

The Effect of Workplace Conditions on Employee Job Performance

İşyeri Koşullarının Çalışanların İş Performansları Üzerine Etkisi

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ABSTRACT

In the health sector, violent situations have led to the advancement of prevention policies and practices for employees working efficiently. The condition of the hospital, the adequacy of resources, the presence of conflicts between employees, and the management style make happy or unhappy employees that causes them to behave positively or negatively. The aim of the study is to determine the relationship between workplace conditions, violence prevention policies and practices (VPC), organizational constraints and conflicts between employees, job related well-being and employee job performance, dimensioned as counterproductive work behavior (CWB) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), in a model. A survey on the permanent nurses and health officers in a hospital was conducted, and a developed model was tested using structural equation modeling. As a result of the validity and reliability analyzes, all scale items were collected in the dimensions to which they belong, except for the VPC that split into two, and the model was partially verified. In this study, the presence of VPC reduces negative workplace conditions (interpersonal conflict and organizational constraints) and CWB of employee. The claim that the presence of VPC increases job related well-being and OCB were not found significant statistically. The results are discussed, and suggestions are presented.

Keywords: Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Organizational Constrains, Counterproductive Work Behavior, Violence Prevention Climate, Interpersonal Conflicts, Well-being

ÖZET

Sağlık sektöründe yaşanan şiddet olaylarıyla beraber çalışanların işlerini etkili bir şekilde yerine getirebilmeleri için şiddet önleyici politika ve uygulamalar geliştirilmektedir. Hastane ortamı, kaynakların yetersizliği, çalışanlar arasındaki çatışmalar ve yönetim biçimi çalışanların olumlu veya olumsuz davranışına neden olmakta, onları mutlu veya mutsuz yapmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı; işyeri koşulları, şiddet önleyici politika ve uygulamalar (ŞÖPU), örgütsel kısıtlılıklar ve çatışmaların, işle ilgili iyi oluş ile çalışanın iş performansı (üretken karşıtı iş davranışı (ÜİD) ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı (ÖVD) şeklinde ikiye ayrılmaktadır) arasındaki ilişkiyi bir modelde incelemektir. Anket, bir hastanedeki kadrolu hemşire ve sağlık çalışanları üzerinde yapılmıştır. Yapılan geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik analizleri sonucunda iki boyuta ayrılan şiddet önleyici iklim (ŞÖPU) hariç, tüm ölçek ifadeleri ait oldukları boyutlarda toplanmış ve model kısmen doğrulanmıştır. Bu çalışmada ŞÖPU'nun varlığı olumsuz işyeri koşulları (kişilerarası çatışma ve örgütsel kısıtlar) ve çalışanın ÜİD'ini azaltmaktadır. ŞÖPU'nun varlığının, işle ilgili iyi oluş ve ÖVD'yi arttırdığı iddiası istatistiki olarak anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Bulunan sonuçlar tartışılmış ve öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Üretken Karşıtı İş Davranışı, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı, Örgütsel Kısıtlılıklar, Şiddet Önleyici İklim, Kişilerarası Çatışma, Mutluluk

JEL Codes: D23, M12, I19

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1. INTRODUCTION

Happy employees view everything as good in their organization (Gazica and Spector, 2016). It is important that an organization that gives importance to the safety, health and happiness of its employees creates a good working environment that reduces the negative effects, may cause psychological and physical problems. Recently, in the health sector, violent situations have led to the development of prevention policies and practices by administrations (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Chang, Eatough, Spector, & Kessler, 2012; Yang, Spector, Chang, Gallant-Roman, & Powell, 2012), specifically in Turkey (saglik.gov.tr, 2019), for employees to work efficiently. Hospitals in the health sector require the most effective use of public resources as they are related to human and social life (Karahan, 2019). In addition, the physical condition of the hospital, the adequacy of resources, the presence of conflicts between employees, and the management style, which determine employee perceptions, make happy or unhappy employees in the organization (Daley & Perfitt, 1996). Therefore, if these conditions are unfavorable, they may cause employees to behave negatively (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006b; Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kulas, McInerney, Demuth, & Jadwinski, 2007; Brink, Emerson, & Yang, 2016) and correspondingly, may affect employee performance.

It is important to know how employees' perceptions of their workplace determine their work-related attitudes and behaviors. When the perceptions of employees are similar, an organizational climate may be created. The organizational climate, which is one of the defining factors that determines performance, can be negatively or positively affected by violence prevention policies and practices (Kessler, Spector, Chang, & Parr, 2008; Yang et al., 2012), organizational limitations and conflicts.

The job performance of employees in an organization is an important performance measure for businesses because job performance transforms the behavior of employees who contribute directly and indirectly to organizational goals into value for the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). The traditional aspect considers performance as a task performance (Yildiz, Savci, & Kapu, 2014) and argues that it is the activity that should be performed by employees who contribute to the technical competence (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). However, total job performance is not only task performance but also a function of contextual behaviors (Polatci, 2014) such as organizational citizenship behavior

(OCB), which is also regarded as positive behavior, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), which is regarded as negative behavior in the organization (Ariani, 2013). The heavy working conditions in organizations, the well-being and health of employees and their behaviors may be negatively affected (de Jonge and Peeters, 2009), while the favorable working conditions may effect on employee behavior positively. Therefore, the organizational climate perceptions of employees may influence CWB (Kulas et al., 2007; Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014) and OCB (Shahin, Naftchali, & Pool, 2014).

CWB, which threaten the well-being of organizations and its members and harms organizational norms, and OCB may be affected by the positive and negative climate perception of employees in the organization. Therefore, the primary aim of this study is to examine the effect of organizational conditions, which are violence prevention climate, organizational constraints and interpersonal conflicts, on the job performance of employees, organizational citizenship and counterproductive behavior, through job related affective well-being.

As the organizational climate of health institutions affects patient satisfaction and safety, it is accepted that health staffs have high risk, high stress and high workload (Aytac, Dursun, & Akalp, 2016; Chang, Tsai, Liao, Wang, & Wang, 2012). de Jonge and Peeters (2009) state that health staffs may engage in deviant work behaviors (e.g. CWB) due to the heavy workload and that these behaviors can be reduced if a positive work conditions is provided. For this purpose, scales are used in a survey conducted on permanent nurses and health officers. The scales measure the workplace conditions, which consist of violence prevention policies and practices, organizational constraints and conflicts between employees as independent variables, CWB and OCB as dependent. The model developed for this purpose is tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis; then, the findings are discussed, and the results and suggestions are presented.

