh, S., Dei Mensah, R., Opata, C. N., & Mensah, C. N. (2021). Service employees' workplace fun and turnover intention: the influence of psychological capital and work engagement. *Management Research Review*, *45*(3), 363-380.

Tong, J., Chong, S., & Johnson, R. E. (2019). The indirect relations of workplace incivility with emotional exhaustion and supportive behaviors via self-blame: The moderating roles of observed incivility and trait emotional control. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(8), 931-946.

Torkelson, E., Holm, K., Bäckström, M., & Schad, E. (2016). Factors contributing to the perpetration of workplace incivility: the importance of organizational aspects and experiencing incivility from others. *Work & Stress*, *30*(2), 115-131.

Torp, S., & Nielsen, B. B. (2018). Psychological ownership and financial firm performance: The interplay of employee stock ownership and participative leadership. *Australian Journal of Management*, *43*(3), 476-492.

Trent, S. B., & Allen, J. A. (2019). Resilience Only Gets You So Far: Volunteer Incivility and Burnout. *Organization Management Journal*, *16*(2), 69-80.

Tsen, M. K., Gu, M., Tan, C. M., & Goh, S. K. (2022). Does flexible work arrangements decrease or increase turnover intention? A comparison between

the social exchange theory and border theory. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, *42*(11-12), 962-983.

U.S. Department of State (2021). 2020 Report on International Religious Freedom: Ghana. *Office of International Religious Freedom*. *Accessed from:* https://www.state.gov/reports/2020-report-on-international-religious-freedom/ghana/. *Accessed date, March 3, 2022.*

Vaitoonkiat, E., & Charoensukmongkol, P. (2020). Interaction effect of entrepreneurial orientation and stakeholder orientation on the business performance of firms in the steel fabrication industry in Thailand. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 12(4), 453-473.

Valentine, S. R., Hanson, S. K., & Fleischman, G. M. (2019). The presence of ethics codes and employees' internal locus of control, social aversion/malevolence, and ethical judgment of incivility: A study of smaller organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *160*(3), 657-674.

Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *25*(4), 439-459.

Van Jaarsveld, D. D., Walker, D. D., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2010). The role of job demands and emotional exhaustion in the relationship between customer and employee incivility. *Journal of Management*, *36*(6), 1486-1504.

Vasconcelos, A. F. (2020). Workplace incivility: A literature review. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, *13*(5), 513-542.

Vickers, M. H. (2006). Writing what's relevant: Workplace incivility in public administration-A wolf in sheep's clothing. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, *28*(1), 69-88.

Viotti, S., Essenmacher, L., Hamblin, L. E., & Arnetz, J. E. (2018). Testing the reciprocal associations among co-worker incivility, organisational inefficiency, and work-related exhaustion: A one-year, cross-lagged study. *Work & Stress*, *32*(4), 334-356.

Wagner, S. H., Parker, C. P., & Christiansen, N. D. (2003). Employees that think and act like owners: Effects of ownership beliefs and behaviors on organizational effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, *56*(4), 847-871.

Walker, D. D., van Jaarsveld, D. D., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2014). Exploring the effects of individual customer incivility encounters on employee incivility: The moderating roles of entity (in) civility and negative affectivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*(1), 151-161.

Wang, L., Law, K. S., Zhang, M. J., Li, Y. N., & Liang, Y. (2019). It's mine! Psychological ownership of one's job explains positive and negative workplace outcomes of job engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *104*(2), 229-246.

Wang, P. (2020). Reconsidering the costs and benefits of work engagement on work–Family interaction and turnover intention: The antecedents and outcomes. *Community, Work & Family*, *23*(2), 224-246.

Warren, D. I. (1968). Power, visibility, and conformity in formal organizations. *American Sociological Review*, *33*(6), 951-970.

Wattanasak, R. (2021). Antecedents and Outcomes Associated with Employees' Psychological Ownership of Convenience Stores in Bangkok. *Human Behavior, Development & Society*, *22*(2), 37-47.

