T.C.

ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE EFFECT OF COMPETITIVE WORK ENVIRONMENTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TASK AND RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT

MASTER'S THESIS

Mamia MAIRECH

Department of Business

Business Administration Program

APRIL, 2025

T.C.
ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE EFFECT OF COMPETITIVE WORK ENVIRONMENTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TASK AND RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT

MASTER'S THESIS

Mamia MAIRECH

(Y2212.130049)

Department of Business

Business Administration Program

Thesis Advisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Tolga TÜRKÖZ

APRIL, 2025

THESIS EXAM REPORT

Istanbul Aydın University Institute of Graduate Studies Board of Directors …………………………. date and …………………………. decision no, the thesis of Mamia Mairech whose thesis defense exam was held on 22/04/2025 before the jury members formed at the meeting, ……………………* ……………………** decision was made.

JURY

1st Member (Thesis Advisor)   : Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Tolga TÜRKÖZ

2nd Member   : Doç. Dr. Burcu AYDIN KÜÇÜK

3rd Member   : Doç. Dr. Ufuk BAŞAR

APPROVAL

Istanbul Aydin University Institute of Graduate Studies Board of Directors ……………….. date and …………………… decision no.

(*) Unanimity/Majority vote will be written in writing.

(**) Acceptance decision will be written in writing.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare with respect that the study "The Effect Of Competitive Work Environments On Organizational Commitment: The Mediating Tole Of Task And Relationship," which I submitted as a Master thesis, is written without any assistance in violation of scientific ethics and traditions in all the processes from the project phase to the conclusion of the thesis and that the works I have benefitted from are from those shown in the References. (22/04/2025)

Mamia MAIRECH

FOREWORD

Presenting my thesis to you, which has resulted from nothing but passion and effort, comes with the utmost humility. You will discover nothing less of unadulterated enthusiasm and commitment to the subject.

I express my gratitude to Dr. Tolga TÜRKÖZ, whom without his assistance I would not have reached this far. I would like to thank my family, whose steadfast support has helped me reach this point in my academic career. This thesis means as much to me as it does to them.

To my brother, Ibrahim, whose faith in me has been a consistent source of motivation.

To my parents, Nabeha and Mohammed, whose sacrifices and constant encouragement helped me achieve this academic feat.

And lastly - but certainly not least - to my two sisters, Sonia and Hajer, who have advised me on how to become the best version of myself as a sister, a daughter and a woman.

This thesis is dedicated to the Mairech family.

April, 2025   Mamia MAIRECH

THE EFFECT OF COMPETITIVE WORK ENVIRONMENTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TASK AND RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between competitive work environments and organizational commitment and also to reveal two potential mediating variables that may play an important role in affecting this relationship. In order to examine these ideas, an online survey form was distributed to participants in different countries. The collected data was analyzed using the SPSS program to examine the relationship between the concepts. Correlation and regression analyses were applied to test the hypotheses. The findings of the study are as follows: Competitive work environments positively affect organizational commitment. Competitive work environments also positively affect both relationship conflict and task conflict. Both relationship conflict and task conflict negatively affect organizational commitment, and both play a partially mediating role in the effect of competitive work environments on organizational commitment. This study, which examines the mediating effect of task and relationship conflict on the relationship between competitive work environments, and organizational commitment, is expected to provide a new perspective for leaders, managers, and researchers.

Keywords: Organizational Conflict, Competitive Work Environment, Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict, Organizational Commitment, Conflict Management.

REKABETÇİ ÇALIŞMA ORTAMLARININ ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ: GÖREV VE İLİŞKİ ÇATIŞMASININ ARACI ROLÜ

ÖZET

Bu tezin amacı rekabetçi çalışma ortamları ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak ve ayrıca bu ilişkiyi etkilemede önemli rol oynayabilecek iki potansiyel aracı değişkeni ortaya koymaktır. Bu düşünceleri inceleyebilmek için farklı ülkelerdeki katılımcılara çevrimiçi olarak bir anket formu dağıtılmıştır. Toplanan veriler, kavramlar arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için SPSS programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Hipotezleri test etmek için korelasyon ve regresyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları şu şekildedir: Rekabetçi çalışma ortamları örgütsel bağlılığı pozitif yönde etkilemektedir. Rekabetçi çalışma ortamları ayn zamanda hem ilişki çatışmasını hem de görev çatışmasını da pozitif yönde etkilemektedir. İlişki çatışması da görev çatışması da örgütsel bağlılığı olumsuz yönde etkilemekte ve her ikisi de rekabetçi çalışma ortamlarının örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki etkisinde kısmen aracılık rolü oynamaktadır. Görev ve ilişki çatışmasının rekabetçi çalışma ortamları ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkide aracılık etkisini inceleyen bu çalışmanın liderler, yöneticiler ve araştırmacılar için yeni bir bakış açısı sağlaması beklenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Çatışma, Rekabetçi Çalışma Ortamı, Görev Çatışması, İlişki Çatışması, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Çatışma Yönetimi.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CMT   : Conflict Management Theory

CWE   : Competitive Work Environments

JD-R   : Theory – Job Demands-Resources Theory

KMO   :Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

LLCI   : Lower Limit Confidence Interval

OC   : Organizational Commitment

PST   : Psychological Safety Theory

p-value   : Probability value (used to determine statistical significance)

RC   : Relationship Conflict

SE   : Standard Error

SET   : Social Exchange Theory

TC   : Task Conflict

ULCI   : Upper Limit Confidence Interval

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

I. INTRODUCTION

Organizational behavior research plays a crucial role in understanding the factors that drive employee performance, retention, and workplace efficiency. Among these factors, Organizational Commitment (OC) has been widely recognized as a key determinant of employee loyalty, job satisfaction, and overall productivity (Wardoyo and Kistyanto, 2025; Ernest and Vincent, 2025). Employees with high levels of commitment are more likely to remain in their organizations, engage in discretionary work behaviors, and contribute positively to workplace culture (Suhara et al., 2024; Husriadi et al., 2025). Conversely, low OC has been linked to increased turnover rates, reduced job performance, and disengagement from work responsibilities (Prasilowati and Triastuti, 2025; Khan et al., 2025).

Given the increasing complexity of modern work environments, particularly in competitive industries, understanding what influences OC is essential for managers, business leaders, and policymakers. Competitive pressures can drive innovation and productivity, but they can also exacerbate workplace tensions and conflicts, ultimately influencing an employee's commitment to their organization (Sugiono and Widodo, 2025; Adam and Alfawaz, 2025). Despite extensive research on OC and its antecedents, the role of Competitive Work Environments (CWE) in shaping OC remains an underexplored area.

CWE refer to workplace settings where employees must compete for rewards, recognition, or career progression opportunities (Mishra et al., 2025; Obioma et al., 2025). Research suggests that CWE can foster motivation, drive performance, and encourage employees to improve their skills (Trang, 2025; Yakovenko et al., 2025). However, highly competitive climates can also lead to stress, interpersonal conflicts, and reduced team cohesion (Mon and Lie, 2025; Suntari et al., 2025). This dual nature of CWE makes it a complex yet critical variable in understanding workplace dynamics.

One of the key consequences of CWE is workplace conflict, which manifests in two primary forms: Task Conflict (TC) and Relationship Conflict (RC). Task

conflict occurs when employees have disagreements about work-related tasks, strategies, or decision-making processes (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). Some studies suggest that TC can be constructive, leading to better problem-solving, increased creativity, and innovation (Triyawanich and Singharach, 2025; Niyazbayeva, 2025). However, unmanaged or prolonged task conflict can escalate and negatively impact employee morale and job satisfaction (Rahmat et al., 2025; Abid and Jamilah, 2025).

Unlike task conflict, which may have both positive and negative effects, relationship conflict is almost universally detrimental. Relationship conflict is personal and emotional, arising from interpersonal tensions, miscommunication, or personality clashes (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). Research consistently links relationship conflict to increased stress, workplace dissatisfaction, and reduced collaboration (Pratama and Martono, 2025; Shakil and Siddiqui, 2025). While previous studies have explored CWE, TC, and RC independently, few have examined how these elements interact to shape OC.

Although there is extensive research on the antecedents of OC, several critical gaps remain. Existing studies have largely focused on job satisfaction, motivation, and performance, but few have directly examined the influence of CWE on OC (España-Rivadeneyra et al., 2025). While some scholars suggest that CWE enhances commitment by fostering motivation and goal orientation, others argue that excessive competition may create a hostile work environment, thereby reducing OC (Muslimin et al., 2024; Mahmud et al., 2025; Abbas et al., 2025). This contradiction in findings indicates a need for further exploration of CWE's impact on OC.

Additionally, the role of workplace conflict in the CWE-OC relationship remains unclear. Prior studies have shown that competitive environments often increase workplace conflict (Ismail, 2024), but few have investigated how task and relationship conflict mediate this effect. Research tends to examine TC and RC separately, but their combined influence on OC in competitive settings has not been comprehensively studied. Addressing this gap will contribute to a more nuanced understanding of workplace dynamics.

Furthermore, most OC studies have been conducted in Western corporate environments, with limited insights from diverse industries and cultural contexts (Harnantoko et al., 2023). Since workplace dynamics are influenced by cultural and structural differences, examining CWE, TC, and RC in non-Western workplaces or

high-pressure industries could provide new theoretical insights.

The research objectives of the thesis are as follow:

- To investigate how CWE impact OC.

- To examine the mediating role of Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict in this relationship.

By acknowledging these objectives, this study will seek to extend existing theories on workplace dynamics and provide actionable insights for organizations seeking to balance competition with employee engagement.

This thesis is structured into six main chapters. The second chapter, Theoretical Framework, explores existing literature on OC, CWE, TC, and RC, providing the conceptual foundation for the study. The third chapter, Methodology, details the research design, data collection methods, and statistical techniques used to analyze the relationships between CWE, TC, RC, and OC. The fourth chapter, Results, presents the findings from the data analysis, examining the relationships between the key variables. The fifth chapter, discussion and implications, interprets the results, discusses theoretical contributions, and outlines managerial implications. Finally, the sixth chapter, Conclusion, summarizes the study's findings, discusses its limitations, and provides recommendations for future research.

II.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Organizational Commitment

1. Definition and Importance of Organizational Commitment

OC is a core theory in organizational behavior and human resource management, determining employee attitudes, job stability, and general business prosperity. It's related to the employee's attachment to the company, including the desire to remain, support corporate values, and participate in the company's goals (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). It's different from job satisfaction, in the sense that the latter only implies a surface attachment, while the former signifies a profound attachment leading to long-term involvement and devotion. As businesses focus on longevity and employee retention, building commitment comes to the fore in the agenda of the leadership and the HR department (Mahmud et al., 2025; Abbas et al., 2025).

OC is strongly linked to retention, job satisfaction, and employee performance. A committed workforce exhibits higher engagement, lower turnover, and increased productivity, all of which enhance organizational effectiveness (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Employees with strong OC demonstrate greater resilience, motivation, and dedication, while those with low commitment are more likely to disengage, experience dissatisfaction, and seek alternative employment (Arshad et al., 2025; Sunday and Ifidon, 2025). High turnover due to low OC increases recruitment and training costs, disrupting workforce continuity and operational efficiency (Siddique et al., 2025; Iorgema, 2025).

From an HRM perspective, organizations that prioritize commitment invest in leadership development, career growth, and supportive workplace cultures (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Employees who feel valued and see long-term prospects within a company are more likely to remain engaged and motivated. Research suggests that a strong OC culture fosters psychological ownership, where employees view their work as integral to the company's success, enhancing job performance and

organizational stability (Harrell, 2025; Wang and Lin, 2025).

OC also plays a pivotal role in job satisfaction and workplace relationships. Employees with high commitment experience greater job satisfaction, perceiving their work as meaningful and aligned with their personal and professional goals (Balfour and Wechsler, 1991). A commitment-driven work environment enhances team collaboration, reduces conflict, and boosts morale, leading to higher engagement and workplace harmony (Husriadi et al., 2025; Ernest and Vincent, 2025). When employees feel a sense of belonging, they are more likely to stay motivated, productive, and aligned with organizational goals (Wardoyo and Kistyanto, 2025; Trungd et al., 2025).

Beyond retention and satisfaction, OC significantly shapes employee performance and organizational success. Employees deeply involved in the company are likely to exceed job descriptions, displaying proactivity and innovation (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). This sense of responsibility and ownership are matched to greater efficiency, problem solving, and adaptability in high-stress situations (Nurhakim et al., 2025; Catayoc, 2025). Organizations with employees who are highly committed are most likely to outrank competitors, as employees are working despite unfavorable situations (Thakral et al., 2025; Siahaan et al., 2025).

Given its significant implications, OC remains a priority in research in the domain of management and in the practices in the domain of HR. As businesses shift to adapt to economic fluctuations and employee demands, the encouragement of commitment is integral to the building of a consistent, productive, and high-performing workforce (Bhatti, 2025; Ayala et al., 2025). The scale that was utilized to measure Organizational Commitment employed a unidimensional definition to provide a broader understanding of the concept and to approach it from a holistic approach. It is required to recognize the drivers driving OC and the theoretical foundations thereof, and so, different perspectives proposed by other researchers that looked at Organizational Commitment from a multi-dimensional point of view remain valuable.

2. Key Theoretical Perspectives on Organizational Commitment

OC has traditionally been the area of focus in the domains of management and psychology, and many theoretical models have sought to capture the dimensions

and impact of employee behavior. Among the most influential frameworks are the Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) model, each yielding different and supplementary explanations of the mechanisms driving the drivers of commitment.

Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model differentiates between commitment and identifies them as affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment captures the employee's feelings and attachment to the company, whereby the employees remain because they share the company's goals, mission, and values (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This kind of commitment comes along with greater job satisfaction, job motivation, and less turnover, whereby the employees are intrinsically involved in the job (Solinger et al., 2008; Bakhshi et al., 2011).

Continuance commitment, in contrast, depends on the perceived quit cost to the employee. The employee remains in an organization, and not necessarily because they feel loyal, but because they don't see any good alternatives available to themselves, or because they are economically dependent (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This assists in retention, if less optimally, and could actually lead to less morale and productivity (Jaros, 1997; Eskandaricharati, 2013).

Normative commitment originates from the employee's sense of obligation to stay, from investments the company makes in his or her career, such as mentoring and training (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This provides workforce stability, but isn't necessarily paired with high job performance and motivation, because employees are working because they feel obligated, and not necessarily because they believe in the company's core values (Wong and Tong, 2014; Kaptijn, 2009).

Beyond this model, O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) model differentiates between commitment based on the mechanisms involved in attachment, and the mechanisms are compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance commitment develops when employees remain because they are promised rewards and/or face threats if they don't. The employees in this case obey the rules, but they are not intrinsically motivated (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Delobbe and Vandenberghe, 2000).

Identification commitment occurs when employees feel connected to the organization's mission, seeing themselves as part of a collective. While stronger than

compliance, it does not necessarily indicate deep personal alignment with organizational values (Hackett et al., 1994). Internalization commitment, the strongest form, happens when employees fully embrace organizational values, leading to high engagement, intrinsic motivation, and discretionary effort (McConnell, 2003; Tham et al., 2023).

Both models offer valuable insights into OC by highlighting its multidimensional nature and the different psychological mechanisms that drive employee retention and engagement. While Meyer and Allen's model categorizes commitment based on its origin (emotional, economic, or moral), O'Reilly and Chatman's framework emphasizes the level of alignment between employees and organizational values. Understanding these perspectives is crucial for businesses and HR professionals seeking to enhance commitment among their workforce.

3. Factors Influencing Organizational Commitment

OC does not develop in isolation; rather, it is shaped by various internal and external factors that influence employees' perceptions, experiences, and relationships within the workplace. These factors can broadly be categorized into workplace dynamics, employee perceptions, leadership, and corporate culture (Shaari and Lah, 2024).

One of the most significant factors influencing commitment is workplace dynamics, which include aspects such as job design, team collaboration, work-life balance, and opportunities for professional growth (Ramadhan, 2024; Shaari and Lah, 2024). Employees who perceive their work environment as supportive, inclusive, and growth-oriented are more likely to develop a strong sense of commitment. Conversely, organizations that foster toxic, high-stress, or unstructured workplaces may struggle to retain employees and maintain engagement (Modric et al., 2024; Florea and Croitoru, 2025). A work environment that encourages open communication, fairness, and recognition can enhance affective commitment by making employees feel valued and respected (Sahrif and Imron, 2025).