2. LITERATURE

2.1. Organizational Citizenship and Counterproductive Work Behaviors as Job Performance

Job performance is described as the manner in which an employee organizes work and his or her problem-solving capacity, time and energy spent in performing his or her job (Colbert, Mount, Harter,

Witt, & Barrick, 2004). Job performance is considered a multi-dimensional concept, and it is known that the role of the work behavior of employees may affect their performance (Dalal, 2005). Borman and Motowidlo (1993) state that job behavior is important and plays as a catalyst for task practices and processes in organizational, social and psychological contexts. The dimensions of job performance used in the literature are counterproductive work and organizational citizenship behaviors (Dalal, 2005). The reason for this usage is individual and organizational factors, that is, the situation that may affect the attitudes and behaviors of employees.

Positive behaviors associated with duties and responsibilities are OCB, which constitutes voluntary behaviors in performing tasks. Negative behaviors, on the other hand, are CWB, which is harmful, destructive and detrimental to the legal benefit of the organization its employees and also its stakeholders (Miles, Spector, Borman, & Fox, 2002; Spector, Fox & Domagalski, 2006a; Ariani, 2013). Although OCB and CWB are negatively related, employees can display both behaviors at the same time (Dalal et al., 2009; Spector and Fox, 2002). While employees exhibit CWB in unfavorable conditions, this may also make them feel guilty, leading to the occurrence of OCB (Klotz and Bolino, 2013).

OCB is multi-dimensional concept that is important for determining job performance (Dalal, 2005). OCB, originally defined as a "good soldier syndrome" by Dennis W. Organ (1988) in 1983, has been described as voluntary efforts that go beyond a set of job descriptions and standards that an employee must perform. OCB is investigated in two dimensions as extra-role behaviors directed toward employees and toward the organization (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). For example, whereas volunteering to help a colleague demonstrates the first dimension of individual organizational behavior, the second dimension refers to a good presentation of the organization to the outside world (Dalal, 2005). The concept of volunteering explains behaviors that are not part of the formal job characteristics of the employee (Organ, 1988; Ariani, 2013).

It is important to identify the causes and sources of CWB to maintain the functional effectiveness of the organization and to accelerate productivity among employees (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015). Counterproductive behaviors can also be expressed as negative job behaviors (Hochstein, Lilly, & Stanley, 2017), behavioral deviation in the workplace (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007;

Kulas et al., 2007), anti-social behavior (Thau, Crossley, Bennett, & Sczesny, 2007), counter-productive behavior (Hochstein et al., 2017), dysfunctional workplace behavior, organizational misbehavior, rule violation, and anti-citizenship behavior (Hochstein et al., 2017) in different disciplines. CWB is an intentional harmful behavior by employees directed toward their organization, stakeholders and members of the organization (Dalal, 2005; Spector et al., 2006b; Fox et al., 2001; Hochstein et al., 2017).

CWB is investigated in two dimensions: organizational and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Organizational counterproductive work behaviors are intentions that damage an organization such as a misrepresentation or slowdown of the job, absenteeism or tardiness, stealing any object from the workplace, abusing and damaging organizational assets, violating organizational norms while performing the job, misrepresenting any mistakes and problems to managers, workplace negligence and sabotage (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kulas et al., 2007; Brink et al., 2016). Interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors are those that harm people (colleagues, managers, subordinates, suppliers, customers) at work, such as stealing a colleague's objects, harassing, physical and verbal intimidation, and delaying work (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kulas et al., 2007; Brink et al., 2016). In this sense, it is clear that it is costly for both persons and organizations (Kulas et al., 2007; Hochstein et al., 2017). Spector et al. (2006b) have examined five different sub-dimensions of CWB in terms of how employees perceive these behaviors: abuse, production deviation, sabotage, theft and withdrawal.

2.2. Workplace Conditions and Well-being

The model of the study assumes that affective reactions arise through the experience of work events occurring in the organization. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) state that employees' affective reactions that effect on job performance and satisfaction are due to work environment features and work events. Workplace conditions in the hospitals, which we have taken as research survey, consist of workplace violence caused by patients and their relatives (Spector et al., 2006a), conflicts between employees, lack of materials or operational and managerial inadequacies. The presence of these factors in the organization will create a negative climate. The measures taken by the hospital against violence can create a positive atmosphere. All these workplace conditions may cause employees to show

affective reactions as they gain experience. These may also affect the attitude and behavior of the employees.

Workplace violence, which has physical and verbal forms, constitutes acts that harm workers (Yang et al., 2012). Whether physical or verbal, it is clear that it can become a serious problem for healthcare workers, affecting their welfare and, therefore, their decreasing productivity (Yang et al., 2012). The high level of physical violence increases the compensation and health costs of health workers due to health problems, and they may even quit their job (Yang et al., 2012). For this reason, organizations are engaged in violence prevention policies and practices aimed at making the organizational climate positive.

Organizational climate is described as the atmosphere or social climate associated with the policies, practices and procedures at work, occurring when employees of the organization share similar perceptions (Schulte, Ostroff, & Kinicki, 2006). The organizational climate perception is the beginning of the psychological process that assists employees in what behaviors are anticipated or unexpected, rewarded or punished. These perceptions may affect employees' stress level, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance. Hollinger and Clark (1983) have argued that there are strong relationships among the tendency of employees to steal and the appropriate climate for theft, perceived organizational forms and the clarity and rigidity of sanctions.

Schulte et al. (2006) view the climate psychologically and organizationally. The psychological climate is relevant with how employee of the organization perceive their organization's policies, practices and procedures psychologically. These perceptions are personally identifiable common perceptions that occur in the same workplace environment and condition. The organizational climate arises when groups in a particular unit share similar perceptions. The psychological climate is individual, but the organizational climate emerges when employees are shared in the unit.

Psychological strains are only one dimension of emotional reactions and other positive and negative emotions in the workplace should be added (Katwyk et al., 2000). Katwyk et al. (2000) argued that emotional responses in the workplace are the basis for employees' job related affective well-being. Warr (1987) states that affective well-being is an emotional reactions gained through experience at work. Employees' job-related affective well-being (JAW) play a central role in expla-

ining the relationship between workplace conditions, employee behavior and job performance (Parker, 2014). Moreover, the model of Spector and Fox (2002) places employees' emotions as a reaction to workplace conditions at the center of the CWB and OCB. Because, for the emergence of both, the conditions and events in the workplace must be perceived and appraised by employees (Spector et al., 2006a: 32). Russell (1980) developed the affective well-being as a two-dimensional model of excitement, contentment, depression and distress sub-dimensions. The well-being in this model is an antonym that includes happiness and unhappiness. These happy and unhappy affective reactions can be 'arousal' or 'sleeping' in the employee. Ultimately, these affective reactions can direct employees' attitudes and behaviors.