Weber, M., & Kalberg, S. (2013). *The Protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism*. Routledge.

Welbourne, J. L., Miranda, G., & Gangadharan, A. (2020). Effects of employee personality on the relationships between experienced incivility, emotional exhaustion, and perpetrated incivility. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *27*(4), 335-345.

Wibowo, H. A., & Indarti, N. (2020). Blue-Collar Workers Entrepreneurial Intentions and The Extended Theory of Reasoned Action: Incorporating SEM and Person-Item Map Analysis. *Journal of Indonesian Economy & Business*, *35*(3), 204-235.

Woon, W., Tan, C. L., & Nasurdin, A. M. (2017). Linking Organizational Climate, Psychological Ownership, and Intention to Stay: A Proposed Model. *Global Business & Management Research*, *9*(1), 127-141.

Xiong, R., & Wen, Y. (2020). Employees' turnover intention and behavioral outcomes: The role of work engagement. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *48*(1), 1-7.

Yamane, T. (1973). Statistics: an introductory analysis, (3rd ed). Harper and Row, New York.

Yang, T., Jin, X., Shi, H., Liu, Y., Guo, Y., Gao, Y., & Deng, J. (2021). Occupational stress, distributive justice and turnover intention among public hospital nurses in China: A cross-sectional study. *Applied Nursing Research*, *61*(151481), 1-9.

Yao, J., Lim, S., Guo, C. Y., Ou, A. Y., & Ng, J. W. X. (2022). Experienced incivility in the workplace: A meta-analytical review of its construct validity and nomological network. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *107*(2), 193-220.

Yildiz, S. M., (2018). An empirical analysis of the leader-member exchange and employee turnover intentions mediated by mobbing: Evidence from sport organisations. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, *31*(1), 480-497.

Yıldız, B., Alpkan, L., Ateş, H., & Sezen, B. (2015). Determinants of constructive deviance: the mediator role of psychological ownership. *International Business Research*, *8*(4), 107-121.

Yoon, S. K., Kim, J. H., Park, J. E., Kim, C. J., & Song, J. H. (2020). Creativity and knowledge creation: The moderated mediating effect of perceived organizational support on psychological ownership. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 44 (6/7), 743-760.

Yousef, D. A. (2001). Islamic work ethic–A moderator between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in a cross-cultural context. *Personnel Review*, 30(2), 152-169.

Yu, Z., Zeng, H., & Hao, L. (2021). The easier you get it, the less you cherish it? Research on the influence of coupon issuing methods on consumers from the perspective of psychological ownership. *The Service Industries Journal*, 1-27.

Yucel, I., Şirin, M. S., & Baş, M. (2021). The mediating effect of work engagement on the relationship between work–family conflict and turnover intention and moderated mediating role of supervisor support during global pandemic. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*. DOI 10.1108/IJPPM-07-2020-0361.

Yuksel, M., Darmody, A., & Venkatraman, M. (2019). When consumers own their work: Psychological ownership and consumer citizenship on crowdsourcing platforms. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *18*(1), 3-11.

Yurdugül, H. (2008). Minimum sample size for Cronbach's coefficient alpha: a Monte-Carlo study. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi eğitim fakültesi dergisi*, *35*(35), 1-9.

Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). Team leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, *12*(4), 451-483.

Zhang, J. C., Ling, W. Q., Zhang, Z. Y., & Xie, J. (2015). Organizational commitment, work engagement, person–supervisor fit, and turnover intention: A total effect moderation model. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *43*(10), 1657-1666.

Zhang, Y., Liu, G., Zhang, L., Xu, S., & Cheung, M. W. L. (2021). Psychological ownership: A meta-analysis and comparison of multiple forms of attachment in the workplace. *Journal of Management*, *47*(3), 745-770.

