

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
KAMU YÖNETİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT
BİLİM DALI

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION
AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

ÇİSER ENGİN

İstanbul, 2007

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Danışman: PROF DR. İNCİ ERDEM ARTAN

İstanbul, 2007

Marmara Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

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1) Tez Danışmanı : PROF. DR. İNCİ ARTAN ERDEM

2) Jüri Üyesi : DOÇ. DR. MELİHA DENİZ BÖRÜ

3) Jüri Üyesi : DOÇ. DR. AHMET METE ÇİLİNGİRTÜRK

İmzası



GENEL BİLGİ

İsim ve Soyadı	: Çiser Engin
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ÖZET

İŞ TATMİNİ İLE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

İş dünyasındaki hızlı değişimler ışığında günümüz şirketleri hayatta kalabilmek ve ilerlemek için yeteneklerini, kaynaklarını, strateji ve sistemlerini geliştirme yolunda yoğun çaba harcamak zorundadırlar. Son yıllarda gerçekleşen teknolojik gelişmeler, artan rekabet koşulları, küreselleşme, eğitim düzeyinin yükselmesi, işgören güvenliği ve beklentilerin artması insanları olduğu kadar örgütlerin de yaşamlarını değiştiren toplumsal faktörlerdir. Bu şartlar altında farklılık yaratmak için organizasyona bağlı, verimli, motive olmuş ve yaratıcı insan kaynağını sağlamak önemli kaynaklardan biridir. Teknolojik fırsatların ve değişimin artmasıyla, organizasyonların iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık konularına odaklanmaları bir gereklilik haline gelmiştir. Bu çalışma, çalışanların iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Araştırmada öne sürülen hipotezlerin sınanması için keşfedici araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çalışmadaki hedef kitle kurumsal kaynak planlaması kullanıcılarıdır. Anketler, 3 ayrı firmada 60 denekten oluşan kurumsal kaynak planlaması kullanıcılarını içeren bir örneklem üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Bunlar, iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık anketleridir.

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

Name and Surname :Çiser Engin
Field : Public Administration
Programme : Human Resources Management and Development
Supervisor : Professor İnci Erdem Artan
Degree Awarded and Date : Master- September 2007
Key Words : Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

In view of a rapidly changing business environment, today's firms must devote greater efforts to enhance their capabilities, resources, strategies and systems for development and survival. In the recent years, technological improvement, increasing competitive requirements, globalization, increasing level of education, employee safety and growing expectations are the sociological changes that effect and change individuals life and as well as the companies life. One of the most important force multipliers to make a difference under these conditions is a loyal, productive, highly motivated and creative human resource. With increasing of technological advances and changes, there is need for organizations to address employee satisfaction and organizational commitment. This study is designed to investigate to understand the relationship between employee's job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In order to test the proposed hypotheses, exploratory research method is used. Specifically, we focused on users of Enterprise Resource Planning. Survey data were collected from three different company 60 enterprise resource planning users by two different questionnaires; specifically job satisfaction survey and organizational commitment survey.

ÖNSÖZ

Son yıllarda gerçekleşen teknolojik gelişmeler, artan rekabet koşulları, küreselleşme, eğitim düzeyinin yükselmesi, işgören güvenliği ve beklentilerin artması insanları olduğu kadar örgütlerin de yaşamlarını değiştiren toplumsal faktörlerdir. Bu şartlar altında farklılık yaratmak için organizasyona bağlı, verimli, motive olmuş ve yaratıcı insan kaynağını sağlamak önemli kaynaklardan biridir.

Bu çalışma, çalışanların iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Bu çalışmayı sonuçlandırmamda görüşleri ile katkıda bulunan değerli hocam Prof. Dr. İnci Erdem ARTAN'a, ve desteğini esirgemeyen aileme teşekkür eder, çalışmanın tüm ilgililere yararlı olmasını dilerim.

İstanbul, 2007

Çiser ENGİN

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1. INTRODUCTION

In view of a rapidly changing business environment, today's firms must devote greater efforts to enhance their capabilities, resources, strategies and systems for development and survival. In the recent years, technological improvement, increasing competitive requirements, globalization, increasing level of education, employee safety and growing expectations are the sociological changes that effect and change individuals life and as well as the companies life. Due to changes affecting management organizational hierarchy, managers are increasingly given more responsibility for decision making and for managing their own day to day activities with fewer staff which have to work.

One of the most important force multipliers to make a difference under these conditions is a loyal, productive, highly motivated and creative human resource. With increasing of technological advances and changes, there is need for organizations to address employee satisfaction, organizational commitment and nature of work itself. The success, survival and competing power of organizations depend on the loyalty of their members, supporting their individual developments and ensuring their participation. Managers in general have the wrong belief that those who work with high performance are absolutely happy, but that may not be true. Managers and employee may become less satisfied with their job and less committed to the organization, which can have an impact on job performance and turnover.

The study of job satisfaction and organizational commitment is considered to be important both to employer and employee. Also organizations often rely on job satisfaction measures as an approach to develop cost reduction strategies because of the reported relationship between job satisfaction and employee productivity. It is also considered to examine organizational commitment and its relationship to how employees connect to the organization in terms of membership status. The need for understanding the motivational aspects of how employees become satisfied and committed to an organization is also critical in designing this study.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment concepts are two organizational attitudes. Attitudes are evaluating statements either favorable or unfavorable concerning objects, people or events. They reflect how one feels about something. Attitudes are not same as values, but two are interrelated.¹

Attitude describes a persistent tendency to feel and behave particular way toward some object. Two aspects of this definition should be stressed. First, attitudes persist or endure. That is in the absence of forces to change, the individual's attitude toward a certain object will remain same. Second a person's attitude is directed toward some object, about which he has both feelings and beliefs.²

The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employee. Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which an employee feels positively or negatively toward his/her job (Locke, 1976; Odom et al., 1990). Organizational commitment is defined as the employee's feelings of obligation to stay with the organization: feelings resulting from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry or following entry (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

This study also focuses on revealing homogeneous demographic characteristics these employees exhibit that affect their satisfaction and commitment level. Demographic factors were defined as the respondent's personnel data; age, gender, tenure, education and position. Researchers examining job satisfaction and organizational commitment have found relationships among these demographic variables that were used in this study. Research was conducted through a survey instrument consisting of demographic, job-satisfaction, and organizational commitment questions adopted from the validated Minnesota Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment Questionnaires.

¹ Stephen P. Robbins, **Organizational Behavior**, Seventh Edition, New Jersey: Prentice Hall International Editions, 1996, p.181

² H. Joseph Reitz, **Behavior in Organizations**, Georgetown: Richard D. Irwin, Inc, 1977, p.256-257.

This study consists of three parts. In the first part, job satisfaction definition, concept of job satisfaction, theories of job satisfaction and measuring job satisfaction subjects are mentioned. In the second part, organizational commitment, concept of organizational commitment and measuring organizational commitment subjects are mentioned. The third part includes the application about the relationship between the job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Finally the results of the study and discussion will be given.

2. JOB SATISFACTION

The investigation of job satisfaction must begin with an identification of the terms constituting the concept. Since a job is not an entity, the meaning of it can be understood by analyzing the relationship of roles, tasks, responsibilities and interactions. On the other hand, since satisfaction is an emotional response, the meaning of it can be discovered by analyzing the individual's mental processes. In 1976, Locke defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". DuBrin said, "Job satisfaction refers to the feelings of contentment related to work. These feelings range from extremely negative through neutral to extremely positive".³

Formally stated, job satisfaction is degree to which an individual feels positively or negatively about the various facts of the job tasks, the working setting, and relationships with co-workers. It is an underlying belief or feeling that conveys someone's evaluation of their overall job and its separate aspects. It also reflects the degree to which the expectations of a psychological contract are being fulfilled.⁴

According to these views; job satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between what individuals expect to get out of their jobs and what the job actually offers. A person will be dissatisfied if there is less than the desired amount of a job characteristic in the job. For instance, if a person expects to be promoted, in six months and then is not, the person will be dissatisfied. A person will be satisfied if there is no discrepancy between desired and actual conditions. If there is more than the employee expected of some job factor and the excess is beneficial then there, person will be very highly satisfied. The model of job satisfaction presented in Figure 1 shows what stated above.

³ Marvin D. Dunette, **Organizational Psychology**, Prentice Hall, 1976, p.30-32.

⁴ Jhon R. Schermerhorn, James G. Hunt and Richard N. Osborn, **Managing Organizational Behavior**, Third Edition, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1988, p.43.

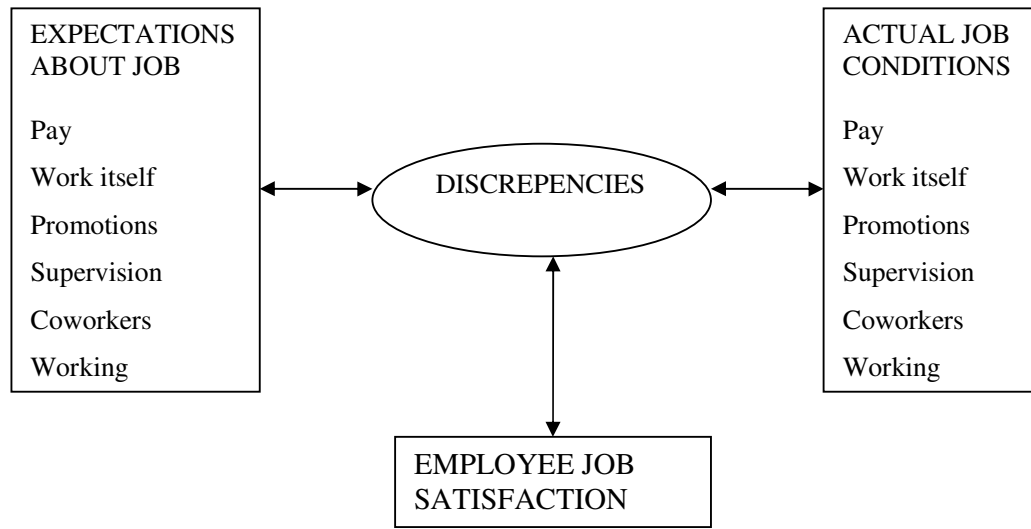


Figure 1: Motivation in Work Organizations.

Source: Adapted from Lawler, E.E., III (1973)

Generally, job satisfaction is measured by interviews or questionnaires through which employees are asked to state the degree to which they like or dislike several aspects of their jobs. The degree to which a person is satisfied with one's job is revealed by his responses to one or more questions about how he feels about one's job. Other more indirect methods have been developed but they have not had very wide use.

2.1 Historical Overview

One of the pioneers believed that workers Frederick W. Taylor motivation was due largely to their interest in money (1916). He also proposed that the most satisfying situation was one in which a worker could make the most money with the least effort. Both productivity and satisfaction would result, if workers were given fair wages and work that could be done quickly without excess fatigue.

The Hawthorne researchers thought it might be the worker's attitudes about their work that caused their reactions. Workers were interviewed and encouraged to talk about what was important and satisfying to them and what they liked and disliked about their jobs.

Most people have mixed reactions to their jobs, and many talked more about social than economic conditions. The researcher conclusion was that money actually was not very important. Most of us, they said, want the satisfaction that comes from social recognition.

During 1930s, several large-scale surveys on job satisfaction were done. The surveys were exploratory; their purpose was to deliver variables that were associated with job satisfaction.

In recent years, job satisfaction is defined as job attitude along with other attitudinal concepts, such as morale, job involvement, and organizational commitment and today it is a blend of many inter related concepts.⁵

2.2 Concept of Job Satisfaction in Organizations

Job satisfaction is a part of work-life continuum. Building a wall between our work and the other parts of your life, (avocation, leisure, and continuing education) is self-defeating. Expending all of your energy on your job, at the expense of other things in life, is just as unproductive as seeing your job only as a means of producing income to be spent on the better things turn sour, and income won't come in for very long.⁶

Job satisfaction increases when the job fits your unique personality, both in terms of your life values and the maximum use of your greatest talents and abilities. Moreover, some people equate job satisfaction with continual movement up the organizational ladder of responsibility and power. For these people it is obviously important to find a way to constantly increase the value of their work to their employer while simultaneously seeking to increase the number of functions and do well.

Other expression that defines job satisfaction is, "it is an effective or emotional response toward various facets of one's job." It is related to life satisfaction and overall performance of organizations as well as absenteeism, turnover and organizational

⁵Job Satisfaction A Theory, <http://www.iadvertising.biz/satisfaction.html> (26 May 2007)

⁶Richard Germann, Diane Blumeson and Peter Arnold, **Working and Liking It**, New York: Fawcett Gold Medal, 1987, p. 16-20.

citizenship “which entails such behaviors as helping co-workers, making constructive statements about the work unit, and promoting a positive work climate”.⁷

It can be thought as an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs as well as various aspects of them.

“It is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience... It is a result of employees’ perception of how well their job provides those things which are viewed as important.”⁸

It is one of the most significant factors of modern approach. Job satisfaction should be a social responsibility and a moral necessity. It has important results for both employees and organizations. Organizations that can supply job satisfaction do not have difficulties in finding workers. In contrast to this, organizations that cannot obtain job satisfaction face with many problems, such as loss of employees and strike. Job satisfaction brings happiness to workers. On the other hand, being lack of it makes employees alienate from their jobs and disharmony comes to existence in the absence of it.

It refers to how people feel about various aspects of their jobs. Those aspects include pay, working conditions, co-workers, supervision, promotional opportunities and variety of other factors. It is also significant to depict that job satisfaction cannot be observed directly; it must be realized from what people do at work and what they say about it. It is possible for workers to be dissatisfied because of some features of their jobs and they can be satisfied with pay or working conditions, yet they can be satisfied with work as a whole.⁹

2.2.1 Antecedents of Job Satisfaction

It is difficult to be precise about the sources of job satisfaction since there are many variables that are being influential. Today, the main debate is being carried around the issue of determination of the most important factors rather than the

⁷ P.E. Spector, **Industrial and Organizational Psychology**, New York: John Willey & Sons, 1996, p. 214.