3. HYPOTHESES

Employees experience events such as conflicts and constraints within the organization. Employees reflect the events they experience in the organization to their emotions and show the state of well-being or not, and express these feelings in the form of performance or job satisfaction (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). These events (situational frustration and environmental conditions) can create emotional states (Anderson and Bushman, 2002) that are different from the affective dispositions. Because emotional states are immediate reactions, producing positive or negative outputs (for example, the sarcastic interpretation of a co-worker upsets the employee), conversely affective dispositions indicate more personality traits (Spector et al., 2006a: 32). Violence prevention policies and practices may lead to less conflict and constraints. Our model grounds Affective Events Theory (AET) developed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). The AET is based on emotion experiences and explains that events in the workplace cause affective reactions, and that they effect on job satisfaction. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996: 2) associated emotional experience with job satisfaction built in attitudes and behaviors. In this study, performance was evaluated not as quantitative but as attitudes and behaviors. Well-being, which indicates the affects and moods of employees, is exogenous while affecting performance and endogenous while being affected by workplace conditions.

Contextual factors are essential in understanding CWB and OCB for the job conditions in the organization have a crucial impact on the productivity of employees. These are perceptions such as organizational support,

justice, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Brink et al., 2016) by which the employee develops his or her images of whether the organization's policies, procedures, practices and resources are adequate. Poor job conditions, insincere relationships with colleagues, ambiguous tasks, inadequate supervision, and poor employee performance and efficiency may create a poor climate. The job conditions may cause employees to be happy in the workplace (Daley & Perfitt, 1996) and therefore, employees may be satisfied with these job conditions (Kaddourah, Khalidi, Abu-Shaheen, & Al-Tannir, 2013; AbuAlRub, El-Jardali, Jamal, & AbuAl-Rub, 2016). Job satisfaction (Lee, Carswell, & Allen, 2000), which is involved in organizational working conditions, is important in the relationship with CWB (Hollinger & Clark, 1983, Kulas et al., 2007; Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Brink et al., 2016) and OCB (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009). For example, Hollinger and Clark (1983) showed a strong positive relationship between production deviance and job dissatisfaction, with significant results for the retail, hospitals and manufacturing.

Hanisch, Hulin and Roznowski (1998) note that withdrawal behavior is a result of negative work attitudes that are a consequence of organizational constraints and job conditions. Organizational sanctions and constraints may be influenced by the organizational climate (Kulas et al., 2007). Gazica and Spector (2016) argue that physical and non-physical violence in the workplace is associated with VPC, while civility climate is associated with incivility and interpersonal conflict. Hence, violence prevention policies, procedures and practices in hospitals can affect organizational constraints and interpersonal conflicts.

Hypothesis 1: A violence prevention climate (VPC) negatively affects interpersonal conflict at work (ICAW).

Hypothesis 2: A violence prevention climate (VPC) negatively affects organizational constraints (OC).

A study of job stress (Daley & Perfitt, 1996) shows an increase in the importance of emotions as a sign of strain or well-being in the workplace. It has been found that physical violence applied to nurses in the workplace is negatively related to the health and as well as nurses' well-being (Yang et al., 2012). A climate of violence prevention refers to the perspective of policy implementation and control processes practice by management to eliminate violence (Spector et al., 2007). Creating a climate of violence prevention can help improve the working environment, reduce the risk of exposure to violence, diminish work stress,

effectively prevent violent incidents, and promote a positive work environment (Yang and Caughlin, 2017). Implementation of violence prevention climate policy may significantly affect employee satisfaction. This policy approach can both effectively reduce depression and the negative impact of violence on employees. Violence prevention policies can also deter those who are prone to violence (Aytaç and Dursun, 2012). Aytaç and Dursun (2012) state that VPC-related policies and procedures increase the job satisfaction of the employees positively, and that VPC is negatively related to work-related stress, anxiety and depression. Therefore, violence prevention policies, procedures and practices can reverse this harm. As a factor for reducing stress, impressions of a violence prevention climate relate to the well-being and physical health of workers (Kessler et al., 2008; Chang et al., 2012). Indeed, effective implemented VPC in an organization may not increase employee happiness, at which point how VPC is applied by the leader becomes crucial. Moreover, Kerns (2018) states that managerial leadership is important in well-being. Violence prevention policies, procedures, practices may lead to the employee being more happy.

Hypothesis 3: A violence prevention climate (VPC) positively affects job-related affective well-being (JAW).

OC refers to conditions that prevent the employee's ability and effort to improve job performance (Spector and Jex, 1998: 357). The most common limitations encountered in organizations are broken equipment, insufficient and poor information, intervene by others in communication. These limitations lead to frustration and dissatisfaction of employees (Peters and O'Connor, 1988; Villanova and Roman, 1993). Huang et al. (2019) found that employee happiness was related to job-related characteristics such as high workload and time pressure. In this sense, they said that positive emotions related to work had a positive effect on employee happiness. Fox et al. (2001) found that there was a correlation ($r = .47$) between organizational constraints and negative emotions that used as the negative dimension of the JAW Scale (JAWS) formed by van Katwyk et al. (2000). Moreover, the high workload of health workers in a highly dynamic and negative conditions can affect their happiness (Persson et al., 2018; Schneider et al., 2019). Schneider et al. (2019) conditions such as poor relations between employees and interruptions in the workflow are considered as job-related factors.

Hypothesis 4: Organizational constraints (OC) negatively affects job-related affective well-being (JAW).

ICAW includes all conflicts ranging from small claims between employees to physical attacks (Spector and Jex, 1998: 357). These conflicts can be seen explicitly (e.g. rude behavior to a colleague) or implicitly (e.g. gossip about a colleague). Spector and Jex (1998: 358) states that interpersonal conflict is associated with emotional reactions involving anxiety, depression and frustration, and that these conflicts may soon lead to feelings of frustration. The research of Fox et al. (2001) reveals a correlation ($r = .47$) between interpersonal conflict at work and negative emotions, measured by JAWS. Persson et al. (2018) say that in order to ensure happy workers in intensive and unfavorable workplace conditions in healthcare sector, there should be trust, mutual responsibility and cooperation between co-workers. Ensuring a climate of trust and cooperation can be achieved by reducing interpersonal conflicts. It is seen that communication skills level of health workers and conflicts between co-workers affect happiness (Schneider et al., 2019).

Hypothesis 5: Interpersonal conflict at work (ICAW) negatively affects job-related affective well-being (JAW).

Wright, Cropanzano and Bonett (2007) state that employee happiness increases employee productivity, job performance, job satisfaction. When employees feel well-being in their organization, they may feel more committed (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) and a greater sense of belonging to the organization (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012).

Hypothesis 6: Job-related affective well-being (JAW) positively affects organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Spector et al. (2006b) find that CWB is associated with boredom and sadness. CWB is associated with the welfare of the organization or its employees, and, simultaneously, there is a cost in terms of both individuals and organizations. In addition to financial damage to organizations, CWB also creates conditions such as low employee morale, increased labor turnover, low productivity and absenteeism (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006), and it makes employees unhappy. The relationship between negative emotions, used as the negative dimension of the JAWS, and CWB has been proven in many studies (Fox et al., 2001; Miles et al., 2002).