Employee perceptions also play a crucial role in determining the level of commitment individuals feel toward their organizations. Perceived organizational support (POS)—the extent to which employees believe their organization cares about their well-being—has been consistently linked to higher levels of commitment and

job satisfaction (Terziev et al., 2024; Joseph and Bachmann, 2024). When employees feel that their contributions are recognized and that their employer provides adequate resources, they are more likely to develop a stronger attachment to the company. Similarly, perceptions of job security, fairness, and career progression opportunities can significantly shape commitment levels, as employees tend to remain in environments where they feel valued and have long-term prospects (Velican, 2024; Schäfer, 2025).

Another critical factor shaping OC is leadership style. Leadership influences employee engagement, motivation, and overall workplace climate, making it a key determinant of commitment (Hamid et al., 2024). Transformational leaders, who inspire employees through vision, motivation, and personal development, tend to cultivate higher levels of affective and internalized commitment (Bass, 1990; Kim and Lee, 2024). Employees working under transformational leaders often feel emotionally connected to the organization's mission, which enhances their long-term dedication. In contrast, transactional leaders, who focus on structured rewards and task-oriented management, may foster compliance-based commitment, where employees remain in the organization primarily due to external incentives (Griffin, 2024). The ability of leaders to create an inclusive, motivating, and growth-oriented workplace directly impacts employees' willingness to stay engaged and committed.

Beyond leadership, corporate culture also plays a fundamental role in shaping commitment. An organization's culture defines its core values, norms, and expectations, influencing how employees perceive their work environment. Companies that foster collaborative, ethical, and employee-centric cultures tend to see higher levels of affective commitment, as employees feel aligned with the organizational mission and values (Mohamad et al., 2024). In contrast, highly competitive or rigid hierarchical cultures may reduce commitment by creating stress, interpersonal conflicts, or disengagement (Johnson, 2024). Research suggests that organizations with a strong commitment to diversity, inclusion, and employee well-being are more successful in fostering long-term commitment among their workforce (Shafique, 2025).

Given the dynamic nature of workplace commitment, businesses must continuously assess and refine their management practices, leadership approaches, and workplace policies to ensure that they create an environment where employees

feel valued, motivated, and aligned with organizational goals. Understanding the factors that influence OC enables companies to implement effective retention strategies, reduce turnover, and enhance overall business performance. As this study progresses, theories most relevant to organizational behavior and the factors associated with CWE, OC, TC, and RC are presented to act as the main background in support of shaping commitment dynamics in different workplace settings.

B. Social Exchange Theory

1. Overview of Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social Exchange Theory (SET) is a theoretical foundation in organizational behavior and organizational psychology, defining how employee-organization relationships are established through reciprocal exchanges. Blau (1964) first proposed the theory, suggesting people assess the fairness and reciprocal advantage in the perceived employee-organization relationships. Based on perceived fairness and reciprocal advantage, employees determine if the company offers them proper compensation, opportunities to develop, and support, and consequently, influence OC, job motivation, and job performance (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). When employees believe they are getting a good exchange, they are most likely to exhibit greater OC, less turnover intentions, and greater discretion effort (Bourhchouch and Oukassi, 2025; Rabiul et al., 2025). Perceptions of inequity and failure to attain expected outcomes, in turn, are most likely to lead to withdrawal, disengagement, and turnover (Khan et al., 2025).

Trust is central to sustaining reciprocal relationships in SET. Employees who trust their organization to uphold its commitments—such as fair pay, promotions, and a supportive work environment—reciprocate with loyalty and engagement (Emerson, 1976). However, breaches of trust, such as broken promises or perceived favoritism, often lead to decreased commitment and negative workplace attitudes (Aunde and Tolulope, 2025). SET helps explain why employees develop different forms of commitment—affective commitment (emotional attachment), continuance commitment (cost-benefit analysis), and normative commitment (obligation to stay)—based on their workplace experiences (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

SET also justifies the use of a correlational research design in this study, as it

enables an examination of workplace dynamics without assuming direct causality. Since SET posits that employee commitment evolves through ongoing interactions, a correlational approach allows for assessing associations between CWE, OC, TC, and RC (Wadia and Ogbozorb, 2024; Karim, 2024). Unlike experimental research, which seeks cause-and-effect relationships, correlational research is better suited for complex social behaviors, where multiple factors—such as workplace competition, leadership, and interpersonal relationships—interact dynamically (Langreet, 2024; Onyango, 2024).

Additionally, a correlational research design facilitates the study of mediation effects, making it ideal for examining the mediating role of TC and RC in the CWE-OC relationship. SET suggests that OC is shaped by a series of professional and social interactions rather than a single event. By exploring whether workplace conflict mediates the effects of CWE on OC, this study aligns with SET's principle of dynamic exchange, reinforcing the rationale for a correlational methodology (Terrell, 2024; Hussain, 2024).

C. Competitive Work Environments

1. Definition and Theoretical Perspectives on CWE

CWE are working situations in which employees compete to gain rewards, appreciation, and promotions. CWE are most commonly found in performance-based cultures, in which achievements are measured in comparison to others (Fletcher and Nusbaum, 2010). CWE could develop through company practices, such as promotions and incentives, or through company interpersonal relationships, enhancing rivalry (Brown, Cron, and Slocum, 1998). CWE, in pushing employees to enhance efficiency and creative effort, could also lead to job pressure and interpersonal conflict (Vij and Sharma, 2025; Mishra et al., 2025).

A key differentiation in CWE research comes in the difference between Competitive Climate and CWE. CWE are the organizational and structure elements in support of the encouragement and facilitation of competition, such as reward and evaluation mechanisms (Fletcher and Nusbaum, 2010). Competitive Climate, in contrast, are employees' perceptions about the climate of competition, in the sense that employees in the same CWE hold different perceptions about competitive

pressure based on internal dispositions such as interpersonal relationships, ambition, and resilience at the workplace (Brown, Cron, and Slocum, 1998). This distinction is critical because an organization may implement competitive policies, but their impact depends on how employees interpret and respond to them (Dhir and Vallabh, 2025).

Academic perspectives on CWE are divided between those who see competition as a performance-enhancing factor and those who emphasize its potential drawbacks. Proponents of CWE argue that competition fosters motivation, efficiency, and innovation. According to Competitive Advantage Theory (Porter, 1985), organizations that encourage competition can achieve higher levels of productivity and skill development. When employees compete for rewards and recognition, they may push themselves to achieve greater results, develop expertise, and contribute more actively to organizational success (Thor, 2025; Liu et al., 2025). This perspective suggests that CWE is particularly beneficial in target-driven industries such as sales, finance, and technology, where individual performance directly affects business outcomes (Dhir and Vallabh, 2025).

However, critics argue that excessive competition can erode teamwork, increase stress, and foster workplace conflict (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954) explains that individuals in highly competitive environments frequently evaluate their own performance relative to their peers, leading to anxiety, dissatisfaction, and disengagement when they perceive themselves as underperforming (Mishra et al., 2025). Moreover, highly competitive environments may incentivize unethical behaviors, such as withholding information, prioritizing individual success over team performance, or even workplace sabotage (Huseynzada, 2025).

A more balanced perspective comes from the theory of Dynamic Competition, whereby CWE is neither good nor bad, and the impact depends on the organisational culture, the quality of the leadership, and the support mechanisms in the workforce (Pratama and Martono, 2025). Competition, if integrated into the structure in the manner of balanced rewards, objective evaluation mechanisms, and team-oriented culture, could enhance the workforce's performance and prevent promoting enmity. Competition, if poorly managed and highly competitive, could lead to conflict, pressure, and disengagement (Zolfaghari Zaferani et al., 2025).

Given these competing perspectives, CWE must be put into perspective in terms of other elements in the workplace, including team relationships, the style of the leader, and employee attitudes. The sections to be discussed later shall look at CWE in terms of how CWE, TC, and RC impact OC and gain further understanding about how CWE performs in the working world.

2.   Dimensions of Competitive Work Environments

CWE are multifaceted, in the sense that employees compete for different sources of rewards, recognition, and status. CWE, while enhancing the motive and productivity, depends to a great extent on the nature of the competition employees face and how the company deals with it (Fletcher and Nusbaum, 2010). CWE research suggests four major CWE dimensions, including competition for rewards, competition for status, competition for recognition, and coworker-driven competition (Brown, Cron, and Slocum, 1998). All the CWE dimensions impact employee conduct and organizational life differently, influencing both favorable and unfavorable outcomes in the workplace (Beikzad and Mokhtari, 2024; Pourshahabi et al., 2024).

Competition for Rewards

One of the most common forms of workplace competition is competition for rewards, where employees strive to outperform their peers to receive tangible incentives such as bonuses, salary increases, and promotions. This type of competition is typically structured through performance-based reward systems that rank employees based on key performance indicators (KPIs) or predefined organizational objectives (Mishra et al., 2024).

Proponents argue that reward-based competition enhances motivation, efficiency, and goal achievement, particularly in industries where performance metrics are clearly measurable, such as sales and finance (Porter, 1985; Nicolescu and Rîpa, 2024). Employees who perceive the reward system as fair and transparent are more likely to remain engaged and committed to their work (Mohmedi et al., 2024). However, if competition for rewards is perceived as unfair or excessively stressful, it may foster resentment, unethical behavior, or decreased team cohesion (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). Employees who fail to secure rewards may experience demotivation and job dissatisfaction, which could ultimately reduce OC

(Shakki et al., 2024).

Competition for Recognition

Unlike competition for rewards, which involves tangible benefits, competition for recognition is centered on social and psychological validation. Employees in this dimension of CWE seek to be acknowledged as top performers through awards, public praise, or informal recognition by supervisors and peers (Fletcher and Nusbaum, 2010). Organizations that emphasize employee recognition programs foster an environment where employees are motivated to excel, often leading to higher job satisfaction and increased discretionary effort (Al-Dhabibi, 2024).

However, recognition-based competition can also create unintended consequences. Employees who do not receive acknowledgment may feel overlooked or undervalued, leading to disengagement and dissatisfaction (Beikzad and Mokhtari, 2024). Additionally, if recognition is given inconsistently or perceived as biased, it can lead to feelings of favoritism, creating divisions among employees and potentially increasing workplace conflict (Zhou, 2024). Thus, while healthy recognition-based competition can enhance performance and motivation, organizations must ensure that recognition is distributed fairly and transparently to prevent workplace tensions (Mishra et al., 2024).

Competition for Status

Competition for status refers to employees striving to enhance their hierarchical position within the organization. This form of competition is often linked to job titles, privileges, and professional influence (Brown, Cron, and Slocum, 1998). Employees competing for status aim to secure leadership roles, gain access to exclusive resources, or establish themselves as key decision-makers (Pourshahabi et al., 2024).

In organizations where hierarchical advancement is highly valued, status-driven competition can lead to increased ambition, career growth, and innovation (Porter, 1985; Langreet, 2024). Employees may actively seek to develop new skills, expand their professional networks, and demonstrate leadership qualities to secure higher-ranking positions (Mishra et al., 2024). However, excessive status competition can also generate workplace tensions, particularly when employees

engage in rivalry, power struggles, or exclusionary behaviors (Shakki et al., 2024). If status mobility is perceived as restricted or based on favoritism, employees may experience frustration, reduced engagement, or even turnover intentions (Nicolescu and Rîpa, 2024).

Coworker-Driven Competition

Beyond structured organizational incentives, competition often emerges informally through coworker-driven rivalry. In this form of CWE, employees compete against one another for influence, expertise recognition, or peer comparison (Fletcher and Nusbaum, 2010). Unlike competition for rewards, recognition, or status, coworker-driven competition is often self-imposed, arising from personal ambitions, professional comparisons, or competitive workplace cultures (Al-Dhabibi, 2024).

While coworker-driven competition can drive individual performance and innovation, it also presents significant risks if not managed effectively. In highly competitive environments, employees may prioritize outperforming their colleagues over collaboration, leading to knowledge hoarding, workplace conflicts, and reduced team cohesion (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). Additionally, organizations that fail to set clear team-based goals may inadvertently encourage destructive competition, where employees undermine each other rather than contributing collectively to organizational success (Zhou, 2024).

The four CWE dimensions have distinct contributions to making the workplace what it is. Competition, in turn, stimulates employees, encourages professional improvement, and stimulates organizational achievements, but also yields tensions, disengagement, and pressure if poorly managed. It's necessary to recognize and scrutinize the dimensions to attain the balancing act between competitions and cooperation to increase employee engagement and long-term organizational attachment. The succeeding sections in this research shall look into how CWE co-occurs and co-relates to TC and RC to influence OC and provide greater implications in the overall workspace.

3. Dynamic Competition Theory: How CWE Evolves Over Time

CWE are not static; rather, they evolve based on leadership strategies, market conditions, and corporate priorities. Dynamic Competition Theory suggests that

competition in the workplace fluctuates over time, influenced by organizational culture, industry demands, and employee perceptions (Zhu, 2024; Haozhe and Nazarenko, 2024). Unlike traditional models that view competition as a fixed characteristic, this perspective recognizes that competition can be intensified or moderated depending on external and internal factors (Reznik et al., 2025).

Leadership plays a crucial role in shaping CWE. Transformational leaders, who emphasize innovation and collaboration, may reduce excessive competition by fostering team-oriented goals, while transactional leaders, who reward individual performance, may amplify competitive behaviors (Bass, 1990). Similarly, market conditions influence CWE dynamics, during periods of economic stability, organizations may encourage healthy competition for career growth, whereas in uncertain times, competitive pressures may increase, leading to stress and workplace conflict (Najafi Arkhodi et al., 2024). Corporate strategy also determines how competition is managed; some organizations prioritize internal competition to drive productivity, while others adopt collaborative models to enhance teamwork (Stratone and Vatamanescu, 2024).

The impact of CWE on OC also varies over time. In the short term, competition can serve as a motivational driver, encouraging employees to strive for excellence, develop skills, and contribute actively to organizational goals (Porter, 1985). Employees may experience increased engagement and performance when competition is perceived as fair and merit-based (Rawat and Barnes, 2024). However, in the long term, sustained high competition may lead to burnout, workplace stress, and declining job satisfaction, particularly if employees feel excessive pressure or a lack of job security (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). This shift can reduce affective commitment, as employees may become disillusioned with a highly competitive work culture, leading to higher turnover intentions and disengagement (Chen and Wang, 2025).

D. Workplace Conflict, Conflict Management, and the Mediating Role of Conflict

1. Workplace Conflict in Competitive Work Environments

Conflict is an inevitable part of organizational life, particularly in CWE,

where employees compete for rewards, recognition, and career advancement. However, the way conflict is managed determines whether it becomes a constructive force that enhances performance and commitment or a destructive force that disrupts teamwork and trust (Rahim, 2002). Conflict Management Theory (CMT) provides a framework for understanding how workplace conflicts emerge, escalate, and can be effectively resolved to improve organizational outcomes (Ali and Cai, 2024).

CMT distinguishes between functional and dysfunctional conflict. Functional conflict, often associated with TC, can lead to innovation, critical thinking, and improved decision-making when managed properly (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). In contrast, dysfunctional conflict, commonly linked to RC, tends to harm employee relationships, reduce job satisfaction, and lower OC (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). The challenge for organizations is to mitigate the negative effects of relationship conflict while leveraging the potential benefits of task conflict (Zhou, 2024).

2. Conflict Management and Its Impact on Workplace Conflict

According to CMT, conflict management strategies fall into five main categories: avoiding, accommodating, competing, compromising, and collaborating (Rahim, 2002). Avoiding conflict may reduce immediate tensions but often leads to unresolved issues that resurface later. Accommodating and compromising approaches help maintain workplace harmony but may not always address the root causes of conflict. Competing strategies, which prioritize winning over resolution, can exacerbate CWE tensions, particularly if they foster interpersonal hostility. The most effective approach is collaboration, which encourages open dialogue and problem-solving, making task conflict productive while preventing relationship conflict from damaging workplace commitment (Ali and Cai, 2024).

Organizations that adopt proactive conflict management strategies create environments where employees feel safe to express diverse opinions without fear of retaliation or hostility. When conflict is handled constructively, employees remain engaged and committed, viewing disagreements as opportunities for growth rather than sources of tension (Edmondson, 1999). This perspective is critical in understanding why TC and RC serve as mediators in the CWE-OC relationship—their effects are largely shaped by how conflicts are managed within the organization.

3. Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict in CWE

TC refers to disagreements related to work processes, decision-making, and resource allocation. It occurs when employees or teams have differing opinions about how tasks should be completed, what strategies should be prioritized, or how organizational goals should be achieved (Petitta and Ghezzi, 2025). When managed effectively, task conflict can lead to constructive discussions, enhanced problem-solving, and innovation, making it a potentially beneficial aspect of workplace dynamics (Tjosvold, 2008; Geraldes et al., 2024).

RC, on the other hand, arises from emotional and interpersonal tensions between employees. Unlike task conflict, which is work-related, relationship conflict is often driven by personality clashes, miscommunication, or perceived personal offenses (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). RC tends to be more disruptive than TC, as it fosters negative emotions, erodes trust, and diminishes collaboration (Rusu, 2024). When unresolved, relationship conflict can create a toxic work environment, leading to disengagement and reduced OC (Arshad et al., 2024). While both types of conflict exist in competitive settings, their impact on OC differs significantly, making it essential to examine their effects separately.

4. The Mediating Role of Workplace Conflict

TC and RC play a significant role in mediating how CWE influence OC. While CWE inherently fosters competition, the presence of workplace conflict determines whether this competition enhances employee commitment or undermines it. When CWE generates task conflict in a controlled and constructive manner, it can increase OC by fostering innovation, collaboration, and problem-solving (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). Employees who experience healthy levels of task conflict engage in discussions that refine processes, improve efficiency, and lead to better decision-making (Zhou, 2024). Research suggests that teams experiencing moderate levels of task conflict often report higher engagement, stronger commitment to shared goals, and improved work performance (Tjosvold, 2008).

However, whether TC enhances or hinders OC depends on conflict resolution mechanisms. If organizations encourage collaborative problem-solving and provide structured avenues for addressing task-related disputes, employees remain engaged and committed to their roles (Ali and Cai, 2024). Conversely, if task conflicts

escalate without proper resolution, they can turn into frustration, disengagement, and ultimately lower commitment (Rahim, 2002). Therefore, task conflict acts as a mediator—in CWE, it has the potential to either strengthen or weaken OC, depending on how it is managed.

Unlike task conflict, RC consistently has negative effects on OC. CWE environments often create heightened competition and pressure, increasing the likelihood of personality clashes, resentment, and interpersonal tensions (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). When competition is perceived as unfair or excessively intense, employees may begin to view their colleagues as rivals rather than collaborators, leading to distrust, communication breakdowns, and reduced engagement (Zhou, 2024).

RC disrupts team cohesion and psychological safety, making employees feel uncomfortable, unsupported, and less committed to their workplace (Edmondson, 1999). Unlike TC, which can be channeled productively, RC tends to persist over time, eroding trust and weakening workplace relationships (Ali and Cai, 2024). Employees who frequently experience relationship conflict are more likely to disengage, develop turnover intentions, and report lower job satisfaction (Rahim, 2002).

Moreover, leadership plays a crucial role in determining the severity of relationship conflict. Leaders who fail to mediate interpersonal disputes or who encourage cutthroat competition risk creating environments where relationship conflict thrives, leading to high levels of stress and low levels of OC (Ali and Cai, 2024). Therefore, RC serves as a mediator that consistently weakens OC, reinforcing the importance of conflict resolution strategies in CWE settings.

E. Psychological Safety Theory and Its Impact on Relationship Conflict and Organizational Commitment

1. Definition of Psychological Safety

Psychological Safety Theory explains how employees' willingness to engage, collaborate, and commit to their organization is influenced by their perception of a safe and supportive work environment (Edmondson, 1999). Psychological safety refers to an employee's belief that they can express their ideas, ask questions, or take

risks without fear of embarrassment, punishment, or interpersonal retaliation (Creon and Schermuly, 2024). When employees trust their organization and feel safe within their teams, they are more likely to exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction, engagement, and OC (Vavilkina, 2024).

In CWE, psychological safety plays a crucial role in determining whether workplace competition leads to motivation and innovation or workplace stress and disengagement. Employees who perceive their workplace as psychologically safe are better equipped to handle competition and task-related disagreements without fear of negative repercussions (Creon and Schermuly, 2024). Conversely, a lack of psychological safety can create a culture of fear, distrust, and emotional exhaustion, which significantly lowers commitment levels (Kraus et al., 2024).

2. Why Relationship Conflict is More Damaging Than Task Conflict

The presence of RC in the competitive working climate undermines the sense of psychological security, and to a greater magnitude, the effect on OC in comparison to TC. Based on interpersonal tensions, trust, and pressure, employees exposed to RC feel isolated, alone, and hesitant to engage in working interactions (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). Therefore, RC sets a toxic working climate in which employees are less cooperative, less likely to share ideas, and less loyal to the company (Jaïdi, 2024).

In contrast, TC does not necessarily harm commitment if managed effectively. Disagreements about work processes, strategies, or decision-making can be constructive if they are addressed through open communication and collaborative problem-solving (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). Unlike RC, TC does not inherently disrupt trust, psychological safety, or workplace relationships. When employees feel safe voicing differing opinions in a non-hostile manner, they may remain engaged, motivated, and committed to organizational goals (Creon and Schermuly, 2024).

Given that RC directly threatens psychological safety, organizations that fail to mitigate interpersonal conflicts risk lowering employee engagement, increasing turnover intentions, and fostering workplace dissatisfaction. Therefore, reducing RC and fostering a psychologically safe environment is crucial for sustaining high levels of OC, particularly in competitive work settings.

F.   The Role of Leadership in Competitive Work Environments and Workplace Conflict

Leadership plays a crucial role in shaping CWE by influencing how competition is structured, perceived, and managed. Two primary leadership styles, Transformational and Transactional Leadership, affect CWE and workplace conflict in distinct ways (Bass, 1990). Transformational leaders encourage collaboration, innovation, and employee development, fostering a workplace where competition is balanced with teamwork (Wondrusch, 2024). They emphasize shared goals and psychological safety, which can help mitigate the negative effects of relationship conflict while maintaining the benefits of task conflict (Kraus et al., 2024). Employees under transformational leadership are more likely to experience healthy competition that drives motivation without excessive interpersonal tension (Jaïdi, 2024). In contrast, Transactional leaders focus on performance-based incentives, structured rewards, and hierarchical authority (Burns, 1978). While this leadership style can enhance short-term productivity by reinforcing competitive performance metrics, it may also intensify rivalry, increase relationship conflict, and weaken collaboration (Ali and Cai, 2024). In highly transactional environments, employees may prioritize individual success over team cohesion, potentially reducing OC if competition becomes too aggressive (Creon and Schermuly, 2024). Leadership also moderates CWE's effects on workplace conflict by shaping how employees perceive and respond to competitive pressures. Leaders who actively manage competition through fair policies and open communication can reduce relationship conflict and promote constructive task conflict (Creon and Schermuly, 2024), while ineffective leadership may allow workplace tensions to escalate, negatively affecting commitment levels (Ali and Cai, 2024). Effective leaders establish clear performance expectations, encourage ethical competition, and create transparent reward systems to prevent CWE from fostering interpersonal hostility (Jaïdi, 2024). Transformational leaders, in particular, facilitate open discussions and conflict resolution, ensuring that competition remains productive rather than destructive (Wondrusch, 2024). Moreover, leadership influences OC by determining whether employees feel supported, valued, and fairly treated. Employees who believe the support and justice are provided by the leaders are also expected to be involved and committed, even in competitive working places (Meyer and Allen, 1991). But employees who are

exposed to the favor, unequal competitions, and perceived lack of support from the leader are expected to experience greater conflict in the working place and less OC (Kraus et al., 2024). Although leadership wont be a variable in this study, we should acknowledge its moderating role in CWE and workplace conflict in order to give a full understanding of workplace competition dynamics.

G.   Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory and Its Implications for CWE and OC

1.   Overview of JD-R Theory

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory provides a framework for understanding how workplace conditions shape employee well-being, motivation, and OC. The theory posits that every job has two fundamental elements: job demands, which refer to the psychological, emotional, and physical stressors associated with work, and job resources, which include factors that help employees manage these demands effectively (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Job demands, such as high workloads, tight deadlines, and competitive pressures, can lead to stress and burnout if employees do not have sufficient job resources to counterbalance them (Hessari et al., 2024). Conversely, job resources, such as supportive leadership, opportunities for skill development, and a collaborative work environment, can enhance motivation and engagement, ultimately strengthening OC (Li and Zhang, 2024).

Within CWE, employees frequently experience high job demands due to performance-based competition, evaluation systems, and pressure to outperform colleagues. However, the impact of CWE on OC depends on the availability of job resources that help employees manage the pressures of competition. In organizations where employees receive the necessary support, CWE can be a motivating force that enhances performance and commitment. In contrast, if competition is excessively demanding without proper resources, it can lead to workplace stress, interpersonal tensions, and disengagement (Hessari et al., 2024). JD-R Theory thus provides an important perspective for understanding why CWE affects employees differently, depending on the broader work environment.

2. CWE as a Challenge vs. Hindrance Stressor

JD-R Theory further differentiates between challenge stressors and hindrance stressors, which help explain why CWE sometimes drives motivation and commitment while at other times leads to stress and disengagement (Crawford et al., 2010). CWE can function as a challenge stressor when employees view competition as an opportunity to grow, excel, and enhance their skills. In organizations that foster a fair and transparent competitive culture, employees perceive competition as a positive force that stimulates innovation, goal achievement, and career progression. This perception strengthens OC, as employees feel valued and motivated to invest in their work (Hessari et al., 2024).

However, CWE can also act as a hindrance stressor when competition is perceived as excessive, unfair, or disruptive. In environments where competition is poorly managed, employees may feel that success is based on favoritism, unrealistic expectations, or a lack of teamwork. Instead of feeling motivated, employees may experience workplace anxiety, job dissatisfaction, and interpersonal conflict. Over time, these stressors weaken their commitment to the organization, leading to disengagement and increased turnover intentions (Li and Zhang, 2024). The distinction between CWE as a challenge or hindrance stressor highlights the importance of organizational policies and leadership in shaping how employees experience workplace competition.

3. The Impact of Job Resources on CWE and OC

Job resources play a crucial role in moderating the relationship between CWE and OC, determining whether employees thrive or struggle in a competitive setting. Employees in high-resource environments, where they receive clear guidance, leadership support, and access to development opportunities, are more likely to view competition as a positive challenge. In such settings, CWE can drive engagement and motivation, as employees feel empowered to leverage competition for personal and professional growth (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Organizations that cultivate team collaboration, fairness in rewards, and mentorship programs create a work culture where CWE strengthens rather than weakens OC.

Conversely, employees in low-resource environments are more vulnerable to the negative effects of CWE. When job demands, such as intense competition and

performance pressure, are not met with adequate support, employees are more likely to feel overwhelmed, isolated, and stressed. The lack of resources to manage competitive pressures can lead to burnout, workplace conflict, and declining engagement, ultimately reducing their commitment to the organization (Hessari et al., 2024). Without structured career development programs, transparent reward systems, or effective conflict resolution strategies, CWE may become an ongoing source of stress rather than a motivator, pushing employees toward disengagement.

By recognizing the critical role of job resources, organizations can better understand how CWE influences OC and take proactive steps to ensure that competition is structured, fair, and well-supported. This alignment between job demands and resources is essential for ensuring that CWE acts as a driver of commitment rather than a source of workplace stress.

H. Cultural Moderators: How Workplace Culture Influences the CWE-OC Relationship

1. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions and CWE

Culture plays a significant role in shaping how employees perceive and respond to CWE. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory provides a framework for understanding cross-cultural differences in workplace behavior, competition, and conflict resolution (Hofstede, 1980). Two key cultural dimensions—Individualism vs. Collectivism and Power Distance—are particularly relevant in determining how CWE affects OC across different cultural contexts (Mangula, 2023).

Individualism vs. Collectivism is a key determinant of how workplace competition is perceived and internalized by employees. In individualistic cultures, such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada, competition is generally encouraged, and success is measured by individual achievements. Employees in these cultures often view CWE as a motivational force that drives personal success, skill development, and career advancement (Liu and Li, 2024). They are more likely to embrace competition as a challenge stressor that enhances commitment, provided they perceive the system as fair and meritocratic.

Conversely, in collectivist cultures, such as Japan, China, and South Korea, the emphasis is placed on group harmony, teamwork, and collective success

(Hofstede, 1980). Employees in these cultures may perceive intense workplace competition as disruptive, particularly if it threatens group cohesion or fosters interpersonal conflict (Mangula, 2023). In collectivist societies, CWE that prioritizes individual success over team outcomes may be viewed negatively, leading to higher relationship conflict and lower OC (Kashima, 2024). Organizations operating in collectivist cultures may need to adapt competitive structures by incorporating collaborative incentives that balance performance-based rewards with team-oriented goals.

Another critical dimension is Power Distance, which refers to the extent to which employees accept hierarchical structures and unequal power distribution in organizations (Hofstede, 1980). In high power distance cultures, such as many Middle Eastern, Latin American, and Asian countries, employees are accustomed to strict workplace hierarchies, where leadership decisions significantly shape the competitive environment (Mangula, 2023). Employees may be less likely to challenge authority or openly compete with superiors, meaning CWE must be structured in a way that aligns with cultural expectations of respect and seniority (Alfifi, 2024).

In contrast, in low power distance cultures, such as Denmark, Sweden, and the Netherlands, workplace structures tend to be more egalitarian, and employees are comfortable engaging in open competition even with higher-ranking colleagues (Liu and Li, 2024). CWE in these cultures is more dynamic and less constrained by hierarchy, meaning employees may perceive healthy workplace competition as an opportunity for advancement rather than a source of stress (Mangula, 2023).

2. How Cultural Norms Affect Workplace Competition and Conflict

Cultural norms significantly influence how employees experience and respond to CWE, workplace conflict, and commitment levels. One of the most notable cultural distinctions is Western vs. Eastern workplace environments, which differ in their approaches to competition, collaboration, and conflict resolution.

Western workplace cultures, particularly in North America and parts of Europe, tend to embrace competition as an essential driver of productivity and innovation. Employees are encouraged to outperform their peers, with workplace structures often designed around individual achievements, merit-based rewards, and

direct communication (Liu and Li, 2024). In these settings, CWE is more likely to be seen as a motivator, reinforcing commitment as long as competition is perceived as fair and structured. However, if CWE leads to excessive interpersonal rivalry, it can still result in relationship conflict that diminishes engagement (Alfifi, 2024).

In contrast, Eastern workplace cultures, including those in Asia and the Middle East, tend to prioritize group harmony, long-term stability, and respect for hierarchy (Hofstede, 1980). In these environments, excessive competition may be viewed as disruptive, particularly if it creates tensions within teams. Employees in these cultures are often less likely to engage in open workplace conflict but may instead experience indirect stress or disengagement when CWE is perceived as too aggressive or threatening to group cohesion (Mangula, 2023). As a result, companies operating in Eastern cultural contexts may need to modify competitive structures to incorporate more collaborative elements, such as team-based incentives rather than purely individual competition (Kashima, 2024).

Beyond national cultures, corporate culture also plays a key role in shaping how CWE is experienced. Industries with highly competitive corporate cultures, such as finance, technology, and sales, tend to reinforce CWE by structuring workplace success around rankings, performance metrics, and high-stakes incentives (Alfifi, 2024). In these industries, employees may expect competition and thrive under pressure, assuming sufficient job resources are in place. However, in industries where collaboration and creativity are central to productivity, such as healthcare, education, and design, CWE may reduce commitment rather than enhance it, as employees may feel that competition undermines the cooperative nature of their work (Liu and Li, 2024).