⁸ Fred Luthans, **Organizational Behavior**, Seventh Edition, New York: McGraw Hill, 1995, p.126.

⁹ Keith Davis, **Human Behavior at Work**, USA: McGraw Hill,1977, p.74.

determination of the factors themselves. There are several researchers who have studied the sources of job satisfaction.

- **Work Itself**

The content of the work itself plays a major role in determining how satisfied employees are with their jobs. Two aspects of the work itself influence the job satisfaction. These are “variety job” and “control over work methods”. Jobs with too little variety cause to feel bored and fatigued. Jobs with too much variety cause to feel psychologically stressed and burned out. In general, therefore, jobs with a moderate amount of variety produce the most satisfaction.¹⁰

- **Pay**

Wage and salaries are important factors for job satisfaction. Money not only helps personnel attain their basic needs but also instrumental in providing upper-level needs satisfaction.¹¹

Moreover, pay can serve as a symbol of achievement and a source of recognition. Employees often see pay as a reflection of management’s esteem for their contribution to the organization. However, fringe benefits have not been found to have as strong an influence on job satisfaction as direct wages. Employees often tend to underestimate how much they actually receive in direct benefits.

- **Promotions**

A promotion to a higher level in an organization typically involves positive changes in supervision, job content and pay. Jobs that are at the higher levels of an organization usually provide personnel more freedom, more challenging work assignments, higher salary and more recognition. On the other hand the stress of

¹⁰ J. Hugh Arnold and Daniel C Feldman, **Organizational Behavior**, New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, International Edition, 1986, p.88.

¹¹ Luthans, p.126-127.

promoted personnel might increase if personnel are not ready to get a promotion or want to get this promotion. This affects job satisfaction in a negative way.¹²

- **Supervision**

Supervision is another source of job satisfaction. Whereas some personnel prefer to participate in decision making, some personnel don't prefer. Personnel who prefer to participate in decision making like democratic supervision and are likely to satisfy with this kind of supervision. Personnel who don't prefer to participate in decision making like the supervision that gives all decisions at the top that therefore personnel don't have any responsibility and are likely to satisfy with this kind of supervision. This situation might be derived from cultural differences. Personnel who are satisfied with participation in decision making desire the rewards such as having.¹³

- **Working Conditions**

Working conditions are another factor that effects job satisfaction. Its effect on job satisfaction is similar with work group. If the working conditions are clean and attractive, personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are hot, cold or noisy personnel will find it more difficult to get things done.¹⁴

- **Workgroup**

Work group refers to the opportunity to interact in a friendly and cooperative atmosphere with coworkers and the work environment they provide. "Friendly, cooperative coworkers are a modest source of job satisfaction to individual employees. The work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice, and assistance to the individual worker and makes the job more enjoyable."¹⁵

¹² Arnold and Feldman, p.88.

¹³ Arnold and Feldman, p.89-90.

¹⁴ Luthans, p.127-128.

¹⁵ Luthans, p.127.

2.2.2 Consequences of Job Satisfaction

To society as a whole as from an individual employee's standpoint, job satisfaction in and of itself is a desirable outcome. However, from a pragmatic management and organizational effectiveness perspective, it is important to know how, if at all, satisfaction relates to outcome variables. For instance, if job satisfaction is a high, will employees perform better and the organization more effective? If job satisfaction is a low, will there be performance problem and ineffectiveness? This question has been asked by both researchers and practitioners through the years. There are no simple answers. In examining the outcomes of job satisfaction, it is important to break down the analysis into a series of specific subtopics. The following examines the most important of these.

- **The motivation-performance satisfaction relationship**

Figure 2 depicts the relationship of motivation, performance, and satisfaction as suggested by recent research about job satisfaction and by theories of individual motivation.

From left to right, individual needs and goals (box 1) are fundamental driving forces in motivation. The extent and direction of an individual's motivation (box2) are influenced by factors in the organizational environment such as leadership style, group norms and support, intergroup behavior, and human resources policies and practices (box3). Individual motivation is further influenced by the desirability of the rewards (valence) and by the expectancy that effort will lead to the performance that will produce the desired outcomes (box4). The effort that is expended (box5), coupled with the individual's skills and abilities (box6), results in performance (box8). However, the technology that is in use, the support services that are provided (such as the proper raw materials or parts supplied at the right time), and the training given the person (box7) are also factors in the level of performance. Performance leads to rewards of both an intrinsic and an extrinsic nature (box9). Intrinsic rewards are internal reinforcements such as feelings of accomplishment and self-worth; extrinsic rewards are external reinforcements such as pay, recognition, or promotion.

Job satisfaction (box11) stems from performance and the accompanying rewards but is influenced by the extent to which the individual perceives the rewards as equitable (box10). An arrow is drawn from box11 back to boxes1 and 2 because job satisfaction or dissatisfaction affects need fulfillment, future goals, and ongoing motivation.¹⁶

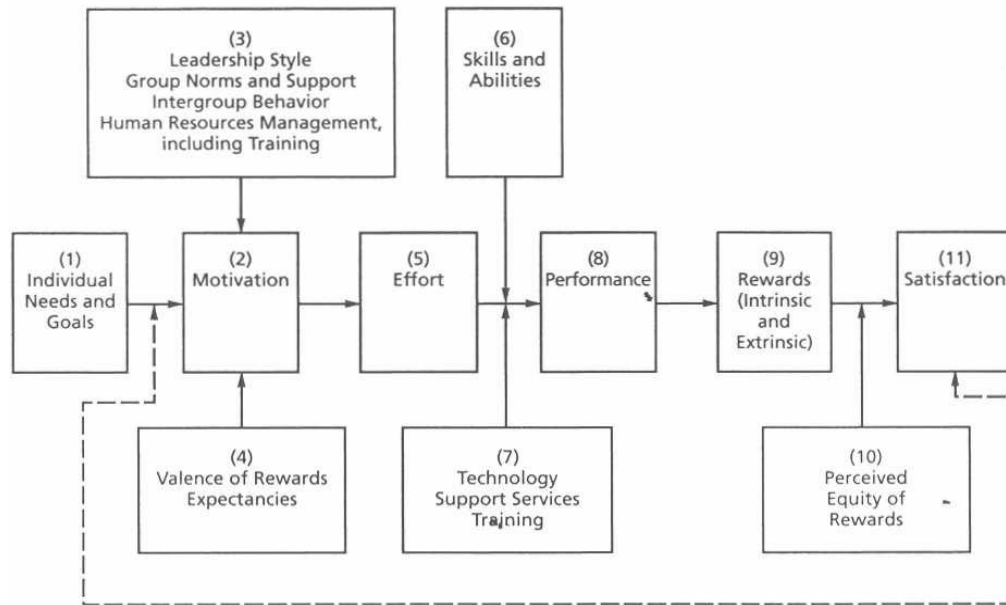


Figure 2: The Motivation-Performance-Satisfaction Relationship

Source: Kreitner, Robert and Angelo Kinicki. *Organizational Behavior*. Boston: Richard D. Irwin. Inc.1989, p.112

- **Defensive Behavior**

Research and experience confirm the link between high dissatisfaction and certain behavioral reactions. For example, in a study of eighty-two employees at various levels in several organizations, it was found that frustration can have extremely negative consequences for organizational goals. Such self-reported behaviors as interpersonal arguments, complaining about the supervisor or organization to people outside, ignoring the supervisor, considering quitting, purposely damaging or defacing equipment, doing

¹⁶ Robert Kreitner and Angelo Kinicki, *Organizational Behavior*, Boston: Richard D. Irwin. Inc., 1989, p.112.

work incorrectly, taking undeserved breaks, or using drugs appeared with considerable frequency.

- **Sabotage**

The deliberate damaging of equipment or products sabotage by employees represents one of the more costly possible consequences of organizational frustrations. For example, deliberate damage to automobiles by employees in automobile assembly plants and sabotage of navy helicopters and jet airplanes has been documented. It may be, however, that high job dissatisfaction is only one of several factors leading to sabotage. Other factors, such as an individual's psychological tendency toward extreme behaviors, may also be operating. Nonetheless, satisfying workers most is part of an effort to reduce sabotage in an organization.

- **Absenteeism**

Failure to report to work absenteeism also appears to be associated with job dissatisfactions. A review of the literature on factors associated with job attendance concluded that job satisfaction was one of the major influences on attendance, although only one of many factors. Another major influence, for example, was ability to attend, that is, the extent to which illness or accidents, family responsibilities, and transportation problems did not interfere with coming to work.¹⁷

- **Turnover**

An Australian study of turnover frequently calculated as the ratio of the number of employee separators during a month to the number of employees on the payroll at the middle of the month found that one factor was dissatisfaction. This study determined that high turnover was part of a broader set of problems, including lowered production and quality, higher costs, low satisfaction with superiors, work anxiety, absenteeism, and accidents. The researchers concluded that long-term solutions to turnover are to be found in "identifying and remedying specific issues producing

¹⁷ Kreitner and Kinicki, p.113.

dissatisfaction as well as more substantive programs of organization development or other forms of planned change.¹⁸

Figure 3 shows that those employees who have less satisfaction tend to be absent more often. As shown by the steepness of the lines in the figure, job satisfaction may not have quite as strong an influence on absences as it does on turnover, because some absences are valid.¹⁹

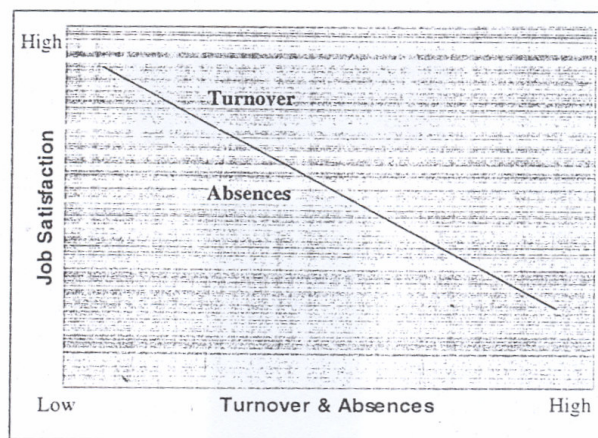


Figure 3: Relationship of Job Satisfaction to Turnover and Absences.

Source: Keith Davis and John W. Newstrom, **Human Behavior at Work: Organizational Behavior**, Seventh Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1989, p. 112.

¹⁸Kreitner and Kinicki p.113-114.

¹⁹Keith Davis and Jhon W. Newstrom, **Human Behavior At Work: Organizational Behavior**, Seventh Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1989, p.112-113.

Employee's attitude toward organization	Positive	Employee stays a	Employee is terminated b
	Negative	Employee leaves voluntarily c	Employee leaves by mutual agreement d
		Positive	Negative
		Employee's attitude toward organization	

Figure 4: Four Products of Employee- Organization Attitudes.

Source: Keith Davis and John W. Newstrom, **Human Behavior at Work: Organizational Behavior**, Seventh Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1989, p.113.

- **Implications for Managers and Human Resources Specialists**

Although the connections between satisfaction and attendance and satisfaction and turnover are rather complicated, the costs of absenteeism and turnover provide ample reason for managers and human resources specialists to be concerned with job satisfaction. Although not all turnover or absenteeism can or should be prevented, it is obvious that high levels of both can be extremely costly to an organization. Further, high dissatisfaction tends to be costly in many other ways. When workers perform below their full potential, the organization suffers from reduced effectiveness and efficiency. Top managers would be wise to assess satisfaction levels in their organizations by unit, by level, and by job category. One way to do this is to use climate or satisfaction surveys at intervals and then to take appropriate remedial action.²⁰

²⁰ Kreitner and Kinicki, p.114.

- **Productivity**

“A happy worker is a good worker” is a persistent belief many practicing managers. While some early studies did find positive correlational links between satisfaction and productivity, subsequent and somewhat more rigorous research yielded mixed results. In some studies the two variables were positively related, in some they were negatively related, and others they were not related at all. A major review of that research led to the conclusion that the evidence did not suggest a consistent relationship between satisfaction and productivity.²¹

- **Pro-Union Voting**

Results from revealed a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and pro-union voting. In other words, people tend to vote for unions when they are dissatisfied with their jobs. Union organizers have taken advantage of this reality for decades. This suggests organizations may want to monitor employee satisfaction if they desire to maintain a nonunionized status.²²

It is not also surprising that job dissatisfaction has an impact on other union activities, such as calling strike or filling union grievances. Work unions with low levels of job satisfaction do have more strikes and file more grievances than units with high levels of job satisfaction.

2.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

2.3.1 Extent Theories

Extent theories, in other words content theories, try to expose factors that make people work. Such theories, which are based on the assumption of people’s behaviors, have specific commitments and they make effort for achieving that goal, believe that people work for satisfying their needs and wants.

²¹ Reitz, p.280.

²² L. French Wendell, **Human Resources Management**, Third Edition, Boston Toronto: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1994, p.170.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory and Mc. Clelland's Learned Needs Theory are the main parts of extent theories.

2.3.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy Of Needs

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, as shown in Figure 5, identifies five distinct levels of individual needs: from self-actualization and esteem, at the top, to social, safety, and physiological at the bottom. The notion of a needs hierarchy is important to Maslow, and he assumes that some needs are more important than others and must be satisfied before the other needs can serve as motivators. For example, the physiological needs must be satisfied before safety needs are activated, and safety needs must be satisfied before social needs are activated, and so on.