Hypothesis 7: Job-related affective well-being (JAW) negatively affects counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Kulas et al. (2007) examined the relationship between employee deviance and conditional factors

argue that perceptions of management styles and organizational norms constitute the organizational climate and that this climate pushes employees to behave counterproductively. In this case, perceived organizational sanctions also reduce the circumstances of these behaviors (Kulas et al., 2007). Spector and his friends (Spector 1975; Fox et al., 2001; Fox & Spector, 1999) describe CWB as a response to emotion-based stress in the workplace.

Employees who are unsatisfied due to their perception of insufficient policies, procedures, practices, and resources in the organization may tend to harm to overcome these types of dissatisfaction (Hollinger & Clark, 1983, Brink et al., 2016). Organizational and interpersonal conflicts force workers to behave in a counterproductive way (Fox et al., 2001). Chernyak-Hai and Tziner (2014) argue that employee perceptions of the organizational ethical climate and organizational justice are negatively link with CWB. As employees confront unfavorable situations, violence between the actor (individual or organization) and employees may emerge (Merchant & Lundell, 2001 as cited in Spector et al., 2006b). The reason why CWB is defined as non-functional behavior is the damage to the organization's target, employees, procedures, efficiency and profits (Dalal, 2005; Spector et al., 2006b). Organizational constraints, such as difficult job conditions, a rigid management style, role ambiguity and personal conflicts, may cause job stress (Fox et al., 2001; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) and lead to CWB, which constitute the organizational conditions. Penney and Spector (2005) find that interpersonal conflicts and organizational constraints, referred to as job stress, are positively associated with CWB, defined as performance.

Hypothesis 8: A violence Prevention Climate (VPC) negatively affects counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Hypothesis 9: Interpersonal conflict at work (ICAW) positively affects counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Hypothesis 10: Organizational constraints (OC) positively affects counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Walumbwa, Wu and Orwa (2008) argue that procedural justice climate has been acknowledged as a critical and basic factor in determining OCB. Because of intervening situational constraints, it may affect job performance (Spector & Jex, 1998). The existence of violence prevention policies and procedures may cause employees to be treat positively (Chang et al., 2012; Kessler et al., 2008). However, organizational conditions such as resource constraints within the organization,

interpersonal conflicts, and negative perceived management styles may cause employee to act negatively (Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). There is some proof that the job stressors of interpersonal conflicts and organizational constraints are antecedents of OCB (Dalal, 2005; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010; Miles et al., 2002; Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012), which has negative effects. However, CWB and OCB are said to occur at the same time (Dalal et al. 2009; Spector and Fox, 2002). This is because as employees integrate internally with the CWB in the face of negative situations, they feel guilty towards the organization and show OCB behavior (Klotz and Bolino, 2013). On the other hand, while different organizational constraints cause CWB, OCB behavior can be shown by employees because they feel compelled to become a citizen of the organization (Spector and Fox, 2010a, b).

Hypothesis 11: A violence prevention climate (VPC) positively affects organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Hypothesis 12: Interpersonal conflict at work (ICAW) negatively affects organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Hypothesis 13: Organizational constraints (OC) negatively affects organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

In the literature, organizational citizenship behaviors provide organizational benefits, whereas counterproductive work behaviors are viewed as harmful behaviors (Dalal, 2005). In many studies, CWB and OCB are defined as opposite concepts (Miles et al., 2002; Dalal, 2005; Ariani, 2013) and have a strong negative relationship with each other (Ariani, 2013).

Hypothesis 14: Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) negatively affects organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Personal characteristics (Dalal, 2005; Mount et al., 2006; Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015) and work experience (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Kulas et al., 2007) can be considered factors that affect CWB. Control variables, which include gender, age, marital status, jobs, education,

tenure and experience, that can influence CWB and OCB have been included in this study.

4. RESEARCH METHOD

4.1. Model and Analysis Methods

The main aim of this study is to determine the impact of workplace conditions on the employees' performance. The conditions within the organization can be assessed in a positive and negative manner. Whereas organizational constraints (Kulas et al., 2007) and conflicts create a negative climate, a violence prevention climate creates a positive climate within the organization (Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). In addition, positive and negative climate conditions lead to positive or negative emotions in people (Kessler et al., 2008; Chang et al. 2012). All conditions whether they are positive or not affect the job performance (Hollinger & Clark, 1983, Brink et al., 2016) in two dimensions, which are the CWB of the employee as negative behavior and the OCB as positive behavior. For the purpose of this study, a model was build up, as displayed in *Figure 1*.

In this study, a path analysis was conducted to determine whether the specified relations were correct. The appropriate proposed research model for path analysis has been examined by using the structural equation modeling (SEM). The concepts were tested using scales that have highest score of the validity and reliability. The structural validity of the scales was analyzed by Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in one pool and the scale reliability by Cronbach's alpha ($CA \geq .70$), composite reliability ($CR \geq .70$) and the average variance extracted ($AVE \geq .50$) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2016). For the good fitness statistics in SEM, the chi-square goodness of fit ($\chi^2 (CMIN) / df \leq 3$), the comparative fit index ($CFI \geq .92$), the goodness of fit index ($GFI \geq .85$), the root mean square error of approximation ($RMSEA \leq .09$) and the standardized root mean square residual ($SSRMR \leq .08$) were used within the accepted limits in the literature (Hair et al., 2016). IBM SPSS and AMOS versions 23 were used in the analyses.