Zhang, Z., & Min, M. (2022). Project manager knowledge hiding, subordinates' work-related stress and turnover intentions: empirical evidence from Chinese NPD projects. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *26*(8), 1921-1944.

Zhou, Z. E., Meier, L. L., & Spector, P. E. (2019). The spillover effects of coworker, supervisor, and outsider workplace incivility on work-to-family conflict: A weekly diary design. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(9-10), 1000-1012.

Zhu, Y., & Zhang, D. (2021). Workplace Ostracism and Counterproductive Work Behaviors: The Chain Mediating Role of Anger and Turnover Intention. *Frontiers in psychology*, 12, (761560) 1-9.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Table A.1. Missing Variables and Outliers

Variables	N		Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
	Valid	Missing						
GEN	539	0	1.477	1	0.5	1	2	796
AGE	539	0	2.362	2	1.017	1	5	1273
MS	539	0	1.61	2	0.488	1	2	868
EDU	537	2	2.585	3	1.01	1	5	1388
SEC	539	0	1.477	1	0.504	1	3	796
CON	539	0	1.495	1	0.5	1	2	806
EXP	539	0	2.200	1	1.207	1	5	1186
OC1	538	1	3.939	5	1.350	1	5	2119
OC2	537	2	3.587	4	1.161	1	5	1926
OC3	536	3	3.315	3	1.195	1	5	1777
OC4	539	0	3.549	4	1.064	1	5	1913
OC5	538	1	3.955	5	1.152	1	5	2128
OC6	539	0	3.651	4	1.198	1	5	1968
OC7	538	1	3.636	4	1.157	1	5	1956
OC8	537	2	3.961	5	1.146	1	5	2127
OC9	539	0	3.26	3	1.27	1	5	1757
OCB1	538	1	3.279	5	1.351	1	5	1764
OCB2	536	3	3.644	5	2.538	1	55	1953
OCB3	537	2	3.317	3	1.255	1	5	1781
OCB4	536	3	3.739	5	1.264	1	5	2004
OCB5	535	4	3.759	5	1.244	1	5	2011
OCB6	538	1	3.723	5	1.202	1	5	2003
OCB7	536	3	3.422	3	1.203	1	5	1834
OCB8	538	1	2.985	2	1.322	1	5	1606
OCB9	537	2	2.857	3	1.29	1	5	1534
OCB10	539	0	3.206	5	1.359	1	5	1728
CWB1	537	2	1.721	1	1.192	1	5	924
CWB2	537	2	2.356	1	1.263	1	5	1265
CWB3	538	1	1.894	1	1.168	1	5	1019
CWB4	537	2	2.060	1	1.186	1	5	1106
CWB5	538	1	1.775	1	1.252	1	5	955
CWB6	534	5	1.556	1	1.133	1	5	831
CBW7	532	7	1.662	1	1.076	1	5	884
CWB8	533	6	1.82	1	1.133	1	5	970
CWB9	533	6	1.854	1	1.185	1	5	988
CWB10	534	5	1.760	1	1.318	1	5	940
SI1	532	7	2.180	1	1.258	1	5	1160
SI2	531	8	2.401	2	1.164	1	5	1275
SI3	531	8	2.090	1	1.157	1	5	1110
SI4	533	6	2.096	1	1.273	1	5	1117
SI5	532	7	2.105	1	1.309	1	5	1120
SI6	531	8	2.132	1	1.235	1	5	1132
SI7	532	7	2.026	1	1.188	1	5	1078
CWI1	531	8	1.938	1	1.187	1	5	1029
CWI2	530	9	2.192	2	1.114	1	5	1162
CWI3	529	10	2.066	1	1.168	1	5	1093
CWI4	531	8	2.105	1	1.275	1	5	1118
CWI5	530	9	2.125	1	1.301	1	5	1126
CWI6	530	9	2.206	1	1.318	1	5	1169

Table A.1. (cont.)