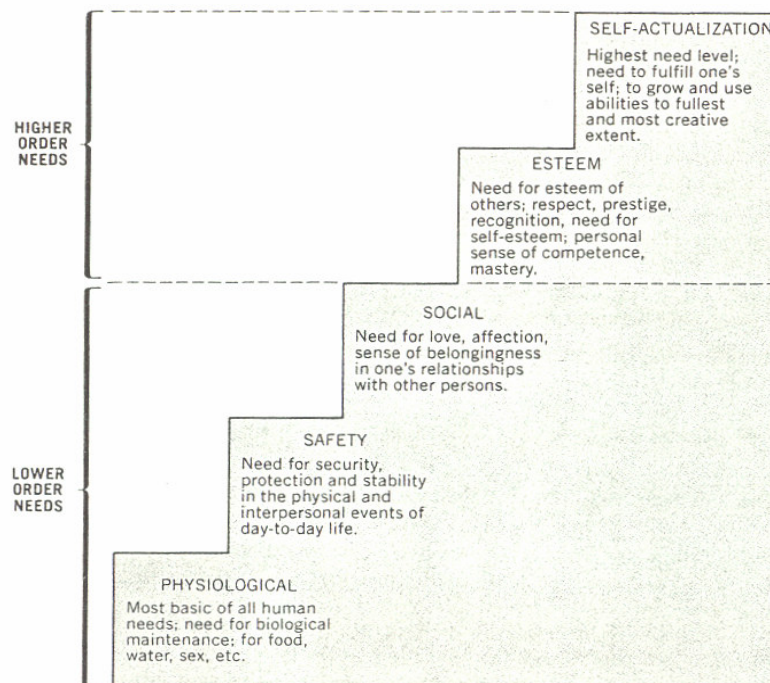


Figure 5: Maslow's Need Hierarchy

Source: Jhon R. Schermerhorn, James G. Hunt and Richard N. Osborn, **Managing Organizational Behavior**, Third Edition, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1988, p.88.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs has two hypotheses. First one of these is that individual acts each behavior in order to satisfy his needs. Therefore, needs are the major factors that demonstrate behavior. A second hypothesis is about the range (hierarchy) of needs. According to this approach, individual has needs that are hierarchically ranged. Before completing subordinated needs, top needs do not drive individual to behaviors. The drive of individual to behaviors depends on the satisfaction of bottom needs. Each satisfied need affects the next need.²³

Maslow's theory (1954) suggests that man has five basic categories of needs:

Physiological needs: These needs include food, water, air, etc. It would be difficult to identify jobs in business, industry, or government which blocks the satisfaction of basic physiological needs.

Safety needs: These needs include freedom from physical threats and harm as well as economic security. To satisfy such needs, organizations can provide their personnel life and health insurance plans, job security and union membership.

Belongingness or social needs: Physiological and safety needs center around the person himself. Belongingness needs involve interactions with other people for purposes of giving and receiving love, or to feel part of a group. Organizations usually provide opportunities to satisfy social needs. Two exceptions might be when an individual dislikes his co-workers or when he is placed in an isolated position.

Esteem needs: These needs include the need for mastery and achievement, and the need for recognition and approval of others. They are based on the belief that people want esteem in terms of both their own standards and the standards of others. In general, people must have positive attitudes toward the nature of their work (consider their job worthwhile) in order to satisfy esteem needs through their jobs.

Self-actualization: This represents the highest level need. It is defined as "the tendency to become actualized in what he is potentially" or "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming".

²³ Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, p.88.

Self-actualization takes into account an individual's own goals and potentials. Jobs, which provide people opportunities to work toward self-actualization, are infrequent. Higher level managerial and some professional jobs are among the kinds of occupational activities that can contribute to self-actualization.

According to Maslow, the less prepotent needs are not desired until the more prepotent needs are satisfied. He maintains that when a lower need is satisfied, the next need in his hierarchy is aroused. Maslow did not develop a specific theory of job satisfaction, but the implications of his theory are obvious. If the individual is in a situation where his needs are met, then he evaluates the situation positively. On the other hand, if his needs are not met, then he evaluates the situation negatively. According to this theory, job satisfaction is positively related to the degree to which the individual's personal needs are satisfied in the job situation.²⁴

2.3.1.2 Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory

This theory is the outcome of Herzberg's research that he applies on 200 accountants and engineers. A very simple question is asked in this research; "Explain in detail when you feel so good and so bad in your job?" While the data is analyzed it is realized that employees use the concepts of work itself, success, responsibility, etc. that are directly about job to explain their satisfaction about their works. At the same time, they explain their dissatisfaction by using both work itself and extrinsic factors that are out of job itself, such as wage, working conditions, etc.

Herzberg found that the replies people gave when they feel good about jobs were completely different from the replies given when they feel bad. This finding led to motivation-hygiene theory's primary conclusion; intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction whereas extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, the factors that lead job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that cause job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who try to eliminate factors that create job dissatisfaction can bring about peace, but not motivation. They just placate their

²⁴ Dunette, p.43.

employee rather than motivating them. As a result, such characteristics as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, and salary have been characterized by Herzberg as hygiene factors. When they are adequate, people will not be dissatisfied; however, neither they will be satisfied. Herzberg suggests that if we want to motivate employees, achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and growth must be emphasized.²⁵

Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory proposes that the primary determinants of employee satisfaction are intrinsic factors to the work that employees do recognition, achievement, responsibility, advancement, personal growth in competence. These factors are called 'motivators' because employees are presumed to be motivated to obtain more of them. On the other hand, dissatisfaction is thought to be emerged by a separate set of factors which are extrinsic to the work itself. These faces of the work environment are called 'hygiene factors' and consist of company policies, supervisory practices, working conditions, salaries and wages, and interpersonal relationships on the job. Therefore, Herzberg's theory suggests that a job should raise positive work motivation and employee satisfaction that will provide opportunities for employees to achieve, to gain recognition and responsibility, to advance in the organization, and to grow in competence.²⁶

According to Herzberg's theory, only the existence of hygiene factors is not enough for maintaining motivation.

²⁵ Stephen P. Robbins, **Managing Today**, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2000, p.414.

²⁶ Lyman W. Porter, Edward E. Lawler and J. Richard Hackman. **Behavior in Organizations**, USA: McGraw Hill, 1975, p.299.

Table 1: Effect of Hygiene Factors and Motivators on Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction

Hygiene Factors (Job Dissatisfaction)	Motivators (Job Satisfaction)
Salary	Salary
Supervision	Recognition of achievements
Interpersonal relations	Work itself
Working conditions	Responsibility
Company policy and administration	Achievement
Status	Advancement
Security	Growth

Source: Debra L. Nelson and James Campbell Quick. Organizational Behavior, 1999, p.148.

According to Herzberg, building motivation factors “motivators” produce job satisfaction. The research shows that motivation factors are achievement, recognition of achievements, work itself, responsibility, salary, advancement, and growth. These factors relate to the content on the job and what the employee does on the job. When these factors are present, they lead to superior performance and effort on the part of job incumbents. These factors directly influence the way people feel about their work. Motivation factors reveal positive mental health and challenge people to grow contribute to the work environment, and invest themselves in the organization. According to Herzberg’s original results, the absence of these factors does not lead to dissatisfaction. Rather, leads to the lack of satisfaction. The motivation factors are the more important of the two sets of factors, because they directly affect a person’s motivational drive to do a good job. In the absence of motivators, employees will be demotivated to perform well and achieve excellence.

2.3.1.3 Mc. Clelland’s Learned Needs Theory

David McClelland studied a lot for analyzing three learned needs that he considered to be particularly significant sources of motivation. These are achievement, affiliation and power.

Need for achievement (nAch): The need for achievement concerns issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals, persistence and overcoming difficulties. A person with a high need for achievement had better performance than those with a moderate or low need for achievement.²⁷

Need for power (nPower): The need for power is concerned with making an impact on others, the desire to influence others, the urge to change people or events. McClelland's research suggests that a high need for power is a distinguishing characteristic of managers.²⁸

Need for affiliation (nAff): The need for affiliation is concerned with establishing and maintaining warm, close, intimate relationships with other people. People with a high need of affiliation are motivated to express their emotions and feelings to others and also expecting other people to do same in return. They find conflicts and complications disturbing in their relationship. The relationships with other people are, therefore close and friendly. People with a moderate or low need of affiliation are more likely to feel comfortable working alone whereas people with a high need of affiliation hope to be included in a range of interpersonal activities in or away from work.²⁹

McClelland's basic theory is that these three needs are acquired over time and as a result of life experiences. People are motivated by the needs, and each can be associated with individual work preferences. The theory encourages managers to learn how to identify the presence of nAch, nAff, and nPower in themselves and other people and to be able to create work environments that are responsive to the respective need profiles.³⁰

McClelland thought that these needs are obtained from the culture of a society. Thus, the name of the theory is 'learned needs theory'. He argued that need for

²⁷ Debra L. Nelson and James Campbell Quick, **Organizational Behavior**, 1999, p.151-152.

²⁸ Nelson and Quick, p.152-153.

²⁹ Nelson and Quick, p.153.

³⁰ Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, p.88.

achievement, for instance, is cultivated through children's books, parental styles, and social norms.

McClelland found that people with high need for achievement perform better than the ones who have moderate or low need for achievement. Additionally, he underlined national differences in achievement motivation. Individuals with high need for achievement have three characteristics;

According to McClelland's learned needs theory, human needs are not occurred in a hierarchical range. The significant point here is which need is more important. Which need individual tries to satisfy first, should be determined to achieve motivation and then individual should have a job that is adequate to that criterion. As an example, success oriented people are more motivated and satisfied via fabricating his own job.³¹

2.3.1.4 Alderfer's Erg Theory

Dissatisfied with Maslow's need theory, Clayton Alderfer developed an alternative theory of human needs in the late 1960s. Alderfer's theory differs from Maslow's in three major respects. First, a smaller set of core needs is used to explain behavior. From lowest to highest level they are: existence needs (E), relatedness needs (R), and growth needs (G), Hence, Alderfer's ERG theory. In addition, ERG theory does not assume needs is related to each other in a prepotent or stair step hierarchy. Finally, frustration of higher-order needs is thought to influence the desire for lower-order needs." In other words, unlike the primarily upward thrust of Maslow's hierarchy, Alderfer's theory has both upward and downward thrusts. This feature of Alderfer's ERG theory will become apparent as we examine it more closely.

The ERG Needs: Existence needs include all types of physiological and materialistic desires. Relatedness needs center around the need to have meaningful relationships with significant others. Satisfaction results from the mutual sharing of

³¹ Göksel Ataman, *İşletme Yönetimi; Temel Kavramlar Yeni Yaklaşımlar*, Second Edition, Istanbul: Türkmen Kitabevi, 2002, p.447.

thoughts and feelings. Growth needs' encompass the need to grow as a human being and to use one's abilities to their fullest potential.

Dynamic Relationships among the ERG Needs: Figure 6 depicts seven relationships among the ERG needs, as proposed by Alderfer. Each proposition has been numbered for discussion purposes. The first proposition states that a lack of satisfaction with existence needs leads to a greater desire for existence needs. For instance, when we lack money, we tend to want it. Existence needs also motivate behavior when an individual is frustrated by a lack of relatedness satisfaction (proposition 2). For example, employees may demand higher pay or better benefits when they are dissatisfied with the quality of their interpersonal relationships at work. Maslow's notion of a need hierarchy, proposition 3 suggests that people desire more relatedness activities when they are satisfied with existence needs. This helps explain why highly paid employees socialize a great deal at work. The desire for relatedness also increases when a person's relatedness (proposition 4) and growth (proposition 5) needs are not being satisfied. Finally, propositions 6 and 7 predict that satisfaction with relatedness and growth needs will increase desire for growth- related activities.

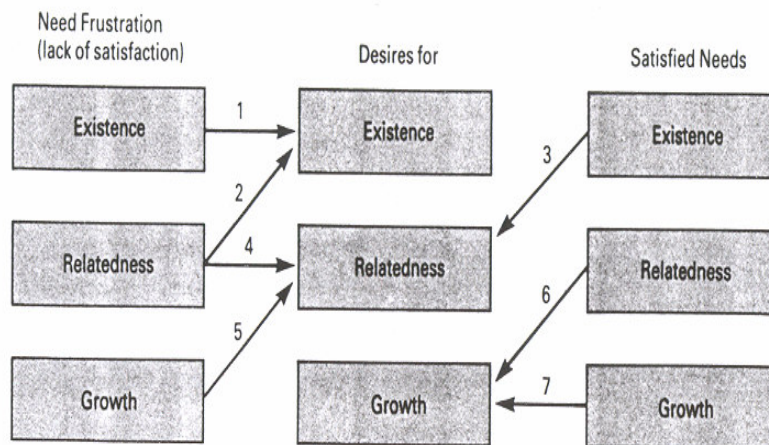


Figure 6: Underlying Propositions of ERG Theory

Source: Adapted from Clayton P Alderfer, ‘An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Needs,’ *Organizational Behavior Human Performance* May 1969, p. 142.

Research on ERG Theory: On the positive side, research supports Alderfer's premise that there are three categories of needs. However, findings do not clearly support the relationships outlined in ERG's seven theoretic propositions. For example, Alderfer used participants from seven organizations to test the propositions outlined in Figure 6. Results confirmed propositions 1, 2, and 4. Proposition 3 was not supported. Support for propositions 5, 6, and 7 was dependent on the type of organization being surveyed. This suggests the validity of ERG theory depends on the type of organization employees work in. More recent research similarly found mixed results for ERG.

Managerial Implications of ERG Theory: Alderfer himself believes the contribution of ERG theory is indirect. The practical relevance of ERG theory appears to lie in its ability to help managers think through motivational problems. For example, ERG theory suggests employee desires are a function of both need satisfaction and frustration.³²

2.3.2 Process Theories

Process theories focus on commitments that motivate people and how they are motivated by such goals. In other words, basic question that process theories try to answer is that how a person is made to replay or not replay a certain behavior. According to process theories, need is one of the factors that drive people to behavior. In addition to these intrinsic factors, there are also some extrinsic factors which play roles on human motivation and behavior. Process theories believe that human behaviors are controlled by extrinsic factors. Best known process theories are Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Porter-Lawler Expectancy Theory and Adam's Equity Theory. Only Adam's Equity Theory has a place in Job Satisfaction.