3. Hypotheses Development

Building on the theoretical framework, this section outlines the development of the study's hypotheses, linking Competitive Work Environments (CWE), TC, RC, and OC. The hypotheses are derived from Social Exchange Theory (SET), Conflict Management Theory (CMT), Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory, and Psychological Safety Theory, providing a strong theoretical foundation for examining these relationships. Figure 1 presents the conceptual model that guides this study. It illustrates the direct and indirect relationships among CWE, workplace

conflict (TC and RC), and OC. The model proposes that CWE influences OC both directly (H1) and indirectly through the mediating effects of RC (H6) and TC (H7). The diagram also depicts the hypothesized positive relationships between CWE and conflict types (H2 and H3), as well as the negative associations between conflict and commitment (H4 and H5). The solid arrows indicate direct relationships, while the dashed arrows represent the mediating role of conflict in the CWE-OC relationship.
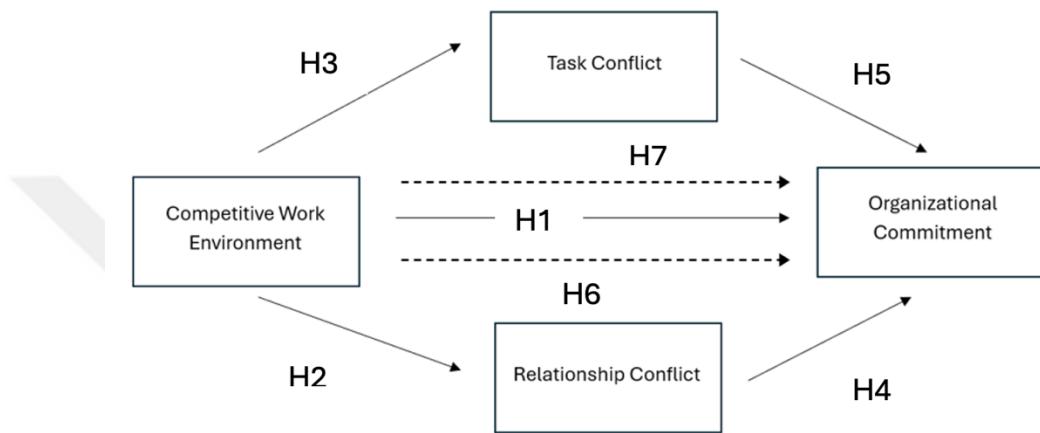
Figure 1: Conceptual Model

CWE fosters a performance-driven culture where employees are motivated to excel, achieve career advancement, and contribute to organizational success. In dynamic and goal-oriented workplaces, competition can serve as a challenge stressor, encouraging employees to enhance their skills, stay engaged, and strive for excellence (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Social Exchange Theory (SET) suggests that when organizations provide fair and transparent competitive structures, employees perceive the workplace as rewarding, reinforcing their sense of commitment. Similarly, Psychological Safety Theory highlights that in structured CWE, where employees feel supported rather than threatened, competition can strengthen engagement and workplace belonging (Edmondson, 1999). While excessive competition may introduce conflict, its positive aspects—such as career growth opportunities and performance-based recognition—can outweigh potential drawbacks, ultimately reinforcing OC. As a result of this reasoning, I hypothesize the following:

H1: Competitive work environments positively affect organizational commitment.

CWE inherently fosters interpersonal tensions, as employees compete for limited organizational resources. According to Conflict Management Theory (CMT), workplaces with high competition often experience relationship-based conflicts, characterized by animosity, distrust, and personal clashes (Rahim, 2002). When competition is perceived as unfair or overly aggressive, employees may experience hostility toward colleagues, leading to deteriorating workplace relationships and increased RC (Ismail, 2024). For that reason, I hypothesize the following:

H2: Competitive work environments positively affect relationship conflict.

In contrast to relationship conflict, TC arises when employees disagree over work-related decisions, processes, or strategies. CWE can stimulate healthy task conflict, as competition encourages employees to challenge ideas, improve decision-making, and foster innovation (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). However, according to Dynamic Competition Theory, CWE's effects on TC can vary, with moderate competition enhancing constructive discussions while excessive competition causes dysfunction (Porter, 1985). For that reason, I hypothesize the following:

H3: Competitive work environments positively affect task conflict.

RC disrupts workplace collaboration, trust, and team cohesion, which significantly lowers OC. According to Psychological Safety Theory, a work environment marked by interpersonal hostility weakens employees' sense of security, leading to withdrawal behaviors, job dissatisfaction, and disengagement (Edmondson, 1999). As employees face persistent interpersonal stress, they are more likely to feel disconnected from the organization, ultimately reducing OC (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). For that reason, I hypothesize the following:

H4: Relationship conflict negatively affects organizational commitment.

Although Task Conflict can have constructive elements, unmanaged or prolonged task-related disputes may lead to workplace frustration and disengagement. According to Conflict Management Theory, poorly resolved TC can create decision-making inefficiencies and reduced teamwork, thereby lowering commitment (Rahim, 2002). When employees struggle with persistent disagreements over job roles, processes, or expectations, they may experience reduced engagement

and motivation to remain within the organization (Muslimin et al., 2024). For that reason, I hypothesize the following:

H5: Task conflict negatively affects organizational commitment.

CWE fosters intense interpersonal rivalries, which in turn influence OC through the presence of RC. According to Social Exchange Theory, employees remain committed when they perceive workplace relationships as supportive and fair (Blau, 1964). However, when CWE leads to interpersonal hostility, employees feel disconnected, reducing their willingness to stay (Pimpong, 2023). This suggests that RC may have a mediating role in the relationship between CWE and OC, reinforcing the negative impact of CWE on employee retention and engagement. For that reason, I hypothesize the following:

H6: Relationship conflict has a mediating role in the effect of competitive work environments on organizational commitment.

CWE not only fosters interpersonal disputes but also intensifies disagreements over tasks, roles, and responsibilities. Task Conflict, when well-managed, can enhance engagement, but in many cases, poor conflict resolution mechanisms turn it into a stressor that decreases OC (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). JD-R Theory suggests that if organizations fail to provide adequate resources to resolve task conflicts, CWE may decrease OC by creating persistent inefficiencies and frustrations (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). For that reason, I hypothesize the following:

H7: Task conflict has a mediating role in the effect of competitive work environments on organizational commitment.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study consisted of employees working in team-based settings across various industries. The study focused exclusively on non-managerial employees, ensuring that responses reflected experiences from individuals directly engaged in workplace competition and team interactions. The sample included individuals from both the private and public sectors, providing a diverse representation of workplace environments.

A total of 189 responses were collected. The adequacy of this sample size was evaluated based on the criteria established by Terzis and Economides (2011). According to their guidelines, the minimum required sample size should be the greater of two values. Hence, it should be either ten times the number of items in the most complex construct, or ten times the number of the largest independent variables affecting the dependent variable (Chin, 1998). Given that this study incorporates 17 measurement items, the required minimum sample size was 170 participants. The final sample of 189 valid responses exceeds this threshold, ensuring that the study meets the statistical requirements for regression and correlation analysis. Even though some respondents answered that they were unemployed, retired, or unable to work at the time of the survey. These respondents were included as long as they had relevant past work experience that allowed them to meaningfully evaluate workplace competition, conflict, and OC.

The study employed convenience sampling, a widely used non-probability sampling method where participants are selected based on accessibility and willingness to participate (Etikan, 2016). This approach was chosen due to its practicality in organizational research, allowing for efficient data collection from employees who met the predefined participation criteria. While convenience sampling has limitations in generalizability, it remains an effective method for exploratory studies investigating workplace dynamics (Saunders et al., 2019).

B. Data Collection Instruments

To ensure the validity and reliability of the study, well-established, previously validated measurement scales were adopted. Each scale used a Likert-type response format, enabling participants to indicate their level of agreement or frequency of experience related to CWE, OC, and workplace conflict.

1. Competitive Work Environments

The Competitive Work Environments Scale developed by Fletcher and Nusbaum (2010) was used to assess perceptions of workplace competition. This scale consists of four items, each measuring the extent to which employees experience a competitive atmosphere in their workplace. Responses ranged from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. The original study by Fletcher and Nusbaum (2010) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.80 for this scale. In the present study, the internal consistency was found to be $\alpha = 0.828$, indicating high reliability.

2. Organizational Commitment Scale

The Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) was used to measure employees' emotional and psychological attachment to their organization. This scale comprises of seven items, each assessing the extent to which employees feel aligned with their organization's goals and values. Responses recorded ranged from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. The original study by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.78. In this study, the internal consistency was $\alpha = 0.713$, which falls within the acceptable range (Nunnally, 1978). Notably, items 3 and 6 were reverse-coded to ensure consistency in data interpretation.

3. Task Conflict Scale

The Task Conflict Scale developed by Jehn and Mannix (2001) was used to measure disagreements among team members regarding work-related tasks, processes, and goals. This scale consists of three items, assessing the degree to which employees experience task-related conflicts in their workplace. Responses were recorded on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 = Never to 7 = Every Time. Jehn and Mannix (2001) originally reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.81 for this scale. The

current study found an internal consistency of α = 0.824, confirming the robustness of the measurement instrument.

4. Relationship Conflict Scale

The Relationship Conflict Scale developed by Jehn and Mannix (2001) was used to assess interpersonal tensions and emotional conflicts among coworkers. This scale comprises three items, measuring the extent of emotional distress, hostility, and personal incompatibility in workplace relationships. Responses were recorded on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 = Never to 7 = Every Time. The original study by Jehn and Mannix (2001) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.79. The internal consistency for this study was α = 0.787, which is considered reliable for social science research (Taber, 2017).

C. Data Collection Procedure

The data for this study were collected through an online survey distributed via Google Forms. The survey was designed to gather responses efficiently from a diverse sample of employees working in various industries. Given the global nature of the workforce, an online survey method was chosen to ensure accessibility and convenience for participants across different locations. The survey was administered over a period of approximately seven weeks, from November 19, 2024, to January 7, 2025. This timeframe allowed sufficient opportunity for participants to respond while ensuring an adequate sample size was obtained for statistical analysis. Participants were approached using a combination of professional networks, industry contacts, and online platforms. Additionally, initial respondents were invited to share the survey with colleagues who worked in similar organizational settings. Furthermore, prior to data collection, ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Istanbul Aydin University Social and Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee to ensure compliance with ethical research standards (See Appendix B). The study and scales were reviewed and approved. All participants provided informed consent before completing the survey, ensuring that their responses were voluntary and confidential. No personally identifiable information was collected, maintaining strict adherence to data protection regulations.

D. Data Analysis Strategy

The statistical analysis for this study was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 30, a widely used software for quantitative data analysis due to its robust statistical capabilities, ease of handling large datasets, and compatibility with PROCESS Macro V4.4 for mediation analysis. To ensure a rigorous analysis of the collected data, several statistical tests were performed. First, descriptive statistics analysis was applied to summarize the demographic characteristics of participants and key study variables, calculating mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis to assess central tendencies and distribution. Next, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were employed to evaluate whether the dataset was suitable for factor analysis; a KMO value above 0.70 indicated sampling adequacy, while a significant Bartlett's Test ($p<0.05$) confirmed the presence of inter-item correlations, justifying further analysis (Kaiser, 1974; Bartlett, 1954). Following this, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the direct effects of CWE on OC and the potential impact of TC and RC as mediators, reporting beta coefficients (β), significance values (p), and R-squared (R^2) values. Additionally, Pearson's correlation analysis was used to assess the strength and direction of relationships among CWE, OC, TC, and RC, with significance levels of $p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$ reported. To test mediation effects, PROCESS Macro (Model 4) by Hayes (2013) was utilized to analyze direct, indirect, and total effects, with further statistical validation through the Sobel Test, which computed the Sobel (z) statistic to confirm whether the mediation of TC and RC was significant. These analyses provided a comprehensive statistical framework to evaluate the relationships between CWE, OC, and the mediating role of conflict in the workplace.

IV. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Analysis

1. Demographic Analysis

Analysis of the demographic data was done to understand the sample pool and their profile. The frequency distribution of demographic information is presented in the next subsection.

The gender distribution among the participants was relatively balanced, with 51.9% identifying as male (n=98) and 48.1% as female (n=91). This near-equal representation enhances the generalizability of the findings by ensuring that both male and female perspectives on CWE, task and relationship conflict, and organizational commitment are adequately captured (Figure 2).

Gender Distribution
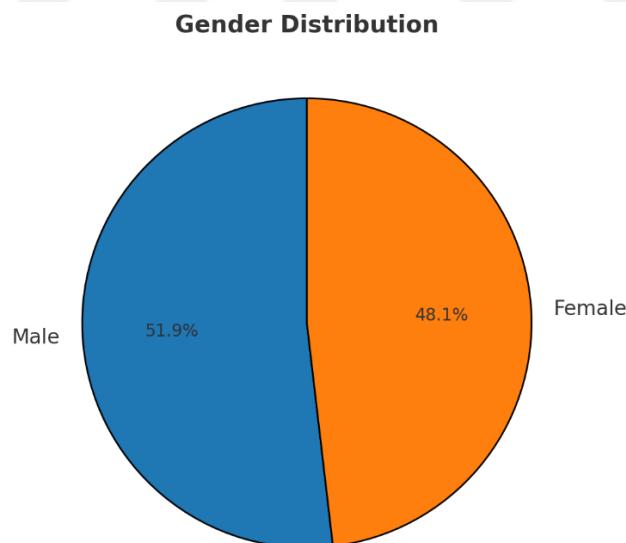
Figure 2: Gender distribution of participants

The results reveal that the majority of participants (69.3%) belonged to the 19-30 age group, followed by 21.7% in the 31-40 age range, while only a small proportion of respondents were aged 41-50 (4.8%) and 51-60 (4.2%) (Figure 3). Additionally, a box plot (Figure 4) was used to visualize the age spread, highlighting

the concentration of younger participants and potential outliers. The data suggests that the sample predominantly consists of younger professionals, which may influence how CWE and conflicts are perceived, given that early-career employees often experience heightened workplace competition as they establish themselves within organizations.
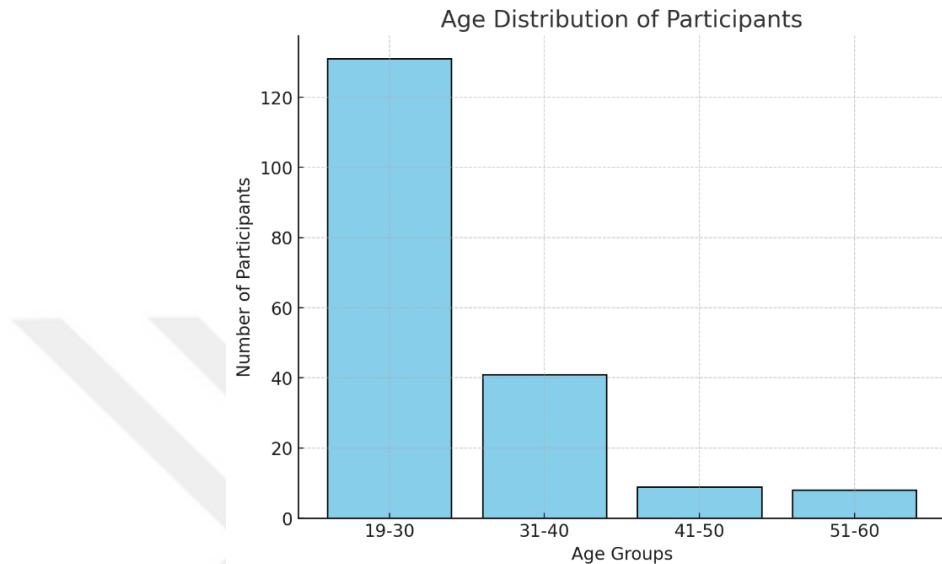
Figure 3: Age distribution of participants
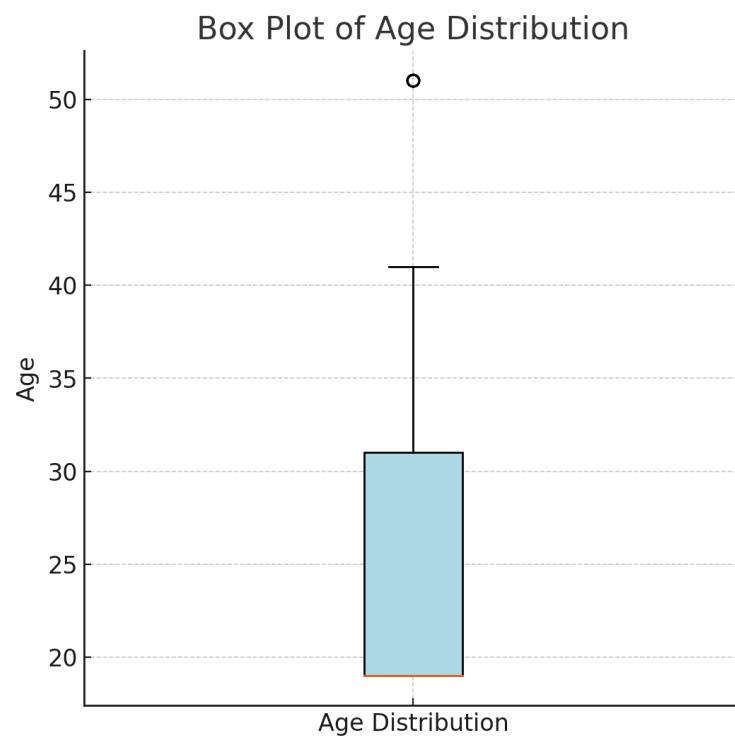
Figure 4: Box Plot for Age distribution

The study sample consists of 189 participants from various employment backgrounds. The majority of respondents (60.8%) were employed full-time, while 14.3% were working part-time. Additionally, 18% were unemployed, 3.2% were unable to work, and 1.6% were retired, indicating a diverse range of employment statuses (M=1.78, SD=1.19). Regarding the job sector, most participants (73.5%) were employed in the private sector, while 26.5% worked in the public sector (M = 1.26, SD = 0.44). Although the respondents were not explicitly asked, a significant number of respondents were affiliated with organizations belonging to the educational sector with other sectors being in the hospitality sector.