Variables	N		Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
	Valid	Missing						
CWI7	531	8	2.171	1	1.231	1	5	1153
CI1	531	8	2.646	3	1.355	1	13	1405
CI2	532	7	2.733	3	1.185	1	5	1454
CI3	532	7	2.581	3	1.199	1	5	1373
CI4	532	7	2.492	1	1.224	1	5	1326
CI5	532	7	2.878	3	1.239	1	5	1531
CI6	528	11	2.413	1	1.215	1	5	1274
CI7	523	16	2.145	1	1.160	1	5	1122
CI8	525	14	2.451	2	1.174	1	5	1287
CI9	524	15	2.246	1	1.221	1	5	1177
CI10	524	15	2.113	1	1.492	1	23	1107
CI11	523	16	2.493	3	1.277	1	5	1304
CI12	524	15	2.061	1	1.248	1	5	1080
CI13	523	16	1.939	1	1.227	1	5	1014
CI14	523	16	2.082	1	1.219	1	5	1089
CI15	524	15	2.208	1	1.271	1	5	1157
PO1	521	18	3.219	5	1.502	1	5	1677
PO2	520	19	3.513	4	1.271	1	5	1827
PO3	522	17	3.287	3	1.276	1	5	1716
PO4	521	18	3.303	4	1.333	1	5	1721
PO5	519	20	3.601	5	1.314	1	5	1869
PO6	519	20	3.249	3	1.242	1	5	1686
PO7	520	19	2.931	4	1.354	1	5	1524
TI1	520	19	2.648	1	1.326	1	5	1377
TI2	520	19	2.679	2	1.288	1	5	1393
TI3	520	19	2.835	3	1.283	1	5	1474
TI4	518	21	2.799	3	1.295	1	5	1450

Table A.2. Percentage of Missing Variables

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
GEN	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
AGE	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
MS	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
EDU	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SEC	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CON	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
EXP	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC8	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OC9	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%

Table A.2. (cont.)

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
OCB2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB8	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB9	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
OCB10	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CBW7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB8	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB9	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWB10	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
SI7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CWI7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI8	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI9	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI10	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI11	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI12	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI13	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI14	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
CI15	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
PO1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
PO2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
PO3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
PO4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%

Table A.2. (cont.)

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
PO5	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
PO6	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
PO7	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
TI1	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
TI2	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
TI3	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%
TI4	483	89.6%	56	10.4%	539	100.00%

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information:

Name: Samba SOWE

Education:

2009-2013 BA in Development Studies, University of The Gambia, The Gambia

2015-2018 M.Sc. in Management Science, Gazi University, Ankara Turkey

2018-2023 Ph.D. in Management, Ibn Haldun University, Istanbul Turkey

Work Experience:

2018-2023 Research and Teaching Assistant, Ibn Haldun University, Istanbul Turkey

Publications:

Sowe, S., & Arslan, M. (2023). Exploring the Impact of Workplace Incivility on Employee Counterproductive Work Behavior through the Mediating Role of Turnover Intention: Evidence from The Gambia and Ghana. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*, *12*(1), 1-21.

Kusakci, S., Yilmaz, M. K., Kusakci, A. O., Sowe, S., & Nantembelele, F. A. (2022). Towards sustainable cities: A sustainability assessment study for metropolitan cities in Turkey via a hybridized IT2F-AHP and COPRAS approach. *Sustainable Cities and Society*, *78*, 103655.,

Yilmaz, M. K., Hacioglu, U., Nantembelele, F. A., & Sowe, S. (2021). Corporate board diversity and its impact on the social performance of companies from emerging economies. *Global Business and Organizational Excellence*, *41*(1), 6-20.

Sowe, S. (2019). Considering Football Teams from a Resource Dependency Theory Perspective. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Sports, 43*, 1-8.

Sowe, S. (2018). Yerel yönetimlerde reform: Türkiye ve Gambiya mukayesesi. *Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi*.

Sowe, S. (2017). Local government: A case study of The Gambia. *Gazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, *5*(12), 109-115.