2.3.2.1 Adams' Equity Theory

The basic concept in Adams theory is that every employee wants to be behaved equitable in accordance with their performance and rewards.

³² Wendell, p.156-157.

Employees' desire for being behaved equitably effects motivation. Essentially, according to this theory employee's degree of success and job satisfaction depends on equality (or inequality) that he perceived about his working environment.

According to this theory, personnel bring some inputs into the job such as age education, job effort, attendance, performance, past experience interpersonal skills and social status. And expect to receive certain outcomes such as salary, fringe benefits, promotion, responsibility, recognition, status symbols, job security and working conditions. To determine whether the situation is equitable, personnel make some social comparisons between their own input/outcome ratio and those of comparison others. Comparison people can be coworkers, people with a similar job or occupation.³³

2.3.2.2 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Victor H. Vroom explains that motivation is a product of the values one seeks and one's estimation of the probability that a certain action will lead to those values.

$$\text{Valance} \times \text{Expectancy} = \text{Motivation}$$

Valance: It reflects the strength of a person's preference for one outcome in relation to others. It is used for expressing the amount of one's desire for a goal. If an employee strongly wants a promotion, it is said that the promotion has high valance for the employee.

The valence arises out of each employee's internal self as conditioned by experience, so it will vary substantially from person to person. Furthermore, due to the fact that people may have positive and negative preferences for an outcome, valence may be negative as well as positive. When a person prefers not attaining an outcome comparing with attaining it, then valence is a negative figure.³⁴

Expectancy: It is the second major concept of Vroom's theory. Expectancy is the strength of belief that a particular act will be followed by particular outcomes. It

³³ Ronald E. Riggo, **Introduction To Industrial/Organizational Psychology**, Fourth Edition, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2003, p.200.

³⁴ Davis, p.60.

reflects the employee's judgment of the probability that he waits for. Expectancy is an action-outcome association; it may range from zero to value one. If an employee sees no probability, then expectancy is zero. In contrast to this, if the action-outcome relationship indicates certainty, then expectancy has a value of one. Normally employee expectancy is somewhere between these two extremes.

Instrumentality: This is the third concept of Vroom's theory. A person may show a specific level of performance via a certain try. This performance can be rewarded in a particular way. This rewarding may be considered as first level outcome. Person's salary, for instance, can be increased as first level outcome. Actually, first level outcomes are instruments for actualizing second level outcomes. Salary, which is noted in the previous instance, is an instrument for having a high status, for being recognized, for financing his family's needs, etc. Otherwise, salary does not mean anything. Here, instrumentality reflects subjective probability that first level outcomes lead the actualization of second level outcomes.³⁵

2.3.2.3 Porter-Lawler's Expectancy Theory

This theory is developed after Vroom's Expectancy Theory. As explained, Vroom's theory includes expectancy, instrumentality and valance. Additionally these concepts, Porter Lawler Theory includes abilities-traits and role perceptions.

Porter-Lawler point out that effort doesn't lead directly to performance. It is mediated by abilities-traits and by role perceptions. Also this theory suggests that performance leads to satisfaction.³⁶

In this theory the important point is which rewards will be given to the personnel and how they perceive these rewards. Success of personnel might be rewarded in two ways that are called extinct rewards and instinct rewards. Wage-salary, fringe benefits, status and job security are examples of extinct rewards. Recognition and advancement are examples of instinct rewards. Porter-Lawler proposed that all of these

³⁵ Davis, p.60-61.

³⁶ Luthans, p.159.

rewards are desired by personnel. But if personnel believe that they won't get the rewards, which they deserve, then they can't satisfy.³⁷

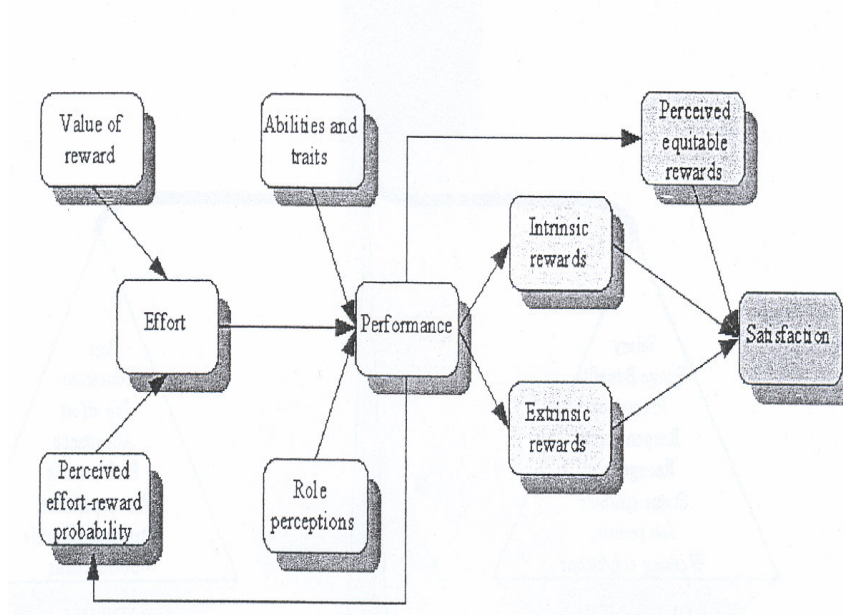


Figure 7: Porter-Lawler Model

Source: Göksel Ataman, İşletme Yönetimi; Temel Kavramlar Yeni Yaklaşımlar, Second Edition, İstanbul: Türkmen Kitabevi, 2002, p. 447.

2.4 Measuring Job Satisfaction

One of the most common survey firms conduct is to measure employee's satisfaction. Many managers believe that satisfaction is an important indicator or organizational effectiveness and may therefore require close monitoring. There are many ways in which attitudes toward work can be measured, but by far the most popular approach is the use of questionnaires and interviews that allow employees to rate various aspects of their jobs.³⁸

³⁷ Ataman, p.449-450.

³⁸ R. Bruce, McAfee and Paul J. Champagne, **Organizational Behavior A Manager's View**, St Paul: West Publishing Company, 1987.

Accordingly, researchers have developed more sophisticated instruments, usually in the form of multiple item questionnaires, which are capable of distinguishing among the different aspects of work which people are concerned. Such refinements have made job satisfaction surveys more useful to organizations concerned with employee dissatisfaction is greatest.³⁹

When choosing an instrument, a firm's first concern is whether it should develop its own questionnaire/interview schedule or purchase one that has been commercially prepared. The homemade instrument has one primary advantage. It can be specifically designed to address the problems and issues perceived to be most important by the organization. On the other hand, it is time consuming, costly to develop, and requires training and expertise. Many organizations have found that, in the long run, a commercially prepared instrument may do just as well. Even though it is not situation-specific like the homemade device, an existing instrument offers several advantages.⁴⁰

1) The bias of a particular manager is likely to appear in the wording of questions.

2) Since the questions have been used before, they are known to be easily understood and meaningful to employees.

3) A commercial instrument is faster, easier, and often cheaper to use.

4) The better commercial materials are more likely to be both valid and reliable since they have been administered in a variety of different firms and situations.

Job satisfactions surveys, whether by questionnaire or by interview, are of six general types classified according to the form of question asked.⁴¹

³⁹ Reitz, p.263.

⁴⁰ McAfee and Champagne, p.187.

⁴¹ Davis, p.80.

2.4.1 Objective Surveys

They present both a question and a choice of answers in such a way that employees merely mark the answer that is their choice.

The most popular one uses multiple-choice questions. In this type of survey respondents read all the answers to each question and then mark the answer that is nearest to how they feel. Other types may be marked 'true' and 'false', or employee may mark a numerical value along a horizontal scale of feelings.⁴²

2.4.2 Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

One of the more widely used commercial questionnaires is called the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). This device presents workers with a series of adjectives that may or may not describe five aspects of their job (work itself, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers). Employees are asked to answer each item Yes (Y) or Agree, No (N) or Disagree, and Don't Know or Unstable (?) to indicate the extent to which each adjective describes their jobs.

The Job Descriptive Index that is the most popular analytical method offers something of a compromise between length, ease of administration, required level of education of the respondent, and number of job facets (that is, pay, coworkers, supervision, opportunities for promotion, and the work itself). For these reasons (along with evidence of its reliability and validity), the JDI is one of the most widely known and commonly used devices for measuring job satisfaction.⁴³

2.4.3 Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire has both a long (100) items and a short (20) items form. Respondents indicate how satisfied they are with various aspects of

⁴² McAfee and Champagne, p.42.

⁴³ McAfee and Champagne, p.43.

their present job by selecting one of five alternative responses; “Very satisfied”, “Satisfied”, “Neither”, “Dissatisfied”, “Very Dissatisfied”.⁴⁴

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is designed to measure an employee's satisfaction with his or her job. Three forms are available: two long forms (1977 version and 1967 version) and a short form. The MSQ provides more specific information on the aspects of a job that an individual finds rewarding than do more general measures of job satisfaction. The MSQ is useful in exploring client vocational needs, in counseling follow-up studies, and in generating information about the reinforcers in jobs.⁴⁵

Table 2: Long-Form MSQ. Measures job satisfaction on 20 five-item scales

Ability Utilization	Co-workers	Moral Values
Achievement	Creativity	Recognition
Activity	Independence	Responsibility
Advancement	Security	Supervision-Human Relations
Authority	Social Service	Supervision-Technical
Company Policies	Social Status	Variety
Compensation		Working Conditions

Source: (MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, 2007. <http://www.psych.umn.edu/psylabs/vpr/msqinf.htm> (February 2007)

Regardless of whether a firm chooses to develop its own instrument or to use a commercially prepared one, there are several important issues to consider:

1. Types of questions are the questions relevant to the jobs being studied?
2. Simplicity of item wording is the wording of items matched to the sophistication and verbal skills of the employees being surveyed? Pre-tests of the instrument with a few employees may help determine this.

⁴⁴ Robert P. Vecchio, **Organizational Behavior**, Third Edition, The Dryden Pres, 1995, p.125.

⁴⁵ Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, <http://www.psych.umn.edu/psylabs/vpr/msqinf.htm> (February 2007)

3. Ease with which responses can be “faked” does the survey reveal which employees are answering truthfully and which are fabricating answers?
4. Length of time it takes to complete the questionnaire while there is no perfect length of time, any questionnaire that takes more than thirty-five to forty minutes to complete is probably too long. Not only will too much time be taken from the workday but also employees will become bored and tired with the questionnaire.
5. Statistical validity of the instrument has it been tested to see if it measures job satisfaction and not something else?

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire permits the independent assessment of attitudes on a number of distinct dimensions. In practice, the responses of people to these different facets tend to be positively correlated, so that people who are satisfied with their supervisor also tend to be satisfied with their co-workers and so on.⁴⁶

While JDI gives a broad picture of personnel’s attitudes towards five major components of their jobs, MSQ gives a more detailed picture of personnel’s specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions.⁴⁷

⁴⁶ McAfee and Champagne, p.44.

⁴⁷ Arnold and Fieldman, p.99.

3. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Porter, Steers and Mowday make a description in 1979. According to this description organizational commitment is integrating with organization and putting effort for organizational goals and values. In this description there are three elements:

- A strong desire to stay with the organization.
- A willingness to work harder for the organization;
- An acceptance of the values and goals of the organization.⁴⁸

Organizational commitment is an attitude about employee's loyalty to their organization and it is an ongoing process through which organizational participants express their concern for the organization and its continued success and well-being.

Also Meyer, Allen and Smith indicated three elements in recent years. These elements are “affective commitment”, “continuance commitment” and “normative commitment”. Meyer also signified the reasons of organizational commitment in one of his studies in 1993. According to him, each reason is affected by different factors. Figure 8 indicates these elements.

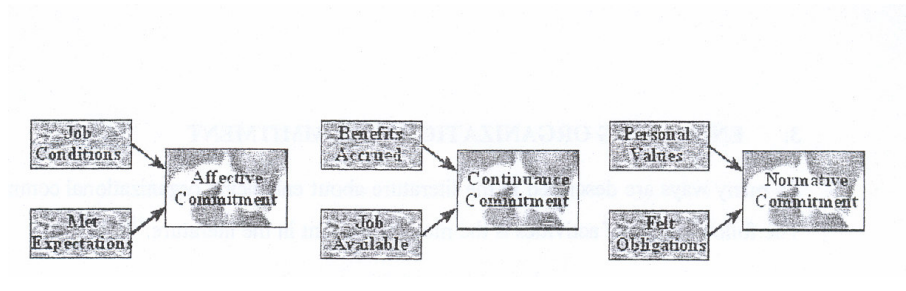


Figure 8: Antecedents of Three Components of Organizational Commitment.

Source: Paul E. Spector, Industrial And Organizational Psychological, Research and Practice. New York: John Wiley&Sons Inc., 1996, p.236-237

⁴⁸ Spector, p.236-237.

Affective Commitment:

In this type of commitment, there is a positive interaction between the individual and the organization because of having similar values (Shore and Tetrick 1991). Those who stay in their organizations with a strong commitment keep their existence not only because they need the occupation but also they want it (Meyer 1993).⁴⁹

Continuance Commitment:

It is related to one's experience that has been given to an organization difficulty in giving it up and the cost of things in case he leaves the organization or having few or no alternatives when he leaves the organization. In addition, Meyer stated that skills and education are not transferred to other organizations easily so it increases workers' commitment to their own organizations. Those who stay within their organizations with a strong continuance commitment are in their organizations just because they need it (Meyer 1993).

Normative Commitment:

It reflects the feelings of an individual's obligations about staying within an organization. These kinds of obligations are not for one's own good but an individual reflects these behaviors just because he finds whatever he has done ethical and right. The commitment, which develops as a result of socialization, shows one's loyalty to his employer. Those who have a strong normative commitment stay in their organizations just because they feel obliged to do so (Meyer 1993).

Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that when all these three types of commitments are taken into consideration, one's relationship with his organization can be understood better. When these commitment types increase, an individual's desire to stay in his organization rises as well. In these circumstances, desire appears to be one's first priority, necessity as the second priority and obligation as the third priority. According

⁴⁹ Münevver Ölçüm Çetin, The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction, Occupational and Organizational Commitment of Academics, **Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge**. Vol.8, No.1, (March 2006) p.78.

to this model, workers experience these three types of commitments in different ways. Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that each dimension can be experienced as a result of different experiences and they claimed that each has different effects on work although there are a lot of factors, which influence affective commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) concluded that the strongest and most consistent relationship could be acquired through experience. Continuance commitment increases when an individual invests in an organization or gets some from the organization because they will be lost when one leaves the organization. When there is a limitation of alternatives, this type of commitment is developed.

Normative commitment can increase when an individual feels loyal to his employer or responsible to work for the benefits that he gets from the organization (e.g.; educational payments, training of skills) as a result of the desire to compensate the favors received from the institution (Meyer et.al., 1993, p.539).

The effects of personal issues, things related to job, organizational issues, effects of cultural factors and things originate out of organizational commitment and job satisfaction have been important subject matters in many researches. Most of the results of the researches show that there is a positive relationship between age, experience and organizational commitment (Luthans, Baack and Taylor 1987, p.221; Baysal and Paksoy 1999, p. 10). Meyer et.al. (1993) concluded that those who are in older ages have a strong affective commitment towards their organizations because of the fact that they are more mature and have longer experience in their organizations. In addition to this, when organizational continuance is concerned, as Balay (2000, p.50) stated, the growth in work systems as means of assembling resources.

Concerning the age factor, it is possible to say that when the experience increases, commitment will rise as well. As Buchanan (1974) stated, the first year in an organization has an important place in one's working life as it helps to understand whether the organization will meet his needs or not. Between their second and fourth years, one tries to develop his career and he has some fears about failure in his

organization. After the fifth year, maturity stage approaches and in this period his commitment is more intensive.⁵⁰

Affective, continuance, and normative commitment are best viewed as disguisable components, rather than types, of attitudinal commitment; that is, employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees. Some employees, for example, might feel both a strong need and a strong obligation to remain, but no desire to do so; others might feel neither a need nor obligation but a strong desire, and so on. The 'net sum' of a person's commitment to the organization, therefore, reflects each of these separable psychological states.⁵¹

⁵⁰ Çetin, p.80-88.

⁵¹ Barbara B Brown, Employees' Organizational Commitment and Their Perception of Supervisors' Relations-Oriented and Task-Oriented Leadership Behaviors. **Doctorate Thesis**. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 2005, p.31.

3.1 Historical Overview

Table 3: Historical Chart of Organizational Commitment.

1970	Steers	He also accepted commitment as one of the useful indicators of the organizational effectiveness.
1970	Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and & Weick	They found that organizational climate has an independent effect on the organizational climate from perceived structure and human resources processes.
1971	Lee	He concluded that positive supervisor subordinate interactions increased the organizational commitment.
1971	Sheldon	He emphasized the goal and value internalization in organizational commitment.
1972	Hrebiniak & Alutto	They adopted the exchange commitment model.
1972	Alutto	They studied the gender and commitment relationship.
1972	Hall & Schneider	They concluded that the felt challenge and responsibility offered by the task on hand increased the organizational commitment.
1972	Alutto	He tested Becker's "side-bet theory" conducting an experimental research.
1974	Buchanan	He adopted the attitudinal model of organizational commitment.
1974	Buchanan	He stated that the nature and the quality of an employee's work experiences during his tenure on the organization is essential in determining the level of organizational commitment.
1974	Porter et al.	They assumed the attitudinal approach of the organizational commitment.
1974	Modway, Porter &Dubin	They studied performance and commitment relationships.
1974	Hrebiniak	He studied the relationship between age, tenure and organizational commitment.

1975	Dubin	He found that central life interest's arc related to organizational commitment.
1975	Etzioni	He stated the bad effects of utilitarian organizations.
1975	Steers	He stated that commitment is an indicator of the effectiveness of an organization.
1976	Steers	He studied the relationship between the turnover and organizational commitment.
1977	Salancik	He concluded that role conflict decreases perceived responsibility, therefore organizational commitment.
1977	Salancik	He concluded that communication processes, which keep individuals, informed about the valued aspects of the organization increases the organizational commitment.
1977	Salancik & Staw	They assumed the behavioral commitment model.
1978	Salancik & Pfeffer	They found that the degree of control exercised on employees by the organization is related to organizational commitment.
1978	Kidron	He found that strong personal work ethics is related to organizational commitment.
1978	Stevens, Beyer & Trice	They explained organizational commitment according to inducements and contributions.
1978	Koch & Steers	They found that task identity, feedback, responsibility and autonomy are related to organizational commitment.
1979	Mowday et. al.	They also adopted the psychological approach to organizational commitment.
1979	Mowday & McDade	They stated that information obtained before the employment begins is very important in determining the final level of organizational commitment.
1979	Bartol	He found that role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload are related to organizational commitment.
1979	Gould	He used the term organizational identification interchangeably with organizational commitment.
1979	Morris & Koch	They studied the effects of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload on organizational commitment.
1980	Morris & Steers	They studied the effects of education on determining organizational commitment.
1980	Morris & Steers	He concluded that the span of control and the size of the organization are unrelated to organizational commitment.
1980	O'Reilly & Caldwell	They concluded that the reason behind the choice of that organization is important in predicting later commitment level.

1980	Pfeffer & Lawler	They stated the importance of availability of work alternatives in career initiation stages.
1981	Rowan	He emphasized the danger of too much loyalty of the wrong kind to the organization.
1981	Rhodes & Steers	They examined the perceived pay equity and commitment relationship.
1981	Morris & Sherman	They studied the effects of need for achievement, sense of competence and higher order needs on organizational commitment.
1981	Morris & Sherman	They studied the effects of age and tenure on organizational commitment.
1981	Angle & Perry	They stated that highly committed employees are necessary for innovative and spontaneous behavior.
1981	Angle & Perry	They examined the age-tenure effects on organizational commitment.
1981	Scholl	He described how commitment evolves independently from expectancies and equity conditions.
1981	Morris & Sherman	They studied the effects of age and tenure on organizational commitment.
1982	Mowday	He developed a process model of organizational commitment.
1982	Morris & Sherman	They adopted the psychological approach to commitment.
1982	Weiner	He developed a model combining the essential features of calculative and moral approaches to the organizational commitment.
1983	Morrow	He reviewed the commitment theory and research.
1983	Rusbult & Farreil	They developed the investment model of organizational commitment. Their model is also an example of exchange approach.
1984	Meyer & Allen	They conducted an empirical study following the “side-bet” approach of Becker.
1984	Stumpf & Hartman	He stated that the final commitment of an employee is predicted by pre-entry career exploration behaviors.
1986	O’Reilly & Chatman	They emphasized the internalization of an organization’s goals and values element in organizational commitment definition.
1987	Randall	She stated the possible dangers of overcommitted employees
1989	Decotiis Summers	They developed a committed model based on psychological approach to the commitment.

Source: Yıldız Yüksel, “A study on the relationship between organizational climate and organizational commitment”, 1993; pp. 72-80.

3.2 Concept of Organizational Commitment in Organizations

Another attitude which is in focus for this study is the concept of commitment. It is defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization (Robbins, 1996).

There are many people who work in the same organization for years, or even a lifetime. How do people or organizations succeed in this? How can an organization keep employees from whom it benefits so much? How can one be so satisfied that he or she does not change the organization in which he or she works. The answers to these questions could be organizational commitment.⁵²

The definition given by Porter & Smith (1970) is the one which has been accepted as “the” definition (Reicher, 1985) and it has been used in more than 90 published studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). According to this view, organizational commitment is an identification with and involvement in the organization of values and goals of the organization, a willingness to extra hard on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in the organization.

Occupational commitment refers to a person’s belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work, and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation (Ritzer and Trice, 1969). The occupational value system stresses values such as collegial and self-control and authority over the occupation, compliance to occupational objectives and standards, autonomy, and client orientations and loyalty (Gouldner, 1957; Lachman and Aranya, 1986).

Organizational commitment refers to a belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the employing organization, and a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization and to maintain organizational membership (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982).

⁵² J. P. Meyer, N.J. Allen & C.A. Smith, Commitment to the organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization, **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 1993, p.538-551.

In 1982, Mowday, Porter and Steers defined commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in an organization”. Organizational commitment appears as a multidimensional construct, subsuming:

1. A desire to maintain membership in the organization
2. Belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization.
3. A willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization (Cooper and Robertson, 1986).

Organizational commitment is identified with various types of variables that are correlated with, and thought to be causal determinants of the concept. According to Mowday, Porter and Steers’ classification, four determinants of organizational commitment are as follows:

- Personal characteristics (Mowday, 1982; Angle and Perry, 1981)
- Role and job characteristics (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Fukami and Larson, 1984)
- Structural characteristics (Rhodes and Steer, 1981; Morris and Steers, 1980)
- Work experience (Morris and Sherman, 1981; Bateman and Strasser, 1984)

Other than the above mentioned Mowday, Porter and Steers category, there are some other determinant factors related to organizational commitment such as job stress/tension (Bateman and Strasser, 1984), satisfaction and job involvement (Weiner and Gechman, 1977), and more general frameworks like person job fit, rewards, costs, investments.

3.2.1 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

As an organizational commitment became an important issue, more research was done to find the determinants of the phenomenon. Mowday, Porter and Steers

defined these antecedents in terms of five components: personnel characteristic, role-related variables, work experiences, structural factors and cultural factors.⁵³

- **Personal Factors**

Research on person characteristics has found on two types of variables: demographic variables and dispositional variables. (Personality, values, interest). Demographic variables that relate to organizational commitment are stated to be tender, age, educational level, and race and personality traits. Overall relations between demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor consistent. Although some studies have reported gender differences in affective commitment are unrelated.⁵⁴

It is argued that gender differences in commitment, when they are found, are more appropriately attributed to different work characteristics and experiences that happen, in some samples, to be linked to gender. Mowday et al. (1982) found that gender and organizational commitment were related to each other. Scandura and Lankau said that (1997) said that “some studies report that women are more committed than men”. However, Angle and Perry (1981) suggest that women are less committed than men.

In the study conducted by Luthans, Mc Caul and Dodd (1985) age was found to have a consistent positive relation with organizational commitment, as in previous studies. Salancik (1977) also states the since older employees have more responsibilities in life towards other people, and since it gets harder to get a job after a certain age, older employees tend to be more committed than the younger ones. Allen and Meyer (1993) found that affective commitment correlated positively with age and the reasons suggested for this relation were that older employees are more mature, they have better explanations for the experiences lived. A contradictory finding that age correlates significantly negatively with organizational commitment is found by Marsh and Mannari (1997).

⁵³ R.T. Mowday, L.W. Porter, & R.M Steers, **Employee Organization Linkages**, San Diego, CA: Academic Pres. 1982.

⁵⁴J.E. Mathiue and D. A Zajac, **Review and meta- analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment**. Psychological Bulletin, 1990, p.171-194

Steers (1977) found negative correlation between education and organizational commitment and he suggested that this could be due to more educated people being harder to satisfy. Morris and Sherman reported that older employees and less educated employees had higher levels of commitment.

Grusky (1996) found that organizational commitment increased with years spent in the organization. Allen and Meyer (1993) found that affective commitment correlated positively with tenure and they suggested that this effect may be due to attaining a better position in time, which satisfies the person, or maybe the less committed employees leave the organization and therefore people with longer tenure and more committed.

Although there are contradictory findings, to sum up, it can be stated with age, gender, education, tenure and position are personnel factors influencing the organizational commitment.

- **Role Related Factors**

Role related variables like role ambiguity and role conflict correlate negatively with organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) found the role clarity and freedom from conflict correlate positively with organizational commitment, and this finding is supported by Glison and Durick (1988); and Podsakoff, Williams and Todor (1986). Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) found that role stress is another factor relating negatively to organizational commitment and Morris and Sherman (1981) support this finding. A contradictory finding is that although indirect, role strain has a positive, and training within the company has a negative effect on organizational commitment. (Mathieu, 1991)

In the light of the above findings, it can be concluded those role ambiguities; conflicts and the stress caused by these uncertainties influence the degree of organizational commitment. (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990)

- **Work Experiences**

The vast majority of antecedent studies have focused on variables that fall into very broad category of work experiences. Moreover, with work experience variables, find the strongest and most consistent correlations with affective commitment across studies. It is important to note that although some of variables are assessed objectively, much of these researchers have relied on employees perceptions of experiences in question.

Mathieu (1991) found that commitment reciprocally related with satisfaction and the effect of satisfaction on commitment was more than reverse. Mathieu and Farr (1991) sampled different employee populations and found that satisfaction and commitment correlate highly.⁵⁵

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) found that antecedents of commitment were the job itself and work experiences measured by job scope and job stress and the treatment of employee measured by pay equity, supervisory quality and social involvement.⁵⁶

- **Structural Factors**

The structural variables that are found to be positively related with organizational commitment are decentralization of decision making (Brook, Russel and Price, 1988; Morris and Steers, 1980) and formalization of policy and procedure (Morris and Steers, 1980; Podsakoff). DeCotiis and Summers (1987) supported the previous findings that centralization correlated negatively with organizational commitment. Steers (1977) found that organizations, which are perceived to be high in autonomy, have higher levels of commitment.

Lincoln and Kalleberg (1985) suggest that organizational structure elicits organizational commitment and that in organizations where there is highly differentiated authority and status hierarchy there will be more commitment because

⁵⁵ Mathie, J.E., Across level nonrecursive model of the antecedents of organizational commitment and satisfaction, **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 1991, p.607-618.

⁵⁶ Mowday, Porter, and Steers, p.46.

these feature creates promotion opportunities. This finding is supported by Marsh and Mannari (1977).