The mean age of respondents was 29.73 years (SD = 8.29), reflecting a relatively young workforce. In terms of educational attainment, the majority of participants held a Bachelor's degree (55.6%), followed by Master's degree holders (20.1%) and those with a Ph.D. (12%). A smaller proportion of participants had high school diplomas (7.4%), primary school education (3.2%), or other qualifications (9%) (M = 2.66, SD = 1.31).

Participants represented a wide range of ethnic backgrounds, with Middle Eastern individuals comprising the largest group (45%), followed by Asian (19.6%), White/Caucasian (16.4%), African (9%), Hispanic/Latina (2.1%), North African (5.8%), and Other (2.1%) (M = 3.72, SD = 1.76).

Geographically, respondents were primarily based in Turkey (36.5%) and Saudi Arabia (31.2%). The study results show that the majority of the sample respondents belong to a collectivist culture according to Hofstede's cultural dimensions score. Followed by smaller proportions from Qatar (4.8%), Tunisia (2.6%), Canada (5.8%), and other countries such as USA, United Arab Emirates, Bahrain etc. (19%) (M = 3.24, SD = 1.93).

Regarding monthly income, responses varied significantly, with 27.5% earning more than $2001 per month, while 27% earned between $501–$1000. Meanwhile, 16.4% fell within the $1001–$1500 range, 11.6% between $1501–$2000, and 10.6% earned between $101–$500. A small portion of participants (6.9%) reported earning less than $100 per month (M = 3.98, SD = 1.59).

The descriptive analysis highlights the diverse employment statuses, educational backgrounds, and geographic locations of the sample. The findings

suggest that the sample provides a balanced representation of different workplace environments, contributing to the validity of the study's findings.

On the other hand, to enhance the robustness of the demographic analysis, Skewness and Kurtosis were examined. acceptable ranges typically falling between -2 and +2 for Skewness and -7 and +7 for Kurtosis (Kline, 2011), though stricter thresholds of -1 to +1 for Skewness and -2 to +2 for Kurtosis are sometimes recommended for smaller samples (Hair et al., 2014).

Skewness measures the asymmetry of the distribution of a dataset, indicating whether the values are more concentrated on one side of the mean (Field, 2013). A positive skewness suggests a longer right tail, meaning most values are concentrated toward the lower end, whereas a negative skewness indicates a longer left tail, suggesting most values are concentrated toward the higher end. Kurtosis, on the other hand, assesses the "tailedness" of a distribution—higher kurtosis values indicate heavier tails (more extreme outliers), while lower kurtosis values suggest a more uniform distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2019).

In this study, the age distribution showed a positive skewness (1.208) and a kurtosis of 2.526, indicating that most participants were younger (M = 29.73, SD = 8.29), but a small proportion of older respondents contributed to a longer right tail. This suggests a predominantly young workforce with a few older outliers.

For employment status, skewness (1.682) and kurtosis (2.532) suggest a highly right-skewed distribution, indicating that most participants were employed, but some categories (e.g., unemployed, retired) had much lower representation. Similarly, education level (skewness = 1.659, kurtosis = 2.552) reflects a concentration of respondents with higher education degrees, with fewer participants holding lower educational qualifications.

Regarding ethnicity (skewness = -0.367, kurtosis = -1.318) and country of residence (skewness = 0.038, kurtosis = -1.464), the data is more symmetrically distributed, suggesting a relatively balanced representation of different ethnic groups and nationalities.

Lastly, the income distribution appears slightly negatively skewed (-0.124) and platykurtic

(-1.120), indicating that most respondents reported moderate to higher

incomes rather than extreme variations. Statistical information on Employment Status, Job Sector, Education Level, Ethnicity, Country of Residence, and Income Distribution is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Employment Status, Job Sector, Education Level, Ethnicity, Country of Residence, and Income Distribution

Demographics		Frequency	Percent
	Unemployed	34	18.0
	Unable to Work	6	3.2
Employment	Retired	3	1.6
Status	Part-time	27	14.3
	Full-time	115	60.8
	Contract/Temporary	4	2.1
Job Sector	Public Sector	50	26.5
	Private Sector	139	73.5
	Primary School	6	3.2
	Secondary School	5	2.6
Level of Education	High School	14	7.4
	Bachelor's Degree	105	55.6
	Master's Degree	38	20.1
	PhD	12	12
	Other	9	9
	White/Caucasian	31	16.4
	Asian	37	19.6
Ethnicity	Hispanic/Latina	4	2.1
	African	17	9.0
	Middle Eastern	85	45.0
	North African	1	5.8
	Other	4	2.1
	Turkey	69	36.5
	Tunisia	5	2.6
Country of	Qatar	9	4.8
Residence	Saudi Arabia	59	31.2
	Canada	11	5.8
	Other	36	19.0
	Less than $100	13	6.9
	$101 - $500	20	10.6
Monthly Income	$501 - $1000	51	27.0
	$1001 - $1500	31	16.4
	$1501 - $2000	22	11.6
	More than $2001	52	27.5

The following table represents the mean and standard deviation of the sample to help better understand the overall distribution and consistency of the sample data. with the mean representing the average value while the standard deviation measures the spread of the data around the mean. All of the statistical information is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean and Standard deviation of the sample

Descriptive Statistics	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Age	29.7302	8.29228	1.208	.177	2.526	.352
Gender Identity	1.48	.501	.075	.177	-2.016	.352
Employment Status	1.7831	1.19864	1.682	.177	2.532	.352
Job Sector	1.2646	.44227	1.076	.177	-.851	.352
Level of Education	2.66	1.306	1.659	.177	2.552	.352
Ethnicity	3.72	1.759	-.367	.177	-1.318	.352
Country of Residence	3.243	1.9252	.038	.177	-1.464	.352
Monthly Income	3.98	1.594	-.124	.177	-1.120	.352
CWE	2.9987	.99850	-.006	.177	-.402	.352
OC	3.1376	.71631	-.191	.177	.360	.352
TC	3.3157	1.17687	.367	.177	.370	.352
RC	3.2169	1.36335	.710	.177	-.010	.352

B.   . Inferential Analysis

1.   . Reliability Analysis

The reliability of each scale used in this study was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, a widely accepted statistical measure that evaluates internal consistency. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient above 0.7 is generally considered acceptable, with values above 0.8 indicating high reliability (Taber, 2017). The following subsections present the reliability results for each scale, along with item-total statistics.

The Competitive Work Environments scale (Fletcher and Nusbaum, 2010) comprises four items assessing the extent to which employees perceive their workplace as competitive. The scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.828, indicating a high level of internal consistency (see Table 3). The item-total statistics in Table 4 confirm that removing any item does not significantly improve the reliability, reinforcing the robustness of this scale.

Table 3: Reliability Statistics of Competitive Work Environments

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.828	4

Table 4: Item-Total Statistics for CWE Scale

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CWES1	8.8413	10.039	0.592	0.810
CWES2	9.0423	8.956	0.741	0.742
CWES3	9.0317	9.414	0.721	0.754
CWES4	9.0688	9.543	0.576	0.821

The Organizational Commitment scale (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993) consists of seven items designed to measure employees' commitment to their organization. The reliability analysis produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.713 (Table 5), which falls within the acceptable range (Nunnally, 1978). Two items, OC3 and OC6, were reverse-coded to maintain consistency in interpretation. The adjusted coding is presented below (Table 6):

Reverse-coded Items:

- OC3: "The bonds between this organization and its employees are weak."

- OC6: "Our people have little or no commitment to this business unit."

Table 5: Reliability Statistics of Organizational Commitment

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.713	7

Table 6: Item-Total Statistics for OC Scale

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OCS1	19.0635	19.634	0.353	0.699
OCS2	19.0952	18.161	0.559	0.645
OC3 (Reversed)	18.8201	20.776	0.248	0.725
OCS4	18.5714	18.480	0.589	0.642
OCS5	18.8360	17.659	0.619	0.629
OC6 (Reversed)	18.7302	21.879	0.151	0.747
OCS7	18.6614	18.895	0.533	0.655

The Task Conflict scale (Jehn and Mannix, 2001) consists of three items measuring disagreements regarding work tasks and processes. The scale

demonstrated high reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.824 (Table 7), confirming its suitability for this study (Taber, 2017).

Table 7: Reliability Statistics of Task Conflict

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.824	3

Table 8: Item-Total Statistics for TC Scale

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
TCS1	6.49	6.283	0.661	0.775
TCS2	6.74	5.991	0.689	0.747
TCS3	6.66	5.810	0.689	0.748

The Relationship Conflict scale (Jehn and Mannix, 2001) assesses emotional and interpersonal tensions in the workplace. The scale's Cronbach's alpha was 0.787 (Table 9), suggesting an acceptable level of reliability (Taber, 2017).

Table 9: Reliability Statistics of Relationship Conflict

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.787	3

Table 10: Item-Total Statistics for RC Scale

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
RCS1	6.6296	9.851	0.539	0.800
RCS2	6.4656	7.676	0.660	0.674
RCS3	6.2063	7.154	0.699	0.628

The Cronbach's alphas from all the scales are indicative of high internal consistency, confirming the measurement tools' reliability in the current research. The CWE Scale ($\alpha = 0.828$) and the Task Conflict Scale ($\alpha = 0.824$) are extremely reliable, indicating the consistent measurement by the items in terms of competitive perceptions and task conflict. The Organizational Commitment Scale ($\alpha = 0.713$) is less, but also good, and consistent with other research (Nunnally, 1978). The Relationship Conflict Scale ($\alpha = 0.787$) also depicts good internal consistency, confirming the same in the measurement of tensions at the workplace. Overall, the results confirm the use in the current research by the scales to be statistically reliable, making them fit to use in inferential analysis in the later sections.

2. Validity Analysis

To assess the measurement instrument's validity, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequity and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were carried out in each scale. The KMO test examines if the size of the sample is good enough to carry out the factor analysis, and above 0.60 are regarded to be good and near 1.0 to represent good factorability (Kaiser, 1974). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity tests if the correlation matrix significantly deviates from the identity matrix, so the use of the factor analysis is appropriate (Bartlett, 1954).

Competitive Work Environment Scale:

The KMO test result for the CWE scale was 0.774, indicating a strong level of sampling adequacy. Additionally, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant (χ^2 = 295.802, df = 6, p<.001), confirming that the correlation matrix was suitable for factor analysis (Table 11).

Table 11: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Competitive Work Environment Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.774
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	295.802
	df	6
	Sig.	<.001

The total variance explained was 66.46%, suggesting that the extracted factors effectively capture the variance in CWE perceptions (Table 12).

Table 12: Total Variance Explained for Competitive Work Environment Scale

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.659	66.463	66.463	2.659	66.463	66.463
2	.647	16.165	82.628			
3	.395	9.882	92.511			
4	.300	7.489	100.000			

Table 13: Component Matrix for Competitive Work Environment Scale

	Component
	1
CWES1	.770
CWES2	.874
CWES3	.858
CWES4	.753

The OC scale yielded a KMO value of 0.776, indicating strong sampling adequacy. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 337.787$, df = 21, p<.001), supporting the suitability of factor analysis (Table 14).

Table 14: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Organizational Commitment Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.776
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	337.787
	df	21
	Sig.	<.001

The total variance explained was 41.26%, which, while acceptable, suggests that additional contextual factors may also influence organizational commitment beyond those measured by the scale (Table 15).

Table 15: Total Variance Explained for Organizational Commitment Scale

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.888	41.258	41.258	2.888	41.258	41.258
2	1.443	20.613	61.871			
3	.719	10.272	72.142			
4	.607	8.674	80.816			
5	.496	7.092	87.909			
6	.456	6.509	94.417			
7	.391	5.583	100.000			

Table 16: Component Matrix for Organizational Commitment Scale

	Component 1
OCS1	.610
OCS2	.769
OCS3	.794
OCS4	.787
OCS5	.812
OCS6	.835
OCS7	.753

For the TC scale, the KMO score was 0.720, indicating good factorability for the sample. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 202.343$, df = 3, p<.001), confirming the appropriateness of factor analysis (Table 17).

Table 17: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Task Conflict Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.720
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	202.343
	df	3
	Sig.	<.001

The total variance explained was 73.96%, suggesting that the scale captures the majority of variance in perceptions of task conflict (Table 18).

Table 18: Total Variance Explained for Task Conflict Scale

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.219	73.961	73.961	2.219	73.961	73.961
2	.414	13.802	87.763			
3	.367	12.237	100.000			

Table 19: Component Matrix for Task Conflict Scale

	Component 1
TCS1	.849
TCS2	.866
TCS3	.866

The RC scale demonstrated a KMO score of 0.673, which is considered mediocre but still acceptable for factor analysis (Field, 2024). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 174.528$, df = 3, p<.001), supporting the factor analysis process (Table 20).

Table 20: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Relationship Conflict Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.673
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	174.528
	df	3
	Sig.	<.001

The total variance explained was 70.16%, suggesting that the scale adequately captures variations in relationship conflict perceptions (Table 21).

Table 21: Total Variance Explained for Relationship Conflict Scale

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.105	70.165	70.165	2.105	70.165	70.165
2	.567	18.894	89.059			
3	.328	10.941	100.000			

Table 22: Component Matrix for Relationship Conflict Scale

	Component 1
RCS1	.773
RCS2	.856
RCS3	.880

3. Correlation Analysis

Pearson's correlation test was conducted to assess the strength and direction of relationships between the study variables (Table 19). The results indicate that CWE is positively correlated with OC (r = .194, p = .007), suggesting that higher competition in the workplace is associated with increased commitment. However, both Task Conflict (r = -.167, p = .021) and Relationship Conflict (r = -.248, p<.001) exhibit significant negative correlations with OC, implying that as workplace conflict intensifies, employee commitment declines. Additionally, a strong positive

correlation exists between Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict (r = .546, p<.001), indicating that when one type of conflict increases, the other tends to rise as well (Table 23).

Table 23: Correlation Matrix

Correlations					
		CWE	OC	TC	RC
CWE	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	189			
OC	Pearson Correlation	.194**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007			
	N	189	189		
TC	Pearson Correlation	.332**	-.167*	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.021		
	N	189	189	189	
RC	Pearson Correlation	.291**	-.248**	.546**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	189	189	189	189
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

4. Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was conducted to examine the direct and indirect relationships between CWE, OC, TC, and RC (Table 20). The primary objective was to test the hypotheses (H1-H7) and assess whether Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict mediate the relationship between CWE and OC. The analysis followed a structured three-step approach to mediation, utilizing Hierarchical Regression (Baron and Kenny, 1986), PROCESS Macro Model 4 (Hayes, 2013), and the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) for additional confirmation.

Before conducting mediation analysis, direct effects were tested using regression analysis. The results are presented in Table 20. The hypothesis testing yielded the following results:

- **H1: Competitive Work Environments positively affect Organizational Commitment → Supported (β =.139, p<0.01)**

- **H2: Competitive Work Environments positively affect Relationship Conflict → Supported (β = .291, p<0.01)**

- **H3: Competitive Work Environments positively affect Task Conflict →
  Supported**

- **(β = .332, p<0.01)**

- **H4: Relationship Conflict negatively affects Organizational Commitment
  → Supported (β = -.248, p<0.01)**

- **H5: Task Conflict negatively affects Organizational Commitment →
  Supported**

- **(β = -.167, p<0.05)**

These results confirm that higher competition at work increases both task and
relationship conflict (H2, H3), while higher levels of conflict reduce employee
commitment (H4, H5).