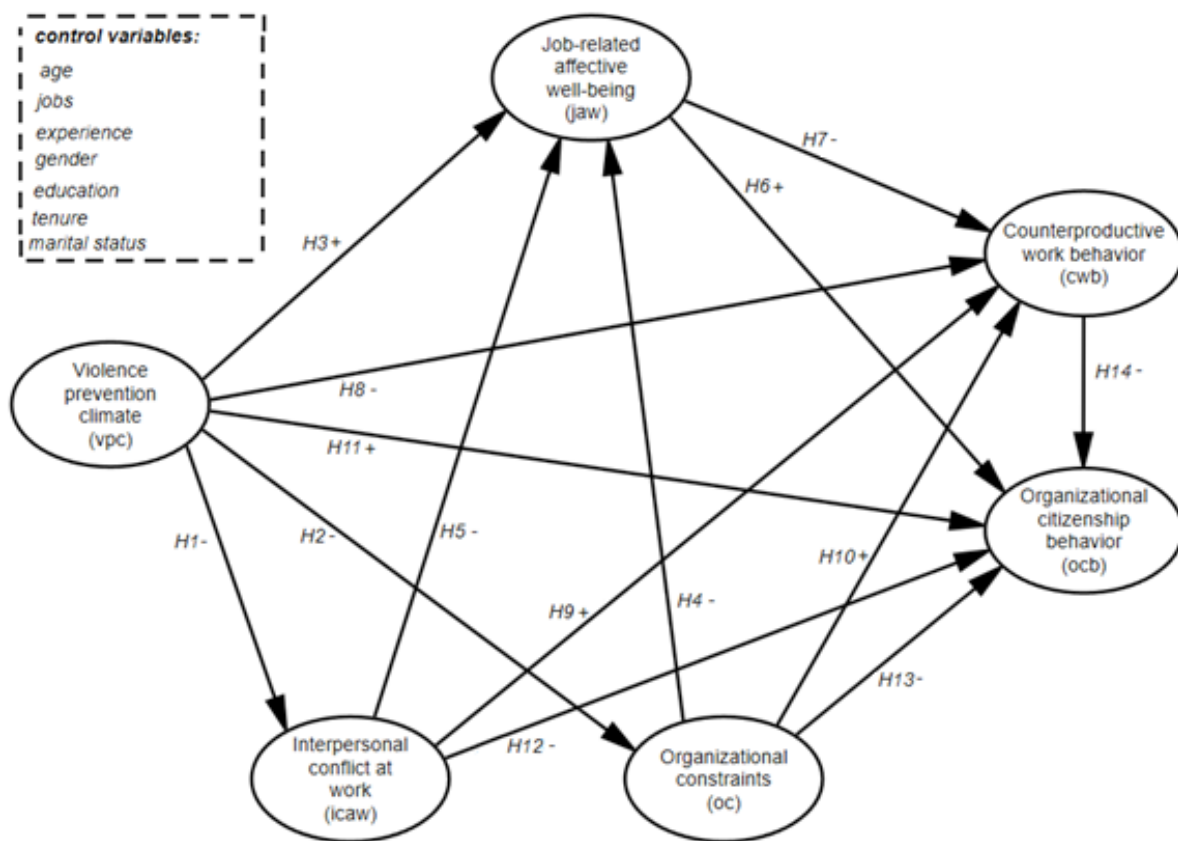


Figure 1: The Proposed Research Model

4.2. Data Collection Tools

This research is survey-based, with the data being collected through a questionnaire. Six scales and seven control variables were used in the questionnaire. The control variables are marital status (married, single), gender (female, male), occupation (nurse, health staff) and educational level (high school and below, vocational school and graduated and above). The respondents were asked to answer open-ended questions on their age, work experience and tenure. All scale items were assessed using a 5-point Likert-type scale.

To measure employees' performance constraints and their conflicts with other employees, this study used the Organizational Constraints (OC) Scale with 11-item and Interpersonal Conflict at Work (ICAW) Scale (Spector & Jex, 1998) with the 4-item, which asked the respondents to answer by choosing a degree ranging from never to very often. The OC and ICAW items were posed to the respondents under the same question heading as "How often do you find it difficult or impossible to do your job because of...?". Spector and Jex (1998) obtain alphas of .85 for OCS and .74 for ICAWS.

In this study, the alphas for OC and ICAW were .90 and .87, respectively.

The Violence Prevention Climate (VPC) Scale was based on the study of Kessler et al. (2008). A shortened version tested by Yang et al. (2012), the scale has 12 items with three dimensions, practices, policies, and pressure, with each dimension having four items. Staff members were asked to describe the violence prevention situation of their work. The scale includes four reversed items. Yang et al. (2012) found Cronbach's alpha for the scale ranging from .71 to .89 overall and for the individual dimensions. In this study, the alpha score for overall scale is .70.

The first version of the Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) Scale build up by Fox et al. (2001) has 45 items covering two dimensions, namely, the organization and the person. There is also another version of the CWB consisting of 32 items with five dimensions, which are abuse, productive sabotage, deviance, withdrawal and theft. However, this study used a shortened version of the 45-item CWB with one dimension (Spector et al., 2010) that includes 10 items, five items targeting the organization and five targeting the person, with reply

ranging from never to every day. The participants were requested the heading "How often have you done each of the following things in your present job?" to respond to attitude-based expressions. Spector et al. (2010) found an alpha of .80 for the employees' sample and .86 for the supervisors' sample. In this study, Cronbach's alpha was .79.

Spector et al. (2010) developed the 20-item Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Scale. This research used a 10-item shortened scale by Spector et al. (2010). The question heading of the scale was the same as that of the CWB scale. Spector et al. (2010) found an alpha value of .82 for the agreement sample and .84 for the frequency sample. In this study, the alpha score is .83.

The concept of well-being was measured using the Job-Related Affective Well-Being (JAW) Scale developed by van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway (2000), which has 30 items covering one dimension. In this study, a 20-item shortened version was used (van Katwyk et al., 2000). The participants were requested, "how often have you experienced each of the following emotions related to your job at work over the last month?". van Katwyk et al. (2000) found an alpha of .95 for the all items of the scale. Alpha value was found .93 for this study.

4.3. Sample

The survey was conducted on permanent nurses and health officers. The hospital has 435 employees including permanent and temporary contractual staff. Temporary contractual staff were not included in the sample because their work contracts may not be renewed. Therefore, attempts were made to reach 265 permanent nurses and health officers, and 177 questionnaires were collected (for a response rate of 66.79%). The answers of 10 respondents were omitted from the analysis because more than 10% of the data were missing. It was observed that the standard deviation of the responses to the scale was not less than .50 for each sample. One sample was not evaluated in the analysis because it did not give consistent answers on items with reverse coding; consequently, 166 samples representing 63% of the survey were analyzed. A total of 41 variables of the scales were replaced by median values ranging from one to seven samples. The education and job variables were replaced by median values for two samples. The age, tenure and experience

variables were replaced by mean values ranging from one to seven samples.

4.4. Reliability and Validity

The scales had no kurtosis and skewness problems, having absolute values greater than 2. To observe whether there is any multi-collinearity, variables with a Variance Inflation Factor value of below 5 and tolerance greater than .1 were analyzed (Hair et al., 2006). It is also confirmed that the correlation values are not higher than .80 (Bryman & Cramer, 2009). The Durban-Watson values range from 1.5 to 2.5; that is, there is no autocorrelation. The respondents were asked to give no signs indicating their identity to avoid common variance bias. According to Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), the EFA result for the total variance explained (20.162%) was found to be far below 50%, and it is concluded that all of the scales were not aggregated in one factor, meaning that there is no common variance bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Six scales were assessed for construct validity with EFA, which used the maximum likelihood method and Promax with the Kaiser normalization method, aggregated in 10 factors (the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value is .819, and Bartlett's test (5810.137; $df = 1176$) is significant at the level of .0001; the total variance explained is 63.146) with a total of 49 items (*Table 1*); 67 items were dropped due to factor loading values less than .40 or cross-loading. Consequently, VPC was divided into two dimensions, practices and policies in one dimension with eight items, and pressure in the other dimension with three items; thus, two items were dropped from the analysis. JAW was also divided into two dimensions, positive (seven items) and negative (nine items) feelings, with differences from the literature (van Katwyk et al., 2000); four items were dropped. The results for CWB were as one dimension with six items; 4 items were dropped. The results for the OCB scale were one dimension with five items; five items were dropped, just as in the literature (Spector et al., 2010). The ICAW scale also factored in one dimension with three items; one item was dropped. Finally, OC were divided into three dimensions, with differences from the literature (Spector & Jex, 1998), with eight items; three items were dropped.