- **Cultural Factors**

As culture deeply influences management ideas and practice, studies were conducted in different countries with different cultures. In a meta-analysis of twenty-seven studies conducted in different countries (Randall,1993), personal characteristics like age, tenure, gender and education were found to be highly significant in determining organizational commitment in England, Israel, although they were insignificant in Canada. The relation of participation and peer cohesion with commitment was consistent in all countries studied.

The relation of job satisfaction and organizational commitment was inconsistent, since in some studies job satisfaction was found to be the antecedent of commitment while in others it was found to be the consequence of commitment. The type of organization and ownership of firm, role clarity and role ambiguity, employment opportunities and attitude of family and friends were not to found to determine organizational commitment.

3.2.2 Consequences of Organizational Commitment

The behavior of committed personnel and uncommitted personnel are different. In other words it can be said that organizational commitment affects the behavior of personnel.

Personnel with higher level of organizational commitment put extra effort to realize organizational goals whereas personnel with lower level of organizational commitment cause some negative results in the organization. In the literature these results are indicated “performance at work”, “interdrawal intentions”, “absenteeism” and “turnover”.

- **Performance at Work**

Many aspects of performance can be assessed (e.g., attendance at work, performance of assigned duties, organizational behavior). In addition, assessment of performance can be obtained from several sources (e.g., the employees themselves, their supervisors, output measures such as sales or production figures.) Research on the links between commitment and work performance reflects this diversity.

- **Interdrawal Intentions**

Personnel retention has consistently been viewed as an important consequence of organizational commitment. When organizational commitment of personnel is low, they don't put any effort to do their jobs, don't any altruism for organizations that they work for and have low level of motivation. In other words there is a positive relationship between interdrawal intentions and organizational commitment.

- **Absenteeism**

Researches in this area show that there is a negative relationship between absenteeism and organizational commitment. In other words, personnel who have lower level of organizational commitment are likely to be absent.

- **Turnover**

Researches in this area show that there is a negative relationship between turnover and organizational commitment. In other words, personnel who have lower level of organizational commitment more tend to quit the work than personnel who have higher level of organizational commitment.⁵⁷

⁵⁷ Mark John Somers, Organizational Commitment, Turnover And Absenteeism: An Examination of Direct And Interaction Effects, **Journal of Organizational Behavior**, 1995.

3.3 Measuring Organizational Commitment

3.3.1 Porter's Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Constructed to measure employees' satisfaction and level of involvement in the organization, the Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974) OCQ is a 15-item instrument. An examination of the psychometric properties of the OCQ by Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979) revealed internal consistency among the items, test-retest reliability, and evidence for the predictive validity of the instrument. However, the authors offered several cautions to users of the instrument. One was that respondents could easily manipulate the scores. Another was that the internal consistency of a 9-item scale was "generally equal to the full instrument" (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 244).

Comments by the authors caused concern about the OCQ's usefulness as a measure of organizational commitment. Also, the Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974) OCQ does not specify a clear delineation among the types of organizational commitment.

3.3.2 Meyer & Allen's Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Meyer & Allen (1984) initially proposed making distinctions between two types of commitment: affective commitment and continuance commitment. Affective commitment denoted a sense of belonging and emotional attachment to the organization, whereas, continuance commitment emphasized the perceived costs of leaving the organization.

Allen & Meyer (1990) subsequently introduced a third component of commitment, normative commitment, which reflected the perceived obligation to remain with the organization. Later, Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993) revised the normative commitment scale to clarify the distinction between affective commitment and normative commitment.

While the earlier versions (Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990) of the OCQ contained 24 items (8 items for each scale), the later version by Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993) and Meyer & Allen (1997) only contained 18 items (6 items for each scale). Although the items were reduced, this change primarily affected the normative scale, not the affective and continuance scales (Meyer et al., in press).⁵⁸

⁵⁸ Brown, p.40-41.

4. THE RELATIONSHIP between JOB SATISFACTION and ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Numerous studies have investigated relationships among job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g. Dittrich and Carrell, 1979; Terborg, 1982). In general, the predicted facts are confirmed. That is, more dissatisfied employees tended to be uncommitted to work and/or leave the organization in comparison to the more satisfied employees.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment receive considerable attention from industrial and organizational psychologists, management scientists, and sociologists. Much of the interest in analyzing job satisfaction and organizational commitment stems from concern for behavioral consequences that are hypothesized to result from job satisfaction and/or organizational commitment have been shown or argued to be related productivity, attendance at work, turnover, retirement, participation, labor militancy, sympathy for unions and psychological withdrawal from work.

Analysts have also given much consideration in identifying often with an eye to manipulating, the antecedents of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Interest in the causal nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment stems partly from the presumed role these two variables play in conceptual models for predicting turnover (Farkas and Tetrick, 1989; Williams and Hazer, 1986). Most models of turnover assume that greater job satisfaction leads to greater organizational commitment (Bluedorn, 1982; Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Mobley, 1977; Price and Mueller, 1981). The primary reason for this causal order appears to be that job satisfaction is a more immediate affective response to one's work which is established more quickly after joining an organization whereas organizational commitment is slower to develop since it is based not only on the job but on other aspects of working for the organization such as its goals and values (Porter et al., 1974).

However, Bateman and Strasser (1984), on the grounds of self-perception theory and research, suggested that greater organizational commitment may produce increased job satisfaction since commitment may initiate a rationalization process in

which attitudes are made consistent with behavior. They claimed empirical support for this causal sequence in a five-month longitudinal study of 129 nursing employees which found that the cross-lagged path coefficient between earlier organizational commitment and later job satisfaction was significantly positive while that between prior job satisfaction and subsequent organizational commitment was not significant. This finding suggests that job satisfaction results from organizational commitment.⁵⁹

Various behavioral studies have recently focused on the concept of “organizational commitment”. Several reasons account for the importance of such commitment:

1. Highly committed employees may perform better than less committed ones (Jauch, Glueck, and Osborne, 1978).
2. Organizational commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than is job satisfaction (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982).
3. Organizational commitment may be used as an indicator of the effectiveness of an organization (Steers, 1975 1977).

According to recent models, commitment can be seen as an outcome of various antecedent variables, such as job satisfaction, various job characteristics, work experiences, demographic variables, and value orientation (Steers, 1977; Morris and Sherman, 1981).

In the past decade, a great deal of attention and research efforts have been invested in order identify the various causes and implications of organizational commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; Morris and Steers, 1980). The main thrust of that research was to afford reasonable explanations of the development process of organizational commitment defined as the strength of an individual’s identification and involvement with an organization.

⁵⁹ Duncan Cramer, Job satisfaction and organizational continuance commitment: a two-wave panel study, **Journal of Organizational Behavior**, Jul96, Vol. 17 Issue 4, p.389-400.

Obviously, the increased complexity of work organizations combined with the significant technological changes that aroused in recent years make the notion of commitment specifically important. One of the most accepted views is that positive organizational commitment, and citizenship behavior, tends to improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness by contributing to resource transformations, innovativeness, and adaptability (Williams and Anderson, 1991). In this perspective, organizational commitment is an important construct as it encompasses positive attitudinal traits, including loyalty and attachment (Morrow, 1988). Especially, it brings the increase in realization that the organization members' attachment to organizational goals tend to affect their attitudes and intentions regarding the organization and that such attitudes intentions are crucial elements of organizational survival.

The Difference between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

“I like my job” versus “I like my organization”. This is the major difference between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Job satisfaction focuses on employee's attitudes toward their jobs and organizational commitment focuses on their attitudes toward the overall organization. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), Williams and Hazar (1986) and others have specifically distinguished commitment from job satisfaction by defining the former as an affective response to beliefs about the organization and the latter as a response to the experience of specific job tasks. Hence commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization including its goals and values, whereas satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her own duties (Mowday, Porter, Steers, 1982). Although the two variables could be expected to be highly correlated within a given sample, it is at the same time possible to imagine an employee who holds positive beliefs about and is attached to a specific organization and its goals and values but is unhappy with the experience of certain aspects of a specific job within that organization (Glisson, Durick, 1988)⁶⁰

⁶⁰ C Glisson. & Durick,M., **Predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in human service organizations**. Administrative Sciences Quarterly, 1988, p.61-81.

Also, unlike job satisfaction, commitment is thought to develop slowly and is therefore not likely to change with day to day events in the workplace, whereas job satisfaction is believed to be more sensitive to such events.

Finally, most researchers would agree that the organizational commitment attitude is a somewhat better predictor than job satisfaction of outcome variables such as turnover. In general it is thought to have a somewhat stronger relationship with organizational outcome such as absenteeism and turnover.

There is an overlap between the two concepts but organizational commitment explains also things that job satisfaction alone can not explain.

- If we improve organizational commitment;
- The costs associated with misspecified interventions can be reduced.
- Appropriate interventions may have their intended results.

Direct improvements in commitment levels may have not only positive behavioral consequences but also the indirect outcome of increased employee satisfaction as well.

5. THE RELATIONSHIP between DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES JOB SATISFACTION and ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Age, tenure, gender, education and income are demographic variables that have been found to affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees. Each of them is discussed as below.

Age and Job satisfaction

Research has shown that age and job satisfaction are related (Spector, 1997). Significant variations across age and job satisfaction are commonly found with older employees reporting higher satisfaction (Doering, Rhodes & Schuster, 1983; Glenn, Taylor & Weaver, 1977; Warr, 1992). The degree of relatedness of age and job satisfaction, may, however, differ depending upon the use of a global job satisfaction or facet type job satisfaction measure (Gibson & Klein, 1970).

However the relationship between age and job facet type job satisfaction is not so uniform (Muchinsky, 1990). Rhodes (1983), examining several studies on age and job facet satisfaction, found a positive relationship with the work itself where older workers enjoyed their jobs more than young workers. This was the only single facet type job satisfaction variable found to have positive relationship with age. The relationship between age and the other job satisfaction facets were found to vary much more across studies.

Research has also shown that the relationship between age and job satisfaction is not linear, but U-shaped in nature. Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) conducted a survey of employees, examining age and satisfaction with pay and satisfaction with the job itself. They found a U-shaped relationship younger and older employees were most satisfied with their jobs compared to those in their late twenties and early thirties.

Age and Organizational Commitment

Mathieu & Zajac, 1990 found from their meta-analytic research that age and affective commitment are significantly, albeit weakly related. This relationship remains

intact even when variables often confounded with age (e.g organizational tenure) are controlled for. (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Tenure and Job Satisfaction

Wright and Hamilton (1978) found that older workers gaining tenure in an organization are more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers because they are more accepting of authority. In addition those advancing in tenure often have better jobs with more skills and, thus, are more satisfied compared to employees with less tenure.

Tenure and Organizational Commitment

The relationship between tenure and organizational commitment has been found to be mixed. (Alutto, Hrebiniak&Alonso, 1973; Ferris&Aranya, 1983). According their results, some employees perceive that the cost of leaving an organization will increase as they gain tenure in company. For example older workers with high tenure may feel tied to an organization depending on how extensive their pension fund contributions are or how company specific their training is, as perceived by the employees (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Other employees, on the other hand, might perceive their cost of leaving on organization as minimal if they believe their skills and experience to be more valuable to other organizations. Research on affective commitment suggests when employee age is removed from relationship between tenure and affective commitment, correlations are reduced considerably (Allen & Meyer, 1996)

Gender and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between gender and job satisfaction is inconsistent. Meta-analytic research on gender and job satisfaction found mean correlations to be almost zero across dozens of studies and thousands of people. (Brush et al., 1987; Witt & Nye, 1992). Research examining gender differences in various work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, stress, organizational involvement, job characteristics and performance, found no statistical main effect differences between men and women for these outcomes. (Brenner, Blazini&Greenhaus, 1988; Yammarino&Dubinsky, 1988). Weaver

(1978) compared the job satisfaction of males and females and found that both sexes derived the same degree of satisfaction from prestige, income, autonomy and education.

Gender and Organizational Commitment

A meta-analytic study conducted by Aven, Parker and McEyov (1993) examined gender and affective commitment. Their results showed that gender and affective commitment are unrelated. However, Whan (1998), examining the relationship between gender and continuance commitment found that woman supported a higher continuance commitment than man. The study used the continuance commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984). The results comparing the male and female groups resulted in women reporting significantly higher continuance commitment than their male counterparts.

Education and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between education and job satisfaction has been supported, with education contributing a job satisfaction by increasing both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Arvey, Carter & Buerkley, 1991). However some research has also found that employees who perceive themselves as having an excess of education experience more dissatisfaction (Burris, 1983; Tsang, Rumberger & Levin, 1991)

Education and Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen 1997 found that educational level is not consistently related to affective commitment. However less educated persons are likely to have fewer job alternatives and are, therefore, more likely to be committed to the employing firm. (O Reilly & Caldwell, 1981).⁶¹

⁶¹ Scott E. Schneider, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Job Characteristics of Managers.: Examining The Relationship Across Selected Demographic Variables, **Doctora Thesis**, The Steinhard School of Education New York University, 2003, p.30-34.

6. METHODOLOGY

6.1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find the relationship between employees' level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. According to the theoretical framework of the study, first we wanted to find out whether there is relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Second, we aimed to find out whether there is a relationship between demographics and job satisfaction; and third, we wanted to find whether there is a relationship between demographics and organizational commitment.