Table 24: Regression Analysis for H1–H5

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Beta (β)	Standard Error	P-Value
Organizational Commitment	Competitive Work Environments	0.139	0.051	p<0.01
Relationship Conflict	Competitive Work Environments	0.291	0.051	p<0.01
Task Conflict	Competitive Work Environments	0.332	0.053	p<0.01
Organizational Commitment	Relationship Conflict	-0.248	0.037	p<0.01
Organizational Commitment	Task Conflict	-0.167	0.045	p<0.05

Before proceeding with the mediation analysis to test H6 and H7, it was
necessary to establish the direct relationships among variables. In line with Baron
and Kenny's (1986) mediation conditions, the first three requirements were
confirmed: (1) the independent variable (CWE) significantly influenced the
dependent variable (OC), (2) CWE had a significant effect on the mediators (TC and
RC), and (3) the mediators (TC and RC) significantly influenced OC. Since these
conditions were met, the next step involved testing the mediating effects of TC and
RC using PROCESS Macro Model 4 (Hayes, 2013).

5. Mediation Analysis for Task Conflict

To assess the mediating effects of Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict, three different approaches were applied. First, Hierarchical Regression (Baron and Kenny, 1986) was used to determine whether the direct relationship between CWE and OC weakened when TC and RC were introduced. Second, PROCESS Macro Model 4 (Hayes, 2013) was employed to measure direct and indirect effects. Finally, the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) was conducted to further confirm mediation effects. The mediation analysis for Task Conflict demonstrated a partial mediation effect. The direct effect of CWE on OC was significant before introducing TC (β = .139, $p<0.01$), but after controlling for TC (Table 21), the effect decreased (β = .0620, $p<0.05$), indicating that CWE influences OC primarily through its impact on Task Conflict. The indirect effect via Task Conflict was significant (β = -0.062, $p<0.05$), confirming partial mediation (Table 25). Mediation effects, as defined by Shrout and Bolger (2002), should be statistically significant if the confidence interval (CI) does not include zero since this would be a statistically significant indirect effect.

Table 25: Mediation results of TC with SPSS Process Macro

Effect	Beta (β)	SE	t	p-value	Confidence Interval (CI)
Direct Effect	.2012	.0530	3.8003	.0002	LLCI: .0968, ULCI: .3057
Indirect Effect	-.0620	.0248	-	Significant	LLCI: -.1155, ULCI: -.0185
Total Effect	.1393	.0515	2.7064	.0074	LLCI: .0378, ULCI: .2408

Table 26 confirms that the mediation model for Task Conflict is statistically significant (R^2 = .0981, F = 10.1132, $p<.0001$), indicating that TC partially mediates the CWE-OC relationship.

Table 26: Mediation analysis model summary for TC

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	Df2	P
.3132	.0981	.4678	10.1132	2.0000	186.0000	.0001

6. Mediation Analysis for Relationship Conflict

Similarly, Relationship Conflict also partially mediated the CWE–OC relationship. The direct effect of CWE on OC before including RC was β = .139, $p<0.01$, but after accounting for RC, the effect was reduced (β = .0695, $p<0.05$). The

indirect effect via RC was significant (β = -0.069, p<0.01), indicating that CWE affects OC through workplace conflict. The mediation effect is supported by the confidence interval values (LLCI and ULCI), which do not include zero, thereby confirming mediation (Shrout and Bolger, 2002). These findings align with prior research emphasizing the negative role of interpersonal conflicts in workplace commitment. The corresponding results are detailed in Table 27.

Table 27: Mediation results of Relationship Conflict with SPSS Process Macro

Effect	Beta (β)	SE	t	p-value	Confidence Interval (CI)
Direct Effect	.2087	.0510	4.0916	.0001	LLCI: .1081, ULCI: .3094
Indirect Effect	-.0695	.0240	-	Significant	LLCI: -.1207, ULCI: -.0274
Total Effect	.1393	.0515	2.7064	.0074	LLCI: .0378, ULCI: .2408

Table 24 confirms that the mediation model for Relationship Conflict is statistically significant (R^2 = .0377, F = 7.3245, p = .0074), indicating that RC partially mediates the CWE-OC relationship.

Table 28: Mediation analysis model summary for RC

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	Df2	P
.1941	.0377	4.964	7.3245	1.0000	187.0000	.0074

To further verify these findings, the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) was conducted. The results confirmed that Task Conflict significantly mediated the CWE–OC relationship (z = -2.158, p = 0.0154) and Relationship Conflict also played a mediating role (z = -2.361, p = 0.0091).

These results further validate the mediation effects established through Baron and Kenny's (1986) and Hayes' (2013) analyses.

Overall, the results provide strong support for the mediating role of workplace conflict in the relationship between CWE and OC. While CWE did not directly reduce OC, it significantly increased both types of conflict, which in turn negatively affected OC. This highlights the importance of conflict management in competitive work environments. A summary of hypothesis testing results is presented in Table 29.

Table 29: Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypotheses	Result
H_1: Competitive Work Environments positively affect Organizational Commitment	Supported
H_2: Competitive Work Environments positively affect Relationship Conflict	
H_3: Competitive Work Environments positively affect Task Conflict	
H_4: Relationship Conflict negatively affects Organizational Commitment	
H_5: Task Conflict negatively affects Organizational Commitment	
H_6: Relationship Conflict has a mediating role in the effect of Competitive Work Environments on Organizational Commitment	
H_7: Task Conflict has a mediating role in the effect of Competitive Work Environments on Organizational Commitment	

The descriptive analysis confirmed that the sample primarily consisted of young professionals with a diverse employment and educational background. Reliability and validity tests supported the robustness of the measurement scales, ensuring the data's suitability for further analysis. Inferential results demonstrated that CWE significantly increased both Task and Relationship Conflict, which in turn negatively affected OC. However, contrary to initial expectations, CWE also had a direct positive effect on OC, suggesting that workplace competition may enhance commitment despite fostering conflict. Mediation analysis using multiple methods confirmed that both types of conflict partially mediated the CWE-OC relationship, as the direct effect of CWE on OC weakened when mediators were introduced, while the indirect effects remained significant. The Sobel test further validated these findings, reinforcing the role of workplace conflict in shaping how competition influences commitment. However, since CWE directly increased OC, rather than negatively impacting it, this suggests that conflict acts as a partial mediating mechanism rather than a full mediator. These results highlight the complexity of CWE's impact, emphasizing the need for effective conflict management strategies to sustain employee commitment in competitive organizational environments.

V.   DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current research was to test the association between CWE and OC and to evaluate the mediating effect of TC and RC between them. The research refutes the conventional assumptions about CWE, revealing that, despite the generation of conflict in the workplace, CWE does not necessarily diminish commitment. Instead, CWE positively affected OC, suggesting that, if seen to be constructive and equitable, competition could enhance employee engagement. The effect, however, depends on the kind and the size of conflict that develops. Relationship Conflict strongly and significantly impacted OC, suggesting the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict. Task Conflict, apart from having a detrimental effect on commitment, also possesses a multifaceted function, and under the right situations, could be constructive. This result resonates in the research objectives of the study, bringing about a balanced explanation of how employee experience in the workplace is affected by competition.

A key finding was that CWE positively impacted OC, refuting previous research suggesting only disengagement and stress resulting from competition (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). More recent research, including Hessari et al. (2024) and Najafi Arkhodi et al. (2024), states, in turn, CWE acts to be a source of motivation if employees experience the competition to be structured and just. This aligns with the theory of Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) in hypothesizing job demands, if framed in terms of challenge, are sources of motivation. Competitive employees may experience structure-based performance goals to be opportunities to develop, leading to greater commitment. Rahman and Zhang (2024) reinforce this perspective, highlighting that competition increases career engagement and goal orientation when employees receive sufficient resources and recognition. This perspective is further supported by the Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), which posits that employees reciprocate perceived organizational investment with loyalty. If competition is structured fairly, employees may see it as an avenue for career advancement rather than a source of stress. However,

Psychological Safety Theory (Edmondson, 1999) cautions that CWE can only enhance OC if employees feel secure in their roles. Recent work by Kraus et al. (2024) confirms this, demonstrating that high-pressure workplaces only sustain commitment when psychological safety is maintained.

The results also confirmed that CWE significantly increases both Relationship Conflict and Task Conflict, aligning with prior research by Jehn and Mannix (2001) and more recent work by Ali and Cai (2024). Conflict Management Theory (Rahim, 2002) explains this by suggesting that competitive environments create conditions where employees must assert themselves, increasing both task-related disagreements and interpersonal friction. Huseynzada (2025) provides further support, emphasizing that competitive pressure in workplaces often leads to misaligned goals, misunderstandings, and heightened interpersonal tensions. The findings reinforce this, showing that employees in highly competitive settings are more likely to experience both work-related disputes and emotional tensions. However, the effects of these conflicts on OC were distinct. Relationship Conflict had a particularly strong negative effect, supporting research that highlights how personal disputes undermine trust and workplace cohesion (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). This finding is also consistent with Petitta and Ghezzi (2025), who show that highly competitive industries often suffer from reduced team cohesion due to unresolved interpersonal disputes. Task Conflict, while also reducing OC, had a more nuanced role. Tjosvold (2008) suggests that task-related disagreements can be beneficial if managed constructively, leading to innovation and enhanced decision-making. More recent findings by Geraldes et al. (2024) confirm this, emphasizing that task-related disputes, when mediated effectively, can enhance organizational learning. However, in environments where task conflicts escalate without resolution, frustration and disengagement can result, ultimately weakening commitment.

The mediating analysis further clarified these relationships, demonstrating that both RC and TC partially mediate the CWE-OC relationship. However, RC had a stronger mediating effect, reinforcing the idea that interpersonal disputes are the primary mechanism through which CWE can undermine commitment. This aligns with Psychological Safety Theory (Edmondson, 1999), which emphasizes that employees must feel secure in their workplace relationships to remain engaged. Recent work by Jaïdi (2024) supports this conclusion, highlighting that organizations

with high interpersonal conflict experience significantly lower retention rates and job satisfaction. The findings also highlight the moderating roles of leadership, cultural values, and job resources. Transformational leaders, as discussed by Wondrusch (2024), can buffer the negative effects of CWE by fostering an inclusive and fair workplace culture, reducing the likelihood of conflict escalation. Cultural dimensions, such as individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede, 1980), further shape these dynamics, with collectivist cultures being more sensitive to interpersonal tensions. Additionally, job resources, such as mentorship programs and structured career pathways, can mitigate the negative effects of competition by ensuring that employees have adequate support. Hessari et al. (2024) confirm that employees in competitive settings with strong career development programs are less likely to experience stress-induced disengagement.

This study extends JD-R Theory by showing that CWE functions as both a motivational driver and a hindrance stressor, depending on job resources (Hessari et al., 2024). It refines Social Exchange Theory by emphasizing that employees reciprocate workplace investments only when competition is perceived as fair and supportive. In Conflict Management Theory, it makes the difference between constructive Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict, the latter constantly undermines OC (Ali and Cai, 2024). This refutes the theory CWE reduces OC, and conflict and psychological safety are the mediating drivers.

To leverage CWE without harming OC, companies must ensure fair competition, structured career growth, and transparent rewards. Leadership is crucial in mitigating Relationship Conflict and fostering a psychologically safe, high-performance culture (Kraus et al., 2024). Early conflict resolution training and collaborative incentives can transform CWE into a driver of engagement rather than stress, enhancing retention and productivity.

Although this research contributes to the literature, I faced some limitations in conducting it. The use of self-reported survey data may introduce response bias, as participants' perceptions of competition and conflict might be influenced by personal experiences rather than objective workplace conditions. Additionally, the cross-sectional design limits the ability to establish causality, making it difficult to determine whether CWE directly influences OC over time or if other external factors play a role. Another limitation is the focus on specific industries and cultural

contexts, which may restrict the generalizability of findings to other work environments where competition dynamics function differently.

This study unfolds space for more research to be done on the matter, as future research can consider a longitudinal design to assess how CWE, workplace conflict, and OC evolve over time, offering stronger causal inferences. Expanding research across different industries and cultural settings would also enhance external validity, particularly by examining how cultural norms shape the perception of competition and conflict. Additionally, incorporating qualitative methods, such as interviews or case studies, could provide deeper insights into how employees navigate workplace competition and conflict in real-time. Finally, investigating the role of leadership styles, emotional intelligence, and psychological safety interventions could offer practical solutions for managing CWE while maintaining a committed workforce.

VI.   CONCLUSION

This study examined the complex interplay between CWE, Workplace Conflict (Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict), and OC to better understand how workplace competition influences employee retention and engagement. The findings challenge conventional assumptions by demonstrating that CWE does not inherently reduce OC; rather, its impact is mediated by workplace conflict. Specifically, while CWE fosters both Task Conflict and Relationship Conflict, the latter plays a more detrimental role in reducing OC by undermining workplace cohesion and psychological safety. Task Conflict, on the other hand, can have both positive and negative effects, depending on how it is managed within an organization.

By integrating JD-R Theory, Social Exchange Theory, Psychological Safety Theory, and Conflict Management Theory, this study provides a more nuanced understanding of the mechanisms through which competition influences workplace dynamics. The results confirm that CWE can act as both a challenge and a hindrance stressor, reinforcing the importance of leadership, workplace culture, and job resources in shaping its outcomes. The mediating role of conflict underscores the need for organizations to not only regulate competition but also actively manage interpersonal tensions to sustain employee commitment.

From a practical standpoint, these insights highlight the importance of leadership strategies in fostering a competitive yet supportive work environment. Organizations should strive to implement fair and transparent competition policies, foster collaboration, and equip employees with the necessary job resources to manage workplace challenges effectively. Addressing relationship conflict and leveraging task conflict constructively can enhance commitment, ensuring that competition drives innovation rather than disengagement.

Overall, this study contributes to existing CWE literature by emphasizing the mediating role of workplace conflict and the contextual factors that determine whether competition enhances or hinders organizational commitment. While CWE remains a defining feature of modern workplaces, its effects are not uniform—it is

how organizations structure, regulate, and support competitive dynamics that ultimately shape employee experiences and long-term retention.

VII. REFERENCES

BOOKS

BLAU, P. M. (1964). **Exchange and power in social life**. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

BURNS, J. M. (1978). **Leadership**. Harper & Row.

HAYES, A. F. (2013). **Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach**. Guilford Press.

HOFSTEDE, G. (1980). **Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values**. Sage Publications.

PORTER, M. E. (1985). **Competitive advantage: Creating and sustaining superior performance**. Free Press.

ARTICLES

ABBAS, Z., HUSSAIN, W., & QURESHI, A. M. (2025). The relationship between perceived organizational support, career commitment, and employee retention: A study among the educational sector of Gilgit. **Review Journal of Social Works**, 3(1), 437-446. https://www.socialworksreview.com/index.php/Journal/article/download/114/122

ABID, M., & JAMILAH, I. (2025). The impact of work discipline and work environment on employee performance at PT. HJ Busana Indah Quality Control Division. **International Journal of Multidisciplinary Science**, 4(1), 75-83 https://journal.admi.or.id/index.php/IJML/article/view/1928

ADAM, N., & ALFAWAZ, A. (2025). Enhancing organizational performance: How gender diversity enhances employee engagement and commitment. **Humanities and Social Sciences Communications**, 12(199), 144-156. https://www.nature.com/articles/s41599-025-04441-7

AL-DHABIBI, A. M. (2024). Strategic vigilance and its impact on organizational citizenship behavior. **Al-Balqa Journal for Research and Studies**, 27(3), 97-116. Retrieved from https://ajrs.ammanu.edu.jo/ojs/index.php/albalqajournal/article/view/767

ALFIFI, M. H. (2024). Cultural intelligence and global leadership: The role of power distance in workplace management. **International Journal of Business Strategy and Management Studies**, 7(1), 1-7. Retrieved from https://www.ijbsms.org/papers/alfifi2024.pdf

ALI, A., & CAI, X. (2024). Navigating workplace conflicts and fostering innovative behaviors: The role of job commitment and socio-instrumental ESM utilization. **BMC Psychology**, 12(585), 23-40. Retrieved from https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s40359-024-02089-7

ARSHAD, M. A., JIBEI, L., & GUOYO, L. (2025). The relationship between job crafting and intention to leave: A literature review study. **KW Publications**, 15(1), 889-900. https://kwpublications.com/papers_submitted/14768/the-relationship-between-job-crafting-and-intention-to-leave-a-literature-review-study.pdf

AUNDE, A. G., & TOLULOPE, A. D. (2025). Psychological correlates of career commitment: An empirical study among selected non-academic staff of the university of Lagos. **Journal of South African Democratic Studies**, 4(1), 15-46. Retrieved from https://ourjournal.jsadtu.com/index.php/jsadtu/article/download/42/43

AYALA, Y., TORDERA, N., & KARAEMINOGULLARI, A. (2025). As lonely as the moon? When and how health beliefs of COVID-19 affect mental health, life satisfaction, and performance. **International Journal of Organization Theory & Behavior**, 10(3), 133-149. https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/IJOTB-05-2024-0093/full/html

BAKHSHI, A., SHARMA, A. D., & KUMAR, K. (2011). Organizational commitment as a predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. **European Journal of Business and Management**, 3, 78-86. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/download/68449589/296-809-1-PB.pdf

BAKKER, A. B., & DEMEROUTI, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. **Journal of Managerial Psychology***, 22(3),* 309-328.