Table 1: Reliabilities and Validities of The Scales Resulting From EFA and CFA

Scales	Factors/items	Factor loadings		AVE	CR	Alpha
		EFA	CFA			
JAW	<i>Negative JAW (NJAW)</i>	16.269				
	jaw1	.816	φ			
	jaw2	.619	φ			
	jaw7	.910	φ			
	jaw8	.586	φ			
	jaw9	.677	φ	.566	.837	.837
	jaw12	.677	.704			
	jaw14	.556	.614			
	jaw16	.780	.863			
	jaw17	.825	.803			
CWB	<i>Positive JAW (PJAW)</i>	3.865				
	jaw6	.543	φ			
	jaw10	.678	φ			
	jaw11	.686	φ			
	jaw13	.803	.662	.539	.819	.823
	jaw18	.698	.563			
	jaw19	.665	.908			
	jaw20	.627	.761			
VPC	<i>Counterproductive work behavior (CWB)</i>	6.712				
	cwb4	.605	.660			
	cwb5	.715	φ			
	cwb6	.870	.821	.512	.804	.765
	cwb7	.888	φ			
	cwb8	.628	.566			
OCB	<i>Practices and policies VPC (PPVPC)</i>	9.700				
	vpc1	.581	.677			
	vpc2	.709	φ			
	vpc3	.849	φ			
	vpc4	.756	.837	.626	.869	.864
	vpc5	.863	.854			
	vpc6	.786	φ			
	vpc7	.918	φ			
	vpc8	.823	.785			
	<i>Pressure VPC (PVPC)</i>	2.394				
	vpc9	-.550	.850	.556	.710	.693
vpc10	-.773	.624				
vpc11	-.682	φ				
OC	<i>Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)</i>	7.326				
	ocb1	.593	φ			
	ocb2	.801	.796	.563	.836	.832
	ocb3	.721	.797			
	ocb4	.742	.737			
ICAW	ocb5	.717	.664			
	<i>Physical OC (POC)</i>	6.831				
	oc1	1.058	φ	-	-	-
	oc2	.475	φ			
	oc5	.651	φ			
	<i>Knowledge OC (KOC)</i>	2.554				
	oc3	.407	.866	.554	.706	.679
	oc6	.680	.599			
	oc8	.732	φ			
	<i>Interaction OC (IOC)</i>	2.530				
oc9	1.020	φ	-	-	-	
oc10	.459	φ				
ICAW	<i>Interpersonal conflict at work (ICAW)</i>	4.965				
	icaw2	.556	φ	.840	.913	.911
	icaw3	.942	.956			
	icaw4	.799	.875			

Notes: Factor loadings below .40 are not shown in the EFA column; φ indicates that the items were subtracted from model due to low factor loads or high covariates between the error terms, N = 166.

Regarding CFA, a first-order analysis was conducted to determine whether items were aggregated at the theoretical scales based on the EFA. The results of the first-order CFA did not produce good fit indexes: $\chi^2(CMIN) = 2058.307$; $df = 1082$; $\chi^2(CMIN)/df = 1.902$ ($p = .000$); $GFI = .669$; $CFI = .816$; $RMSEA = .074$ ($PLOSE = .0001$); and $SRMR = .068$. Thus, the error terms, which covariate with other error terms related to different scales or different latent variables, were subtracted from the CFA model (see Table 1). After removing items, the first-order CFA produced good fit indexes: $\chi^2(CMIN) = 391.542$; $df = 271$; $\chi^2(CMIN)/df = 1.445$ ($p = .000$); $GFI = .858$; $CFI = .937$; $RMSEA = .052$ ($PLOSE = .381$); and $SRMR = .061$. As shown in Table 1, the AVE and CR values are acceptable, but the KOC and PVPC alpha values are near .70.

Because PPVPC (Practices and policies VPC), PVPC (Pressure VPC) and NJAW (Negative JAW), PJAW (Positive JAW) are sub-scales, VPC and JAW were determined to be latent variables, and therefore, a second-order analysis was performed. However, the result of the analysis produced an error in which “this solution is not admissible” because of the incompatibility between the VPC sub-scales. After removing VPC as a latent variable, the results of the second-order analysis produced acceptable scores: $\chi^2(CMIN) = 409.772$; $df = 276$; $\chi^2(CMIN)/df = 1.485$ ($p = .000$); $GFI = .850$; $CFI = .930$; $RMSEA = .054$ ($PLOSE = .260$); and $SRMR = .067$. The factor loadings of the JAW sub-scales are .73 for NJAW and .84 for PJAW. Additionally, the values for construct validity and reliability fall into an acceptable range, .619 for AVE and .740 for CR.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables.

Gender (%)		Married Status (%)		Education (%)		
Female	Male	Married	Single	High School or below	Vocational School	Graduated and above
129 (77.7)	37 (22.3)	81 (48.8)	85 (51.2)	29 (17.5)	29 (17.5)	108 (65.0)
Job (%)		Experience (month)		in institution	in job	Age
Nurse	Staff	Mean (SD)		54.18 (37.55)	75.75 (52.66)	27.86 (5.50)
136 (81.9)	30 (18.1)	Min.-Max.		5 – 191	7 – 255	19 – 46

Note: N = 166

5. FINDINGS

The respondents were mostly female (78%), having at least a bachelor’s degree (65%) and being nurses (82%); and half of them were married. The age of the respondents ranged from 19 to 46; they were mostly young, with a mean age of 27.86 (± 5.50). Their mean experience in their institution was 54.18 (± 37.55) months, and in their profession, it was 75.75 (± 52.66) months (Table 2).

The correlation coefficients are shown in Table 3. Age ($r = .179$; $p \leq .05$), experience ($r = .162$; $p \leq .05$) and tenure ($r = .192$; $p \leq .05$) significantly and positively correlates with NJAW; additionally, age has a weak relationship with VPC ($r = .169$; $p \leq .05$). As VPC increases, Knowledge OC (KOC) ($r = -.235$; $p \leq .01$) and ICAW ($r = -.438$; $p \leq .01$) decrease, but JAW ($r = .350$; $p \leq .01$) increases. KOC associates with ICAW ($r = .377$; $p \leq .01$) positively and JAW ($r = -.337$; $p \leq .01$) negatively) and JAW ($r = -.337$; $p \leq .01$). ICAW has a negative correlation with JAW ($r = -.401$; $p \leq .01$).