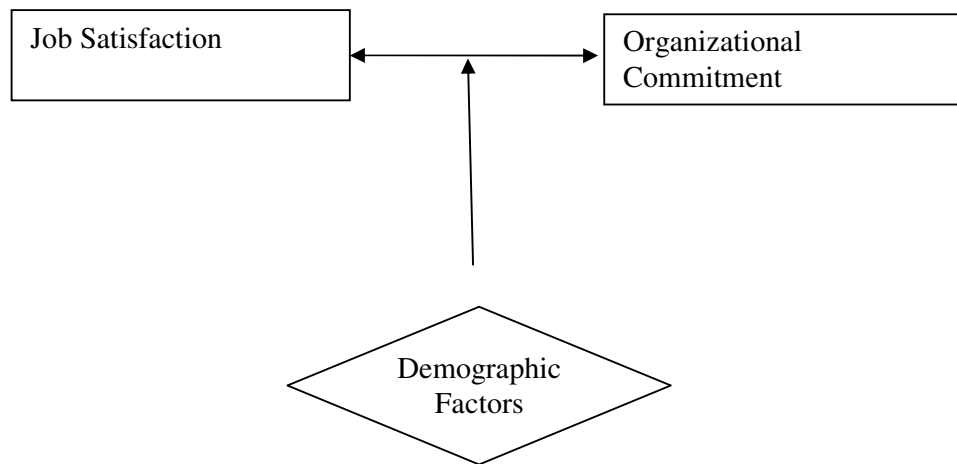


Figure 9: Theoretical Framework

Hypothesis

The hypothesis tested in this research study is as follows:

H1. There is a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

6.2 Sampling Method

A judgment sampling method and exploratory analyze method is used in this thesis. Survey data were collected from three different company 60 enterprise resource planning users by two different questionnaires; specifically job satisfaction survey and organizational commitment survey. Both groups of sample are white collar employees working in pharmacy, logistics, iron and steel sector.

6.3 Research Instrument

In this study, a personal information form and two different survey scales have been used. These are;

6.3.1 Personal Information Data Form

It has been used to determine demographic variables. Items related to respondents' gender, age, education level, position level and seniority are included in this section.

6.3.2 Job Satisfaction Survey

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is designed by Weiss, Davis and England (1967). It respondents indicate how satisfied they are with various aspects of their present job by selecting one of six alternative responses; “Strongly Satisfied”, “Very satisfied”, “Satisfied”, “Neither”, “Dissatisfied”, “Very Dissatisfied”.

6.3.3 Organizational Commitment Survey

An eighteen-item scale of organizational commitment have been used which adapted from the scale developed Meyer & Allen’s (1997), in order to measure participants’ commitment to their organization.

The responses are collected with a six point likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

6.4 Analyze Method

The statistical procedures used to analyze the collected data are explained in this section. For assessing data, the packaged statistical data analysis tool SPSS 15 was used. Initially, all instruments' reliability was tested. To ensure items' internal consistency, reliability was assessed by Cronbach's alpha. Factor, ANOVA, T-tests and Correlation analysis were tested.

7. FINDINGS

7.1 Demographic Properties

In this research, the information is collected by utilizing socio-demographic questions, which are held on the first page of questionnaire form like gender, age, education level, position, seniority of the participants are defined.

Table 4: Gender of Personnel

Gender			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	32	53,3	53,3
Female	28	46,7	100
Sum	60	100	

Survey data were collected from three different company 60 enterprise resource planning users. According to data %53,3 (32 people) is female and %46,7 (28 people) is male.

Table 5: Age of Personnel

Age			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
20-30	23	38,3	38,3
31-50	30	50,0	88,3
Over 50	7	11,7	100
Sum			

When it is classified with age level %38,3 (23 people) are the range of 20-30 years old, %50,0 (30 people) are the range of 31-50 years old, %11,7 (7 people) is over 50 years old.

Table 6: Education Level of Personnel

Education			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
High school	10	16,7	16,7
University	32	53,3	70,0
Graduate Degree	17	28,3	98,3
PH Degree	1	1,7	100
Sum	60	100	

When it is classified with education level in the organizations; %16,7 (10 people) has high school degree, %53,3 (32 people) has university degree, %28,3 (17 people) has graduate degree, %1,7 (1 person) has Ph degree.

Table 7: Position of Personnel

Position			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Blue Collar-Worker	2	3,3	3,3
White Collar-Worker	8	13,3	16,7
Specialist	19	31,7	48,3
Manager	21	35	83,3
Administrator	6	10	93,3
Other	4	6,7	100
Sum	60	100	

When it is classified with position level; %3,3 (2 people) are blue collar worker, %13,3 (8 people) are white collar worker, %31,7 (19 people) are specialist, %35 (21 people) are manager, %10 (6 people) are administrator and %6,7 (4 people) are other.

Table 8: Seniority of Personnel

Seniority			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-2 years	4	6,7	6,7
3-6 years	21	35,0	41,7
7-15 years	30	50,0	91,7
16- over	5	8,3	100
Sum	60	100	

When it is classified with seniority in the organizations; %6,7 (4 people) have 0-2 years seniority, %35 (21 people) have 3-6 years seniority, %50 (30 people) have 7-15 years seniority, %8,3 (5 people) have over 15 years seniority.

7.2 Analysis of Data

Proficiency with statistical software packages is indispensable today for serious research in the sciences. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) is one of the most widely available and powerful statistical software packages. For assessing data, the packaged statistical data analysis tool SPSS 15 is used.

In this thesis, Factor, ANOVA, T-test and Correlations are used.

Correlation procedure computes Pearson's correlation, with their significance levels. Correlations measure how variables or rank orders are related. Correlation method is used to find out the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors.

ANOVA method is used to find out the difference between personnel's age, education level, seniority, position and job satisfaction and organizational commitment

factors. Analysis of ANOVA is a method of testing the hypothesis that several group means are equal in the population, by comparing the sample variance estimated from the group means to that estimated within the groups.

T test method is used to find out the difference between personnel's gender and job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors. T-test procedure compares means for two groups of cases.

Reliability Analysis of Job Satisfaction Scale

This scale was used with the purpose of measuring overall job satisfaction in our study and Cronbach's Alpha formula was used to test the reliability. The coefficient of internal consistency $\alpha = .76$ was obtained.

Reliability Analysis of Organizational Commitment Scale

Commitment scale was developed by Meyer Allen's and used with the purpose of measuring organizational commitment. Internal reliability of this instrument was again assessed by Cronbach's alpha formula. The coefficient of internal consistency $\alpha = .68$ was obtained.

7.2.1 Factor Analysis

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire scale consists of 20 items. These 20 questions are measured on six point scale. The results of factor analysis showed that we have 5 factors. As a result of factor analysis one of the items (question 1) was omitted due to the reason that loading factor is under 0,50. The items gathered under the first factor were related to job's character (item 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16), the items under second factor were related to work itself (item 2, 3, 4, 9), the items under third factor were related to working conditions (item 7, 8, 17), the items under fourth factor were related to job's psychological effects (item 19, 20) and the items under fifth factor were related to coworkers (item 5, 18).

Another measuring instrument used in this thesis is organizational commitment questionnaire scale which consists of 18 items. These 18 questions are measured on six point scale. The results of factor analysis showed that we have 4 factors. As a result of factor analysis one of the items (question 7) was omitted due to the reason that loading factor is under 0,50. The items gathered under the first factor were questions related to affective commitment (item 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 16), the items under second factor were related to normative commitment (item 1, 8, 14, 18), the items under third factor were related to continuance commitment (item 9, 10, 12, 13) and the items under fourth factor were related to stay in organization (item 11, 15, 17).

Table 9: Job Satisfaction Factors

Job Satisfaction Factors		
	Factor Loadings	Variance of Loading%
Factor 1: Job's Character		21,876
Responsibility (item 15)	,841	
Creativity (item 16)	,749	
Advancement (item 14)	,745	
Ability Utilization (item 11)	,737	
Company Policy (item 12)	,701	
Authority (item 10)	,566	
Supervision Technical (item 6)	,524	
Compensation (item 13)	,523	
Factor 2: Work Itself		14,56
Social Status (item 4)	,750	
Variety (item 3)	,748	
Independence (item 2)	,719	
Social Service (item 9)	,612	
Factor 3: Working Conditions		11,64
Security (item 8)	,794	
Moral Values (item 7)	,633	
Working Conditions (item 17)	,550	
Factor 4: Job's Psychological Effects		11,37
Achievement (item 20)	,801	
Recognition (item 19)	,777	
Factor 5: Coworkers		9,58
Coworkers (item 18)	,858	
Superhuman (item 5)	,786	

Table 10: Organizational Commitment Factors

Organizational Commitment Factors		
	Factor Loadings	Variance of Loading%
Factor 1: Affective Commitment		23,24
Part of the family (item 5)	,835	
Belonging (item 3)	,816	
Loyalty (item 16)	,771	
Emotionally Attached (item 4)	,738	
Meaningful (item 6)	,730	
Ownness (item 2)	,636	
Factor 2: Normative Commitment		17,20
Spending rest of career (item 1)	,752	
Hard to leave (item 8)	,721	
Not right to leave (item 14)	,682	
Great Deal (item 18)	,516	
Factor 3: Continuance Commitment		16,06
Negative Consequences (item 10)	,830	
Few Options (item 12)	,818	
Disrupted Life (item 9)	,764	
Not obligation remain(item 13)	,671	
Factor 4: Stay in organization		12,93
Sense of obligation (item 17)	,834	
Feel guilty (item 15)	,812	
Putting so much of yourself (item 11)	,612	

7.2.2 ANOVA Analysis

ANOVA method is used to find out the difference between personnel's age, education level, seniority, position and job satisfaction.

Table 11: According to Age Job Satisfaction ANOVA Analysis Results.

- The difference between personnel's age and job satisfaction.

Tested Factor	Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	20-30	23	3,8315	0,73238	1,260	0,291
	31-50	30	3,9917	0,75923		
	Over 51	7	4,3929	1,29186		
Factor 2	20-30	23	4,1630	0,90330	1,120	0,333
	31-50	30	4,4583	0,77982		
	Over 51	7	4,5714	0,64087		
Factor 3	20-30	23	4,0145	0,94001	2,932	0,061
	31-50	30	4,4333	0,72265		
	Over 51	7	4,7619	0,73822		
Factor 4	20-30	23	4,1522	0,71406	8,832	0,000
	31-50	30	4,1667	0,78051		
	Over 51	7	5,4286	0,73193		
Factor 5	20-30	23	4,2826	0,80941	0,037	0,964
	31-50	30	4,3333	0,68649		
	Over 51	7	4,3571	1,14434		

One Factor ANOVA test conducted to find whether the job satisfaction level changes with age or not. The ANOVA analysis showed that, there is significant difference between personnel's age and factor 4 job's psychological effects (**F=8,832 Sig=0,000**). The results are given in Table 11.

Table 12: According to Education Job Satisfaction ANOVA Analysis Results

- The difference between personnel's education and job satisfaction.

Tested Factor	Education	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	High school	10	3,7750	0,91249	0,869	0,463
	University	32	4,1289	0,73471		
	Graduate Degree	17	3,7941	0,94263		
	PH Degree	1	4,2500	0,0		
Factor 2	High school	10	4,7000	0,67495	1,728	0,172
	University	32	4,3750	0,79057		
	Graduate Degree	17	4,0735	0,89165		
	PH Degree	1	5,2500	0,0		
Factor 3	High school	10	4,1333	0,74037	2,852	0,045
	University	32	4,5833	0,70329		
	Graduate Degree	17	3,9020	0,99836		
	PH Degree	1	4,3333	0,0		
Factor 4	High school	10	4,4500	0,72457	1,153	0,336
	University	32	4,4375	0,84957		
	Graduate Degree	17	4,0000	0,88388		
	PH Degree	1	4,0000	0,0		
Factor 5	High school	10	4,1500	1,05541	0,280	0,839
	University	32	4,3906	0,83988		
	Graduate Degree	17	4,2647	0,47162		
	PH Degree	1	4,5000	0,0		

One Factor ANOVA tests were carried out to find if the job satisfaction level changes with education level or not. When the participants are compared with education, there is only one significant difference between personnel's age at factor 3 working conditions (**F=2,852 Sig=0,045**). The results are given in Table 12.

Table 13: According to Seniority Job Satisfaction ANOVA Analysis Results

- The difference between personnel's seniority and job satisfaction.

Tested Factor	Seniority	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	0-2 years	4	4,0000	1,79409	1,186	0,323
	3-6 years	21	3,8631	0,58350		
	7-15 years	30	3,9458	0,79240		
	16- over	5	4,6250	0,88829		
Factor 2	0-2 years	4	4,1875	2,05523	0,577	0,632
	3-6 years	21	4,5476	0,69650		
	7-15 years	30	4,2583	0,73251		
	16- over	5	4,3000	0,32596		
Factor 3	0-2 years	4	3,9167	1,39775	2,438	0,074
	3-6 years	21	4,0317	0,91229		
	7-15 years	30	4,4556	0,68639		
	16- over	5	4,9333	0,43461		
Factor 4	0-2 years	4	4,6250	1,10868	5,017	0,004
	3-6 years	21	3,9048	0,66368		
	7-15 years	30	4,3833	0,78437		
	16- over	5	5,3000	0,83666		
Factor 5	0-2 years	4	4,5000	1,08012	0,244	0,865
	3-6 years	21	4,3810	0,85007		
	7-15 years	30	4,2333	0,71599		
	16- over	5	4,4000	0,82158		

One Factor ANOVA was used to see if the job satisfaction level changes with seniority or not. The ANOVA analysis showed that, there is significant difference between personnel's seniority and factor 4 job's psychological effect. (**F=5,017 Sig=0,004**). The results are given in Table 13.