BALFOUR, D. L., & WECHSLER, B. (1991). Commitment, job satisfaction, and trust: Testing the three-component model. **Public Productivity & Management Review***, 14*(2), 177-190.

BALFOUR, D. L., & WECHSLER, B. (1996). New Approaches to Organizational Commitment: A Symposium Introduction. **Public Productivity & Management Review**, *19*(3), 253–255. http://www.jstor.org/stable/3380573

BARLETT, M. S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi square approximations. **Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological)***, 16*(2), 296-298.

BASS, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. **Organizational Dynamics***,* 18(3), 19-31.

BEIKZAD, J., & MOKHTARI, F. (2024). Drawing a structural model of the influence of entrepreneurial thinking and positive organizational behavior. **Karafan Journal***,* 21(2), 267-296. doi: 10.48301/kssa.2023.385153.2446

BHATTI, M. A. (2025). Shared goals and work attitude: The role of protean career orientation, information privacy, and knowledge management capacity. **The Journal of Mind and Behavior**, 46(1), 11-20. https://jmb-online.com/submissions/index.php/jmb/article/view/42

BOURHCHOUCH, A., & OUKASSI, M. (2025). Organizational determinants of turnover intention among public sector physicians in Morocco: Proposal for a research model. **Revue Internationale des Sciences de Gestion**, 8(1), 52-65. Retrieved from https://revue-isg.com/index.php/home/article/download/1880/1477

BROWN, S. P., CRON, W. L., & SLOCUM, J. W. (1998). Effects of goal-directed emotions on salesperson volitions, behavior, and performance: A longitudinal study. **Journal of Marketing***, 62(1),* 39-50.

CATAYOC, R. B. (2025). Work habits and performance factors in call center agents: Insights from a literature review. **Cognizance Journal**, 5(2), 1-16. https://cognizancejournal.com/vol5issue2/V5I201.pdf

CHEN, G., & WANG, Y. (2025). Exploring faculty mobility amid regional economic disparities: A qualitative analysis of teacher outflow from Guangxi's private universities. **Asian Research Journal of Arts & Humanities**, 23(1), 95-107. Retrieved from http://article.researchpromo.com/id/eprint/2764

CRAWFORD, E. R., LEPINE, J. A., & RICH, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: A theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, *95(5),* 834-848.

CREON, L. E., & SCHERMULY, C. (2024). Feeling safe to be empowered: Psychological safety and psychological empowerment in threatening work environments. **German Journal of Human Resource Management**, *0*(0). https://doi.org/10.1177/23970022241284536

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

DE DREU, C. K. W., & BEERSMA, B. (2005). *Conflict in organizations:* **Beyond effectiveness and performance**. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 14(2), 105-117.

DE DREU, C. K., & WEINGART, L. R. (2003). Task versus relationship conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction: A meta-analysis. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, *88*(4), 741-749.

DELOBBE, N., & VANDENBERGHE, C. (2000). A four-dimensional model of organizational commitment among Belgian employees**. European Journal of Psychological Research**, 16(2), 125-138. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/200824182_A_Four-Dimensional_Model_of_Organizational_Commitment_among_Belgian_Employees_Article.pdf

DHIR, S., & VALLABH, P. (2025). Do social relationships at work enhance creativity and innovative behavior? Role of psychological safety. **Acta Psychologica**, 253, 47-58. Retrieved from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0001691825000642

EDMONDSON, A. C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 44(2),* 350-383.

EMERSON, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. **Annual Review of Sociology**, *2*(1), 335-362.

ERNEST, E., & VINCENT, E. (2025). Employee commitment and organizational performance of SMEs in Delta State. **International Research Journal of Management Studies**, 6(1), 472-481. https://www.irjms.com/wp-content/uploads/2025/01/Manuscript_IRJMS_02233_WS.pdf

ESKANDARICHARATI, A. (2013). The efficiency of Allen and Meyer's model of organizational commitment and its leading role in organizations compared to other models. **Advances in Environmental Biology**, 7(14), 4885-4894. Retrieved from https://go.gale.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA365456354&sid=googleScholar

ESPAÑA-RIVADENEYRA, M., TARUCHAÍN-POZA, L. F., NÚÑEZ-NARANJO, A. F., & ESCOBAR- BERMÚDES, D. (2025). Work environment and its influence on organizational commitment: A study in the financial sector. **Journal of Educational and Social Research**, 15(1):198-210. https://typeset.io/papers/work-environment-and-its-influence-on-organizational-2kj88h7ybsiu?

FLETCHER, T. D., & NUSBAUM, D. N. (2010). Development of a measure of workplace competitiveness. **Journal of Organizational Behavior**, *31(6),* 745-765.

FLOREA, N. V., & CROITORU, G. (2025). The Impact of Artificial Intelligence on Communication Dynamics and Performance in Organizational Leadership. **Administrative Sciences**, *15*(2), 33. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci15020033

GELFAND, M. J., EREZ, M., & AYCAN, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. **Annual Review of Psychology**, 58, 479-514.

GERALDES, D., CHAMBEL, M. J., & CARVALHO, V. S. (2024). Supervisor support and work-family practices: A systematic review. **Societies**, 14(12), 272. Retrieved from https://www.mdpi.com/2075-4698/14/12/272

GRIFFIN, B. A. (2024). The impact of servant leadership on social loafing in the workplace: Examining mechanisms and boundary conditions. **Southern**

Illinois University Carbondale. Retrieved from https://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu/dissertations/2207/

HACKETT, R. D., BYCIO, P., & HAUSDORF, P. A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 79(1), 15-23. Retrieved from https://psycnet.apa.org/fulltext/1994-31652-001.html

HAMID, A. S., MOHAMAD, B., & ISMAIL, A. (2024). Internal crisis communication: Exploring antecedents and consequences from a managerial viewpoint. *Frontiers in Communication*. Retrieved from https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/communication/articles/10.3389/fcomm.2024.1444114/full

HAOZHE, Z., & NAZARENKO, O. (2024). Theoretical component of personnel selection as a component of administrative management. **Kharkov University Repository**. Retrieved from https://repo.btu.kharkov.ua/bitstream/123456789/60876/1/Materialy_konf_Transformatsiya_obliku_2024_321-323.pdf

HARREL, C. E. (2025). Navigating the dark waters: The impact of the dark core of personality on workplace outcomes. **Florida Institute of Technology Repository**. https://repository.fit.edu/etd/1528/

HESSARI, H., DANESHMANDI, F., & BUSCH, P. (2024). Mitigating cyberloafing through employee adaptability: The roles of temporal leadership, teamwork attitudes, and competitive work environment. **Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration**, 17(1), 23-43. Retrieved from https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/apjba-02-2024-0065/full/html

HUSEYNZADA, N. (2025). Analysis of the leadership styles' impact on organizational performance. **Annals of Spiru Haret University Economic Series**. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Aremu-Olawale/publication/388420997_Economic_Impact_of_Diversity_and_Inclusion_Initiatives_in_Human_Resource_Management/links/679835514c479b26c9bd0ebd/Economic-Impact-of-Diversity-and-Inclusion-Initiatives-in-Human-Resource-Management.pdf

HUSRIADI, M., AUS, F., KUSUMA, N., & NINGSIH, C. A. (2025). Analysis of the impact of organizational culture and organizational commitment in improving job satisfaction in MSMEs. **International Journal of Society Reviews**, 2(12), 3263-3273. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/388842635

HUSRIADI, M., AUS, F., KUSUMA, N., & NINGSIH, C. A. (2025). Analysis of the impact of organizational culture and organizational commitment in improving job satisfaction in MSMEs. **ResearchGate**. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/388842635

HUSSAIN, D. (2024). Role of political skills on organizational engagement and constructive behavior. **CustomerReview.io**. Retrieved from https://customerreview.io/thesis_-_danish_49310/

HÜTTERMANN, H., & BOERNER, S. (2011). Fostering innovation in functionally diverse teams: The two faces of transformational leadership. **European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology**, *20*(6), 833–854. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2010.524412

IORGEMA, S. S. (2025). The mediating role of organizational commitment in employee productivity in foods and beverage manufacturing companies in Nigeria. **UMM Journal of Accounting and Financial Management**, 8(2), 624-637

https://journals.umm.edu.ng/index.php/ummjafm/article/download/102/42

ISMAIL, J. S. (2024). How role does organizational commitment play in mediating the relationship between work environment and discipline with job satisfaction. **International Conference of Business and Social Sciences**. https://typeset.io/papers/how-role-does-organizational-commitment-play-in-mediating-sttuidbx55jr?

JAROS, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. **Journal of Vocational Behavior**, *51*(3), 319-337. Retrieved from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0001879185715539

JAWORSKI, B. J., & KOHLI, A. K. (1993). Market Orientation: Antecedents and Consequences. **Journal of Marketing**, *57*(3), 53–70. https://doi.org/10.2307/1251854

JEHN, K. A., & MANNIX, E. A. (2001). The dynamic nature of conflict: A longitudinal study of intragroup conflict and group performance. **Academy of Management Journal***, 44*(2), 238-251.

JOHNSON, C. (2024). Global workforce dynamics: A quantitative analysis of inclusion, retention, and performance across United States and Japanese cohorts in a multinational corporation. **Theses and Dissertations**. Retrieved from

https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2495&context=etd

KAISER, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. **Psychometrika***, 39*(1), 31-36.

KAPTIJN, R. (2009). Affective commitment in the three-component model and the two-factor theory: A comparison between Meyer and Allen's model and Herzberg's theory. **University of Twente**. Retrieved from http://essay.utwente.nl/58895/1/scriptie_R_Kaptijn.pdf

KARIM, D. N. (2024). Perceived fairness of performance appraisal: Does it shape bankers' attitudes towards their job and organization? **ResearchGate**. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Dewan-Karim-4/publication/383497883

KASHIMA, Y. (2024). Collectivism and workplace commitment: How cultural values shape professional identity. **Asian Journal of Organizational Psychology***,* 3(2), 132-148. Retrieved from https://journals.ajop.org/kashima2024.pdf

KHAN, A. A., IDREES, M., HUSSAIN, J., AMIN, K., & YOUNAS, M. (2025). Talent management in healthcare: The impact of human resources practices on employee retention and organizational commitment: A quantitative survey of medical colleges in Swat, KP. **Competitive Research Journal Archive***, 3*(1), 86-101. https://thecrja.com/index.php/Journal/article/view/77

KHAN, M., DEDAHANOV, A. T., KHADIR, Y., ALIDJONOVICH, R. D., MOHICHEHRA, K. T., YULDASHEV, O. T., & ODILOVICH, I. J. (2025). Investigating the impact of organizational citizenship behavior on supply chain performance and corporate sustainability: An empirical study. **Cogent Business & Management**, *12*(1), 2460621. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2025.2460621

KIM, D., & LEE, M. J. (2024). The role of ethical leadership in enhancing organizational culture and performance. **International Journal of Management Business and Economics**. Retrieved from https://jurnals.net/access/IJMBE/article/view/13

KIRAN, P. R., & SHREE, S. (2025). A multi-loop learning blueprint for organizational resilience: An inter-connectional perspective. **Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal**, 1(1), 12-23. Retrieved from https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/dlo-09-2024-0275/full/html

KRAUS, S., CAPUTO, A., PALACIOS- MARQUÉS, D., et al. (2024). Guest editorial: Talent attraction and retention strategies in the post-COVID era: An introduction. **Management Decision**. Retrieved from https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/MD-10-2024-246/full/html

LANGREET, A. (2024). Exploring the impact of workplace friendships on organizational citizenship behavior: The role of social bonds and discretionary effort. **Purdue Global Digital Repository**. Retrieved from https://purdueglobal.dspacedirect.org/items/ef91d723-7249-4a62-92e6-51669b4972b3

LI, D., & ZHANG, Y. (2024). Factors influencing sense of work gain dilemma of Chinese delivery riders: Based on grounded theory. **SSRN Papers**. Retrieved from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=4776628

LIU, T., WANG, H., LIU, Y., LI, Z., ZHANG, Y., ZHU, H., & NING, L. (2025). Effect of organizational change on employee innovation performance: A dual mediation model. **PLOS ONE**. Retrieved from https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0313056

MAHMUD, I., HASSAN, M. S., & AMIN, M. B. (2025). Unveiling HRM dynamics through PLS model: The moderating roles of self-efficacy and organizational commitment in work engagement and talent turnover intention. **ResearchGate**. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/388897318_Unveiling_HRM_dynamics_through_PLS_model_The_moderating_roles_of_self-efficacy_and_organizational_commitment_in_work_engagement_and_talent_turnover_intention.pdf

MANGULA, I. S. (2023). The role of cultural dimensions in shaping workplace competition and commitment. **Paramadina University Research Report**. Retrieved from https://repository.paramadina.ac.id/736/1/Laporan%20Penelitian%20Mandiri%20IVS%202022%20-%202023.pdf

MCCONNEL, C. J. (2003). A study of the relationships among person-organization fit and affective, normative, and continuance components of organizational commitment. **Journal of Applied Management and Organizational Studies.** Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/openview/79901348e051b99bcf1d743951d585ba/1?pq-origsite=gscholar

MEYER, J. P., & ALLEN, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. **Human Resource Management Review**, 1(1), 61-89.

MEYER, J. P., & ALLEN, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. **Human Resource Management Review**, *1*(1), 61-89.

MEYER, J. P., & HERSCOVITCH, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. **Human Resource Management Review**, *11*(3), 299-326.

MISHRA, A. K., MISHRA, S., & PRIYADHARSHINI, M. R. (2024). Employee engagement and workplace competitiveness. **ResearchGate**. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Anjay-Mishra/publication/388732999_Employee_Engagement.pdf

MISHRA, A. K., MISHRA, S., & PRIYADHARSHINI, M. R. (2025). Employee engagement. **ResearchGate**. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/388732999_Employee_Engagement

MODRIC, P., SAMARDZIJA, J., & VEJZAGIC, V. (2024). The role of interpersonal skills in effective management. **Economic and Social Review**. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Venelin-Terziev/publication/381321246_Social_development_and_the_contribution_of_science/links/6669516db769e769192d0df2/Social-development-and-the-contribution-of-science.pdf#page=541

MON, K. J., & LIE, M. D. (2025). The effect of compensation on turnover intention in the banking industry. **International Journal of Business and Management Trends**. 8(1), 471-478. https://www.theijbmt.com/archive/0961/1434848156.pdf

MOWDAY, R. T., STEERA, R. M., & PORTER, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. **Journal of Vocational Behavior**, 14(2), 224-247.

MUSLIMIN, I., AKOB, M., & SUMAIL, L. O. (2024). Organizational commitment and work environment towards the performance of PNS based on values with cultural: The role of OCB. **Review of Management and Entrepreneurship**. https://typeset.io/papers/organizational-commitment-and-work-environment-towards-the-2f2docgl1ns5?