To test the proposed research model (Figure 1) using SEM, the paths between the latent variables were drawn. The theoretical model attempted to prove the following relationships: VPC, which consists of the

two dimensions of PPVPC and PVPC, may affect OC; and ICAW and JAW have the two subscales of NJAW and PJAW and CWB and OCB, respectively. Lines were drawn from OC and ICAW to JAW, CWB and OCB. JAW affects CWB and OCB, and CWB also affects OCB. The control variables of marital status, gender, jobs, age, education, tenure and experience were also added to the model as paths and covariates. The results of the analysis produced acceptable fit scores: $\chi^2(CMIN) = 596.240$; $df = 410$; $\chi^2(CMIN)/df = 1.454$ ($p = .0001$); $GFI = .835$; $CFI = .922$; $RMSEA = .052$ ($PLOSE = .323$); and $SRMR = .061$. Because of insignificance coefficients, paths and covariates, starting from the most insignificant control variables, were removed from the model.

After removing insignificant paths and covariates related to the control variables, the effects of gender on KOC ($\beta = -.160$; $p = .040$), CWB ($\beta = .226$; $p = .008$) and OCB ($\beta = .200$; $p = .023$), the effect of marital status on KOC ($\beta = -.249$; $p = .001$) and the effect of tenure on JAW ($\beta = .194$; $p = .014$) remained in the model. Although the control variables are not hypothesized, it can be made some comments about the results. Being married ($\bar{x} = 2.86 \pm .95$) is more sensitive to knowledge organizational

constraints than being single ($\bar{x} = 2.49 \pm 1.09$). This conclusion makes sense because married people also have family responsibilities. Another logical result is that as experience at work increases, well-being also increases because employees feel more committed to their job. Although males ($\bar{x} = 1.41 \pm .74$) exhibit more counterproductive work behaviors than females ($\bar{x} = 1.15 \pm .34$), the organizational citizenship behaviors of males ($\bar{x} = 4.16 \pm .88$) are higher than those of females

($\bar{x} = 3.95 \pm .90$). This result concerning the relationship between gender and counterproductive work behavior should be considered in future studies in that it was found very few supporting studies (Penney and Spector, 2005) in the literature review. The last finding of the research is that females ($\bar{x} = 2.72 \pm 1.00$) are more sensitive than males ($\bar{x} = 2.49 \pm 1.15$) as a result of the analysis.

Table 3: Correlations

	tenure	experience	age	VPC	PPVPC	PVPC	KOC	ICAW	JAW	PJAW	NJAW	CWB	\bar{x} (s)
experience	.743**												
age	.620**	.804**											
VPC	.07	.15	.169*										2.91 (.60)
PPVPC	.04	.10	.11	.857**									2.67 (.96)
PVPC	.05	.08	.09	.154*	-.377**								3.39 (1.00)
KOC	.11	.09	.09	-.235**	-.178*	-.08							2.67 (1.04)
ICAW	.02	.00	-.07	-.438**	-.348**	-.12	.377**						2.39 (1.15)
JAW	.12	.12	.13	.350**	.417**	-.170*	-.337**	-.401**					2.65 (.86)
PJAW	.00	.03	.04	.255**	.339**	-.192*	-.337**	-.266**	.837**				2.49 (.95)
NJAW	.192*	.162*	.179*	.339**	.372**	-.10	-.244**	-.412**	.869**	.457**			2.82 (1.05)
CWB	-.09	-.04	-.08	-.13	-.03	-.174*	.155*	.13	-.11	-.03	-.153*		1.20 (.47)
OCB	.10	.12	.12	.07	.06	.02	.12	.03	.06	.12	-.01	-.08	3.99 (.90)

Notes: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; $n = 166$. VPC: violence prevention climate; PPVPC: practices and policies VPC; PVPC: pressure VPC; KOC: knowledge organizational constraints, ICAW: interpersonal conflict at work; JAW: job related affective well-being; PJAW: positive JAW; NJAW: negative JAW; CWB: counterproductive work behavior; OCB: organizational citizenship behavior.

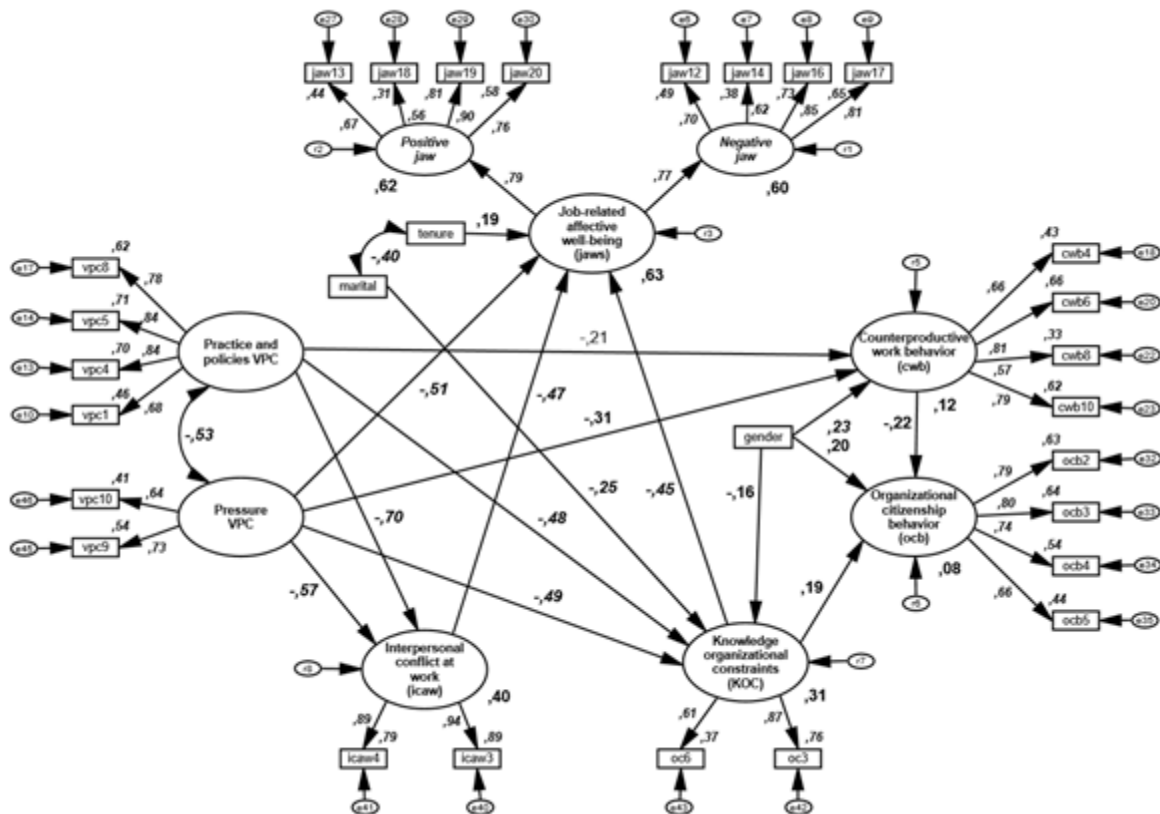


Figure 2: The Revised Model

Then, insignificant coefficients of the paths of the variables, belonging to latent variables, were removed from the model. After removing insignificant variables, the model produced good fit indexes: $\chi^2(CMIN) = 508.814$; $df = 360$; $\chi^2(CMIN)/df = 1.413$ ($p = .000$); $GFI = .834$; $CFI = .924$; $RMSEA = .050$ ($PLOSE = .488$); and $SRMR = .071$ (Figure 2). *PPVPC* negatively affects *ICAW* ($\beta = -.703$; $p = .0001$) (Hypothesis 1 accepted), *KOC* ($\beta = -.481$; $p = .0001$) (Hypothesis 2 accepted) and *CWB* ($\beta = -.215$; $p = .059$) (Hypothesis 8 accepted)¹. *PVPC* negatively affects *ICAW* ($\beta = -.572$; $p = .0001$) (Hypothesis 1 accepted), *KOC* ($\beta = -.487$; $p = .0001$) (Hypothesis 2 accepted), *CWB* ($\beta = -.307$; $p = .016$) (Hypothesis 8 accepted) and *JAW* ($\beta = -.508$; $p = .0001$) (The hypothesis 3 was rejected because the direction of the relationship was determined positively). *JAW* is negatively affected by *ICAW* ($\beta = -.471$; $p = .0001$) (Hypothesis 5 accepted) and *KOC* ($\beta = -.455$; $p = .0001$) (Hypothesis 4 accepted). *OCB* is affected by *KOC* ($\beta = .191$; $p = .050$) (The hypothesis 13 was rejected because the direction of the relationship was determined negatively) positively and *CWB* ($\beta = -.217$; $p = .026$) (Hypothesis 14 accepted) negatively. However, Hypothesis 11, Hypothesis 9, Hypothesis 12, Hypothesis 10, Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7 are insignificant.

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research aimed to reveal that a violence prevention climate in the workplace and organizational constraints affect job related affect well-being, counterproductive work and organizational citizenship behavior. The theoretical model partially corresponds to the revised model.

Comparing the two models, *OCB* and *CWB* have emerged as the most incongruent concepts with respect to each other based on the specified theory. Both sub-dimensions of the violence prevention climate negatively affect counterproductive work behavior, as proposed in the literature (Kulas et al., 2007). Thus, it is observed that employees do not show counterproductive work behavior in response to positive practices and policies and the inexistence of pressure. *CWB* and *OCB*, determined as performance outputs, are negatively related to each other, as supported by the literature (Dalal, 2005; Miles et al., 2002; Ariani, 2013).

However, the reason why *JAW*, *ICAW* and *OC*, as indicated in the literature (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Fox et al., 2001; Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014; Brink et al., 2016), have an insignificant effect on *CWB* may relate to the sample, in which health sector works intensively on patients according to a job requirement. Therefore,

staff members must work speedily and productively because of the circumstances are vital in hospital conditions. In addition, the impact of *VPC*, *ICAW* and *JAW* on *OCB* is not significant, but the effect of *OC* on *OCB* is significant and positive, which contradicts some literature (Miles et al., 2002; Dalal, 2005; Spector et al., 2010; Fox et al., 2012; Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). On the other hand, the coexistence of *CWB* and *OCB* (Dalal et al. 2009; Spector and Fox, 2002), employees may show *OCB* behavior despite various organizational constraints. Because they feel guilty (Klotz and Bolino, 2013) or compelled (Spector and Fox, 2010a, b) to their organizations. Despite organizational constraints, the increase in organizational citizenship can be associated with strong feelings of belonging to their institution by staff members while arguing with everyone to do their job.

According to the proposed model and the final model, *ICAW* and *KOC*, which contain all constraints related to performing the job, negatively affect affective well-being, as supported by the literature (Daley & Perfit, 1996). Additionally, other findings support the literature (Kulas et al., 2007); a violence prevention climate concerning practice, policies and pressure negatively affects organizational constraints, interpersonal conflict at work and knowledge organizational constraints. However, in contrast to the literature (Yang et al., 2012), it is found that a violence prevention climate concerning pressure negatively affects affective well-being. The violence prevention climate scale consists of two types of items. One of the groups of items relates to the existing violence prevention procedure and policies in the organization. However, the other group of items, composed of two items that emerged from EFA and CFA, is associated with comparing the priority of performing the job and the violence prevention procedure (Kessler et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2012). The sector is the health sector, and most of the work should be completed immediately regardless of what happens. Moreover, managerial leadership is important in feeling well-being (Kerns, 2018), because the implementation of procedures depends on leadership style.

This research has some limitations related to time, area, cost and concepts; therefore, the study cannot be generalized. First, the survey was completed in the 2017 spring term over a one-month period, it is based on a questionnaire technique that also has restrictions related to the survey technique. Second the research was conducted at only one institution that operates in the health sector. The health sector is a special sector

because work must be performed very speedily and carefully. The results of the analysis are also evidence of this argument. Another limitation is that concepts that should have been included as other subjects, such as job satisfaction, other job performance measures and work stress, were excluded. Therefore, research can be extended with new concepts such as those noted above and compared with different sectors with higher sample volumes. Another extension of this study can be added customer or client violence as Spector et al. (2006a: 42) indicated that employees exposed to customer violence resulting from the anger and anxiety of patients and their relatives may experience negative emotions and result in CWB.

de Jonge and Peeters (2009: 700) argue that the intense working environment (e.g. workload) can adversely affect employee welfare and health. The negative effects of work stress on employees can be

psychological (e.g., job dissatisfaction), physical (e.g. somatic symptoms), or behavioral (e.g. CWB). Çelik and Çıra (2013) highlighted the mediating role of work overload in the impact of OCB on job performance and turnover intention. Health employees in particular can exhibit deviant work behaviors due to high workload. Job resources, such as autonomy and managerial support, can reduce the negative effects of high workload on deviant work behavior. The findings highlight the importance of providing physical, emotional, and job resource support to reduce the likelihood of health workers in deviant work behaviors. In order to overcome the negative conditions experienced especially in hospitals, a number of measures can be taken from the selection of employees to the training of managers (Spector et al., 2006a: 41-42). Therefore, hospital management should focus firstly on violence prevention practices and policies.

Endnotes:

1. Because it is very close to the .05 significance level, the hypothesis is accepted at the .1 significance level.

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