NAJAFI ARKHODI, E., et al. (2024). Designing a model for creating competitive advantage of barberry crop in South Khorasan Province with emphasis on local capacities. **Village and Space Journal**, 7(3), 12-25. Retrieved from https://vssd.birjand.ac.ir/article_3188_en.html?lang=fa

NICOLESCU, L., & RÎPA, A. I. (2024). Linking innovative work behavior with customer relationship management. **Journal of Innovation & Knowledge**, 9(4), 9-17. Retrieved from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2444569X24000994

NIYAZBAYEVA, A. (2025). Professional motivation of students in modern conditions of labor market development. **International Journal of Innovative Research and Social Sciences**, 8(1), 992-1013. https://ideas.repec.org/a/aac/ijirss/v8y2025i1p992-1013id4502.html

NORTH, M. N., THOMPSON, Y. T., & JORGENSEN, A. (2025). Lean on me: The role of organizational and supervisory support in understanding work outcomes in victim advocates**. Children and Youth Services Review**, 171(1), 108170 https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0190740925000532

NURHAKIM, L., HUSRIADI, M., AUS, F., & NINGSIH, C. A. (2025). The impact of organizational culture and organizational commitment on improving job satisfaction. **ResearchGate**. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/388842635_ANALYSIS_OF_THE_I MPACT_OF_ORGANIZATIONAL_CULTURE_AND_ORGANIZATIONA L_COMMITMENT_IN_IMPROVING_JOB_SATISFACTION_IN_MSMEs

O'REILLY, C. A., & CHATMAN, J. A. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, *71*(3), 492-499.

OBIOMA, N. C., CHINASA, U. H., & NWACHUKWU, O. G. (2025). Conflict management strategies in Nigeria: An empirical study of human resources, employee satisfaction, and employee performance. **University of Management Research Journal**, 3(1), 58-63. https://umrj.org.ng/wp-content/uploads/2025/01/CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT-STRATEGIES-IN-NIGERIA.-AN-EMPIRICAL-STUDY.pdf

ONYANGO, M. (2024). Succession planning and employee performance in the State Department for Public Service, Nairobi City County. **KU Repository**. Retrieved from https://ir-library.ku.ac.ke/server/api/core/bitstreams/b381917a-7d7b-4d15-a7c3-2994e3377e1c/content

PIMPONG, M. (2023). Work environmental factors and its impact on employee productivity: The mediating role of employee commitment. **E-Journal of Humanities, Art and Social Sciences**, 4(8), 916-935. https://typeset.io/papers/work-environmental-factors-and-its-impact-on-employee-8vzvl54omz?

PRASILOWATI, S. L., & TRIASTUTI, Y. (2025). The influence of commitment and organizational climate on performance through work motivation of employees of Tarakan Hospital Jakarta. **ProQuest**.

https://search.proquest.com/openview/028a5e3ba0f9728352fe30966322eddc/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=1046413

PRATAMA, P., & MARTONO, B. A. (2025). Analysis of sustainable competitive advantage influenced by organizational culture and leadership behavior through technological innovation. **GoodWill Journal of Economics**, 13(1):13-20. Retrieved from https://jurnal.amertainstitute.com/index.php/GoodWill/article/download/224/233

RABIUL, M. K., SIGALA, M., & KARIM, R. A. (2025). Commitment to quality service in hospitality: Role of human resources practices, turnover intention, organizational engagement, and adaptability. **European Journal of Management & Business Economics**, 3(2), 15-30. Retrieved from https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/EJMBE-09-2023-0288/full/pdf

RADU, C. (2023) Fostering a Positive Workplace Culture: Impacts on Performance and Agility. In: Vilas Boas, A.A., Ed., **Human Resource Management—An Update, IntechOpen**, 33-50. https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.1003259

RAHMAT, A., & PAHLAWENI, E. (2025). The role of self-efficacy in job crafting with person-job fit as a mediating variable**. Invest: Jurnal Inovasi dan Teknologi**, 6(1), 20-32. https://www.journal.al-matani.com/index.php/invest/article/view/1213

RAMADHAN, R. (2024). The influence of leader communication style on employee trust and organizational commitment. **ResearchGate**. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Rangga-Ramadhan-3/publication/387161659_The_Influence_of_Leader_Communication_Style_on_Employee_Trust_and_Organizational_Commitment/links/676298f67784cf161e095ccf/The-Influence-of-Leader-Communication-Style-on-Employee-Trust-and-Organizational-Commitment.pdf

RAWAT, W., & BARNES, J. R. (2024). The impact of IT ambidexterity on organizational agility: The mediating role of organizational change capacity.

AIS Electronic Library (AISeL). Retrieved from https://aisel.aisnet.org/pajais_preprints/37/

RICHARDS, J. (2025). How employees use interpersonal trust to enhance inclusive climates: A qualitative study. **ProQuest Dissertations and Theses**. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/openview/14db291c7621b7882bd4debd20a1ab80/1.pdf?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y

SASAKI, N., TSUNO, K., & KURODA, R. (2025). Workplace loneliness and job turnover: A 6-month prospective study. **Journal of Occupational Health**, 67(1), 16-30. https://academic.oup.com/joh/advance-article-abstract/doi/10.1093/joccuh/uiaf009/7997388

SHAARI, A., & LAH, N. (2024). A study on leader's traits that influence motivation among employees in Klang Valley, Malaysia. **KW Publications**. Retrieved from https://kwpublications.com/papers_submitted/10878/a-study-on-leaders-traits-that-influence-motivation-among-employees-in-klang-valley-malaysia.pdf

SHAFIQUE, A. (2025). Entrepreneurial ecosystems: The role of organizational behavior and human resource management in driving success. **ResearchGate**. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Aisha-Shafique-2/publication/387659655_Entrepreneurial_Ecosystems_The_Role_of_Organizational_Behaviour_and_Human_Resource_Management_in_Driving_Success/links/67767b6b117f340ec3edd701/Entrepreneurial-Ecosystems-The-Role-of-Organizational-Behaviour-and-Human-Resource-Management-in-Driving-Success.pdf

SHAKIL, T., & SIDDIQUI, S. M. F. A. (2025). How does training improve customer service quality? The roles of transfer of training and job satisfaction in the banking sector. **Competitive Research Journal Archive**, 3(1), 12-24. http://thecrja.com/index.php/Journal/article/view/75

SHAKKI, M. H., & REZAEI RAD, M. (2024). Designing a security-oriented leadership model. **Management and Educational Sciences Journal**, 6(3), 298-313. Retrieved from https://www.jmep.ir/article_208763.pdf

SHROUT, P. E., & BOLGER, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. **Psychological Methods**, *7*(4), 422–445. https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.7.4.422

SIAHAAN, G., SARIWULAN, T., & PAHALA, I. (2025). The influence of transformational leadership on organizational commitment mediated by work satisfaction and work stress as intervening variables. **Calitatea Journal**, 7(1), 24-136. https://search.proquest.com/openview/d46fbd6efb15811eb369dfb1793ba53c/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=1046413

SIDDIQUE, A., YOUNAS, S., & AKBAR, G. (2025). Organizational culture dimensions and employee commitment: A correlational study of educational institutions in Pakistan. **Journal for Social Science Research**, 3(1), 488–496. https://www.jssarchives.com/index.php/Journal/article/view/134

SOBEL, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. **Sociological Methodology**, *13*, 290–312. https://doi.org/10.2307/270723

SOLINGER, O. N., VAN OLFFEN, W., & ROE, R. A. (2008). Beyond the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, *93*(1), 70-83. Retrieved from https://cris.maastrichtuniversity.nl/files/969434/guid-fc775046-c0cd-4a96-ae56-052511f3f5a2-ASSET1.0.pdf

STRATONE, M. E., & VATAMANESCU, E. M. (2024). Intellectual capital management as a catalyst for organizational agility and performance in post-COVID-19 Romanian SMEs. **Kybernetes**, *6*(7), 1-13. Retrieved from https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/k-11-2024-3008/full/html

SUGIONO, E., & WIDODO, S. T. (2025). The effect of transformational leadership style on employee performance through employee engagement as an intervening variable in the Indonesian quarantine. **International Journal of Management Studies and Information Technology**, 5(1), 124-129. https://www.journal.lembagakita.org/index.php/IJMSIT/article/view/3764

SUHARA, A., HARIS, A., DAVID, S., RUSTAM, A. and JUDIJANTO, L. (2024). Transformational leadership and its impact on healthcare performance: The mediating role of innovation, motivation, and commitment in the health sector. **Pakistan Journal of Life and Social Sciences**, 22(2), 24215-24225. https://pjlss.edu.pk/pdf_files/2024_2/24215-24225.pdf

SUNDAY, J. I., & IFIDON, G. P. D. (2025). Harnessing automated administrative HR systems to enhance employee engagement: A pathway to sustainable economic transformation. **ARCN Journals**, 4(9), 40-56. http://arcnjournals.org/images/4272-1454-381-12107-1.pdf

SUNTARI, E., HARYANTINI, H., & UTOMO, S. B. (2025). A comprehensive approach to analyzing work motivation to improve employee productivity at PT Bank DKI Jakarta. **International Journal of Management and Leadership**, 3(1), 21-34. https://journal.admi.or.id/index.php/IJML/article/view/1926

TERRELL, V. (2024). Social support, employee engagement, and turnover intention of hybrid working leaders in the pharmaceutical industry. **ProQuest Dissertations**. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/openview/778d3ebc949df78f4bc23b87fefee4b3

THAKRAL, P., DASH, S. S., & SHARMA, D. (2025). High-performance work systems and affective commitment: The mediating role of job embeddedness and perceived organizational support. **Business Perspectives Journal**, 9(11), 167-180. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/22785337251316387

TJOSVOLD, D. (2008). The conflict-positive organization: It depends upon us. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29(1),* 19-28.

TJOSVOLD, D. (2006). Defining conflict and making choices about its management: Lighting the dark side of organizational life. **International Journal of Conflict Management**, 17(2), 87-95. https://doi.org/10.1108/10444060610736585

TJOSVOLD, D., WONG, A. S. H., & CHEN, Y. F. N. (2019). Managing Conflict for Effective Leadership and Organizations. In **Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Business and Management** Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190224851.013.240

TJOSVOLD, D., WONG, A., & FENG CHEN, N. Y. (2014). Constructively managing conflicts in organizations. **Annual Review of Organizational Psychology & Organizational Behavior**, *1*(1), 545–568. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091306

TRANG, T. T. H. (2025). Factors affecting employee performance in an organization: A survey in Vietnam. **Multiresearch Journal**, 4(6), 132-150. https://www.multiresearchjournal.com/admin/uploads/archives/archive-1735025420.pdf

TRIYAWANICH, T., & SINGHARACH, S. (2025). Directions to improve modern organizational communication management systems. **International Conference on Business and Management**. https://conferaces.com/index.php/journal/article/view/411

TRUNGD, C. T., YENA, L. V., LUUB, D. T. T., & DINHC, Q. N. (2025). The influence of transformational leadership on employee satisfaction in Can Tho City's small and medium-sized enterprises. **ResearchGate**. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Chuyen-Tran-Trung-2/publication/388860424_The_Influence_of_Transformational_Leadership_on_Employee_Satisfaction_in_Can_Tho_City's_Small_and_Medium-sized_Enterprises/links/67aaa9944c479b26c9dc801c/The-Influence-of-Transformational-Leadership-on-Employee-Satisfaction-in-Can-Tho-Citys-Small-and-Medium-sized-Enterprises.pdf

VAN DE VLIERT, E., & EUWEMA, M. C. (1994). Agreeableness and activeness as components of conflict behaviors. **Journal of personality and social psychology**, *66*(4), 674–687. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.66.4.674

WANG, X., & LIN, C. H. (2025). Correlates of personnel police officers' commitment in Taiwan: A comparison of job commitment and organizational commitment. **ResearchSquare**. https://www.researchsquare.com/article/rs-5852034/latest.pdf

WARDOYO, D. T. W., & KISTYANTO, A. (2025). Analysis of the influence of organizational commitment on employee performance with job satisfaction as a mediating variable. **American International Journal of Business and**

Management, 8(2), 1-6. https://www.aijbm.com/wp-content/uploads/2025/02/A820106.pdf

WONG, A., & TONG, C. (2014). Evaluation of organizational commitment models and their components in Asian cities. **International Journal of Human Resource Studies**, 4(2), 66-96. Retrieved from https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=80fa4e1922d8d362ae65a5efd61f971183349576

YAKOVENKO, V., ORYSCHENKO, S., & ORYSCHENKO, V. (2025). Analysis of the minds of the creation of daily production. **GBDMM Journal**, 7(6), 1-13. http://gbdmm.knuba.edu.ua/article/download/321387/311921/745041

ZHANG, H., LIU, C., & ZHAO, S. (2025). The Effect of Work–Family Facilitation on Employee Proactive Behavior: A Moderated Mediation Model. **Sustainability**, *17*(4), 1390. https://doi.org/10.3390/su17041390

ZHOU, A. (2024). How does rudeness poison groups? The bottom-up evolution of workplace incivility. **Victoria University of Wellington Open Access Repository**. Retrieved from https://openaccess.wgtn.ac.nz/articles/thesis/27048451

ZHU, Y. (2024). Exploring Career Guidance Models from a University-Industry Collaboration Perspective. **International Journal of Social Sciences in Universities**, 7(4), 87-100. Retrieved from http://www.acadpubl.com/Papers/Vol%207,%20No%204%20(IJSSU%202024).pdf

VIII. APPENDICES

Appendix A – Survey Demographics and Scales Used in the Survey

Section 1: Demographic Information

1. **Gender identity**

   - o ☐ Male

   - o ☐ Female

2. **Age group**

   - o ☐ 19 – 30 years

   - o ☐ 31 – 40 years

   - o ☐ 41 – 50 years

   - o ☐ 51 – 60 years

3. **Employment status**

   - o ☐ Unemployed

   - o ☐ Unable to work

   - o ☐ Retired

   - o ☐ Part-time

   - o ☐ Full-time

   - o ☐ Contract/Temporary

4. **Job sector**

   - o ☐ Public Sector

   - o ☐ Private Sector

5. **Level of education**

- o ☐ Primary School
- o ☐ Secondary School
- o ☐ High School
- o ☐ Bachelor's Degree
- o ☐ Master's Degree
- o ☐ PhD
- o ☐ Other

6. **Ethnicity**

- o ☐ White/Caucasian
- o ☐ Asian
- o ☐ Hispanic/Latina
- o ☐ African
- o ☐ Middle Eastern
- o ☐ North African
- o ☐ Other

7. **Country of residence (please specify, if different from nationality)**

- o ☐ Turkey
- o ☐ Tunisia
- o ☐ Qatar
- o ☐ Saudi Arabia
- o ☐ Canada
- o ☐ Other

8. **Monthly income**

o □ Less than $100

o □ $101 – $500

o □ $501 – $1000

o □ $1001 – $1500

o □ $1501 – $2000

o □ More than $2001

Section 2: Measurement Scales

Competitive Work Environments Scale (Fletcher & Nusbaum, 2010).

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	My coworkers are very competitive individuals.					
2	My coworkers work hard to outperform each other.					
3	My coworkers are constantly competing with one another.					
4	Everyone at work wants to win by outperforming their coworkers.					

Organizational Commitment (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993).

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	Employees feel as though their future is intimately linked to that of this organization.					
2	Employees would be happy to make personal sacrifices if it were important for the business unit's well-being.					
3	The bonds between this organization and its employees are weak.					
4	In general, employees are proud to work for this business unit.					
5	Employees often go above and beyond the call of duty to ensure this business unit's well being.					
6	Our people have little or no commitment to this business unit.					
7	It is clear that employees are fond of this business.					

Task Conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	How much conflict of ideas is there in your work group?							
2	How frequently do you have disagreements within your work group about the task of the project you are working?							
3	How often do people in your work group have conflicting opinions about the project you are work?							

Relationship Conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	How much relationship tension is in your work group?							
2	How often do people get angry while working in your group?							
3	How much emotional conflict is there in your work group?							

Appendix B – Ethical Committee Report

T.C.
İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

100★

Sayı   : E-88083623-020-127259
Konu : Etik Onayı Hk.

16.08.2024

Sayın Mamia MAIRECH

Tez çalışmanızda kullanmak üzere yapmayı talep ettiğiniz anketiniz İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Etik Kurul Komisyonu'nun 15.08.2024 tarihli ve 2024/08 sayılı kararıyla uygun bulunmuştur.
Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Ragıp Kutay KARACA
Müdür

RESUME

Name Surname: Mamia MAIRECH

EDUCATION

Bachelor: 2018, Istanbul Aydin University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of Business Administration.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE AND AWARDS

- International Patient Sales Representative

- Senior Sales and Training Consultant

- High Honors Award

PUBLICATIONS FROM DISSERTATION, PRESENTATIONS, AND PATENTS

Mairech, M. (2025, January 18-19). *Certificate of Participation, International Science and Art Research Center* [oral and technical presentation]. 6th INTERNATIONAL BOGAZICI SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH CONGRESS (pp. 240 - 241). Istanbul, Turkey. https://www.isarconference.org/kongrekitaplari