Table 14: According to Position Job Satisfaction ANOVA Analysis Result

Tested Factor	Position	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,1875	0,44194	3,242	0,012
	White Work.	8	3,9844	0,62834		
	Specialist	19	3,7632	0,78051		
	Manager	21	3,7440	0,79203		
	Administrator	6	4,8333	0,66458		
	Other	4	4,8125	0,86903		
Factor 2	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,1250	0,17678	1,233	0,307
	White Work.	8	4,6563	0,82308		
	Specialist	19	4,3816	0,91806		
	Manager	21	4,0714	0,73375		
	Administrator	6	4,6250	0,72024		
	Other	4	4,8750	0,85391		
Factor 3	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,8333	0,23570	0,724	0,608
	White Work.	8	4,3333	0,83571		
	Specialist	19	4,2105	0,89726		
	Manager	21	4,2063	0,67062		
	Administrator	6	4,8333	0,45947		
	Other	4	4,2500	1,79247		
Factor 4	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,7500	0,35355	2,721	0,029
	White Work.	8	4,2500	1,00000		
	Specialist	19	4,1316	0,52287		
	Manager	21	4,0714	0,79507		
	Administrator	6	5,0833	0,97040		
	Other	4	5,1250	1,18145		
Factor 5	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,5000	0,70711	1,725	0,145
	White Work.	8	4,4375	0,62321		
	Specialist	19	4,4737	0,73548		
	Manager	21	3,9762	0,78224		
	Administrator	6	4,3333	0,93095		
	Other	4	5,0000	0,70711		

One Factor ANOVA tests were done to see whether the job satisfaction level changes with position or not. When the participants are compared with position, there is significant difference at factor 1 job's character (**F=3,242 Sig=0,012**) and factor 4 job's psychological effect (**F=2,721 Sig=0,029**). The results are given in Table 14.

ANOVA method is used to find out the difference between personnel's age, education level, seniority, position and organizational commitment.

Table 15: According to Age Organizational Commitment ANOVA Analysis Results

- The difference between personnel's age and job organizational commitment.

Tested Factor	Age	N	Mean	Std, Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	20-30	23	3,9710	1,00962	2,905	0,063
	31-50	30	4,4000	0,79823		
	Over 51	7	4,8095	0,83015		
Factor 2	20-30	23	3,6087	0,88493	2,486	0,092
	31-50	30	3,7750	0,61008		
	Over 51	7	4,3929	1,28174		
Factor 3	20-30	23	2,2609	0,87736	3,367	0,041
	31-50	30	2,5667	0,90242		
	Over 51	7	3,3571	1,54689		
Factor 4	20-30	23	3,0290	1,10970	1,612	0,208
	31-50	30	3,4667	0,98883		
	Over 51	7	3,7619	1,54817		

One Factor ANOVA tests were conducted to find if the organizational commitment level changes with age or not. Table 15 shows that there is significant difference between personnel's age and factor 3 continuance commitment (**F=3,367 Sig=0,041**). As the mean of older personnel is higher than the younger personnel, it can be said that older personnel are more committed with their jobs than younger personnel.

**Table 16: According to Education Organizational Commitment ANOVA
Analysis Results.**

- The difference between personnel's education and organizational commitment.

Tested Factor	Education	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	High school	10	4,3667	0,83813	0,777	0,512
	University	32	4,4010	0,87258		
	Graduate Degree	17	4,0588	1,05235		
	PH Degree	1	3,5000	0,0		
Factor 2	High school	10	3,9750	0,87758	2,256	0,092
	University	32	3,9531	0,84824		
	Graduate Degree	17	3,3971	0,68499		
	PH Degree	1	3,0000	0,0		
Factor 3	High school	10	3,2250	1,33047	2,189	0,099
	University	32	2,4844	0,93312		
	Graduate Degree	17	2,2941	0,86709		
	PH Degree	1	1,7500	0,0		
Factor 4	High school	10	3,4333	1,62580	0,672	0,573
	University	32	3,4792	1,02980		
	Graduate Degree	17	3,0196	0,95358		
	PH Degree	1	3,0000	0,0		

One Factor ANOVA is done to determine whether the organizational commitment level changes with education level or not. The ANOVA analysis showed that, there is not significant difference between personnel's education level and organizational commitment. The results are given in Table 16.

**Table 17: According to Seniority Organizational Commitment ANOVA
Analysis Results.**

- The difference between personnel's seniority and organizational commitment.

Tested Factor	Seniority	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	0-2 years	4	3,5833	1,23603	2,331	0,084
	3-6 years	21	4,0238	1,12705		
	7-15 years	30	4,4889	0,59521		
	16- over	5	4,7000	0,98178		
Factor 2	0-2 years	4	3,6250	1,58771	3,718	0,016
	3-6 years	21	3,5595	0,73274		
	7-15 years	30	3,7833	0,65566		
	16- over	5	4,8500	0,94538		
Factor 3	0-2 years	4	2,5000	1,36931	6,552	0,001
	3-6 years	21	2,1190	0,72723		
	7-15 years	30	2,5833	0,83906		
	16- over	5	4,1000	1,48535		
Factor 4	0-2 years	4	3,0000	0,86066	0,571	0,637
	3-6 years	21	3,3968	1,31917		
	7-15 years	30	3,2444	0,91782		
	16- over	5	3,8667	1,59164		

One Factor ANOVA is used to see if the organizational commitment level changes with seniority or not. The ANOVA analysis shows that, there is significant difference between personnel's seniority for factor 2 normative commitment (**F=3,718 Sig=0,016**) and factor 3 continuance commitment (**F=2,698 Sig=0,030**). The results are given in Table 17.

**Table 18: According to Position Organizational Commitment ANOVA
Analysis Results**

- The difference between personnel's position and organizational commitment.

Tested Factor	Position	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Sig
Factor 1	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,2500	0,11785	1,186	0,328
	White Work.	8	4,4583	0,36460		
	Specialist	19	4,0877	1,06627		
	Manager	21	4,1587	0,88737		
	Administrator	6	5,0556	0,76497		
	Other	4	4,3750	1,24257		
Factor 2	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,6250	0,88388	2,698	0,030
	White Work.	8	4,1250	0,42258		
	Specialist	19	3,4737	0,63952		
	Manager	21	3,5833	0,73456		
	Administrator	6	4,3750	1,00933		
	Other	4	4,3125	1,59915		
Factor 3	Blue Col Wor.	2	4,5000	2,12132	4,334	0,002
	White Work.	8	2,1250	1,22474		
	Specialist	19	2,5000	0,76830		
	Manager	21	2,4881	0,70921		
	Administrator	6	3,4167	1,20069		
	Other	4	1,5625	0,55434		
Factor 4	Blue Col Wor.	2	5,0000	1,41421	3,676	0,006
	White Work.	8	4,1667	0,95950		
	Specialist	19	2,7719	0,92997		
	Manager	21	3,2063	1,05660		
	Administrator	6	3,7778	1,16746		
	Other	4	3,5000	.79349		

One Factor ANOVA is done to find if the organizational commitment level changes with position or not. Table 18 shows that, there is significant difference between personnel's age and factor 2 normative commitment (**F=2,698 Sig=0,030**) factor 3 continuance commitment (**F=4,334 Sig=0,002**) and factor 4 stay in organization (**F=3,676 Sig=0,006**).

7.2.3 T Test Analysis

T test method is used to find out the difference between personnel's gender and job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors.

Table 19: T Test between Gender and Job Satisfaction.

- The difference between personnel's gender and job satisfaction.

Tested Factor	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T	Sig
Factor 1	Female	32	3,7891	0,70528	3,194	0,079
	Male	28	4,1920	0,91064		
Factor 2	Female	32	4,1250	0,75669	1,365	0,247
	Male	28	4,6250	0,81791		
Factor 3	Female	32	4,2396	0,79980	1,079	0,303
	Male	28	4,3929	0,89375		
Factor 4	Female	32	4,1094	0,74849	1,537	0,220
	Male	28	4,5357	0,90194		
Factor 5	Female	32	4,1875	0,65685	0,768	0,384
	Male	28	4,4643	0,89161		

T test was used to see if the job satisfaction level changes with gender or not. The T test analysis showed that, there is not significant difference between personnel's gender and job satisfaction factors. The results are given in Table 19.

Table 20: T Test between Gender and Organizational Commitment.

- The difference between personnel's gender and organizational commitment.

Tested Factor	Gender	N	Mean	Std, Deviation	T	Sig
Factor 1	Female	32	4,1771	0,97269	0,671	0,416
	Male	28	4,4048	0,85036		
Factor 2	Female	32	3,6016	0,63772	3,346	0,072
	Male	28	3,9911	0,98714		
Factor 3	Female	32	2,3672	0,78284	7,663	0,008
	Male	28	2,7411	1,22187		
Factor 4	Female	32	3,0625	0,87759	5,098	0,028
	Male	28	3,6429	1,28917		

T test was used to see if the job satisfaction level changes with gender or not. The results in table 20 indicates that, there is significant difference between personnel's gender and factor 3 continuance commitment (**F=7,663 Sig=0,008**) and factor 4 stay in organization (**F=5,098 Sig=0,028**).

7.2.4 Correlation Analysis

Correlation method is used to find out the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors. The results are given in Table 21.

**Table 21: Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment Correlation
Analysis Result.**

		Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Stay in Organization
Job's character	Pearson Correlation	.470(**)	.566(**)	.137	.405(**)
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.297	.001
	N	60	60	60	60
Work Itself	Pearson Correlation	.373(**)	.232	-.049	.218
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.003	.075	.712	.095
	N	60	60	60	60
Working Conditions	Pearson Correlation	.550(**)	.497(**)	.184	.184
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.160	.159
	N	60	60	60	60
The Job's Psychologic al effects	Pearson Correlation	.257(*)	.439(**)	.164	.045
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.047	.000	.209	.733
	N	60	60	60	60
Coworkers	Pearson Correlation	.275(*)	.402(**)	-.054	-.003
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.034	.001	.682	.980
	N	60	60	60	60

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

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

- The relationship between affective commitment and each job satisfaction factor.

The correlation analysis is done to find a relationship between affective commitment and each job satisfaction factors. The results in Table 21 indicate significant relationship between affective commitment and the following job satisfaction factors; job's character, work itself, working conditions, the job's psychological effects and coworkers. Generally it can be said a positive relationship at 0.01 level has been found between affective commitment and the job's psychological effects and coworkers factors. There is a positive relationship at 0.05 level between affective commitment and job's character, work itself and working conditions factors.

- The relationship between normative commitment and each job satisfaction factor.

In accordance with the results; there is a significant relationship between normative commitment and the following job satisfaction factors; job's character, working conditions, the job's psychological effects and coworkers. Of the five job satisfaction factors, four of five factors were found to correlate with normative commitment. The relationship is 0.01 significant level.

Generally it can be said that there is a relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction.

- The relationship between continuance commitment and each job satisfaction factor.

The correlation analysis is done to find a relationship between continuance commitment and each job satisfaction factors. In accordance with the results; there is not significant relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction. None of the job satisfaction factor correlated significantly with continuance commitment.

- The relationship between stay in organization and each job satisfaction factor.

The correlation analysis is done to find a relationship between stay in organization and job satisfaction factors. The results in Table 28 indicate; the only job satisfaction factor that provided a positive slightly significant relationship with stay in organization factor is job's character.

8. CONCLUSION

Employee attitudes are an important subject because employees are very important for organizational success and competitiveness. In particular, attitudes relating to job satisfaction and organizational commitment are of major interest to the field of organizational behavior and the practice of human resource management.

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction are important aspects of organizational effectiveness, productivity and job performance, and may impact on intention to leave, absenteeism. Organizational commitment for an individual is to accept the goals and values of an organization, to spend effort to reach these goals and to wish to continue to be a member of the organization. There exist three different dimensions of organizational commitment that provide important benefits for both organizations and employees, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment.

To understand the subject easier, job satisfaction, concept of job satisfaction, related job satisfaction theories and measuring job satisfaction subjects are explained in the first step. In the second part, organizational commitment and concept of organizational commitment subjects are mentioned. In the third part the application about the relationship between the job satisfaction and organizational commitment is mentioned.

The major objective of this study was to investigate the concepts of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and their relationship with each other. Also, this study investigates the effects of demographic factors on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

To search how these issues are formed in the practice, questionnaire forms are delivered to the personnel from three different company 60 enterprise resource planning users. This questionnaire form consists of a personal information form, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire.

I studied several factors that influence job satisfaction. First of all, the impact of several demographic variables on job satisfaction was investigated. The first demographic variable is age. Results of ANOVA analyses showed that there is significant difference between age and the only job satisfaction factor, the job's psychological effect. In the other researches, significant variations across age and job satisfaction are commonly found with older employees reporting higher satisfaction (Doering, Rhodes & Schuster, 1983; Glenn, Taylor & Weaver, 1977; Warr, 1992).

Second demographic variable is gender. Results of unpaired t-test showed that being male or female does not make any difference on job satisfaction. The study findings are consistent with prior researches where meta-analytic research on gender and job satisfaction found mean correlations to be almost zero (Brush et al. 1987; Witt & Nye, 1992).

Third demographic variable is education. Results of ANOVA showed that education plays role on job satisfaction for only the working condition factor. Both positive and negative relationship between education and job satisfaction has been supported by the prior researchers.

Fourth demographic factor is seniority. Results of ANOVA showed that there is significant difference between seniority and the only job satisfaction factor, the job's psychological effect. According to Wright and Hamilton (1978) older workers gaining tenure in an organization are more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers because they are more accepting of authority.

Fifth demographic factor is position. Results of ANOVA showed that there is not meaningful difference between personnel's position and job satisfaction except job's character and job's psychological effects factors

Secondly, the impact of several demographic variables to organizational commitment was investigated. The first demographic variable is age. Results of ANOVA showed that there is significant difference between age and continuance organizational commitment. According to Salancik older employees tend to be more committed than younger ones. Allen and Meyer (1993) found that affective

commitment correlated positively with age and the reasons suggested for this relation were that older employees are more mature, they have better explanations for the experiences lived. A contradictory finding that age correlates significantly negatively with organizational commitment is found by Marsh and Mannari.

Second demographic variable is gender. Results of unpaired t-test showed that being male or female does make difference on continuance and stay in organization factors. The study findings are consistent with prior researches where a meta-analytic study conducted by Aven, Parker and McEyov (1993) examined gender and affective commitment. Their results showed that gender and affective commitment are unrelated. Whan (1998), examining the relationship between gender and continuance commitment found that woman supported a higher continuance commitment than man. The study used the continuance commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984). Mowday et al. (1982) found that gender and organizational commitment were related to each other.

Third demographic variable is education. Results of ANOVA showed that education plays no role on organizational commitment. Steers (1977) found negative correlation between education and organizational commitment and he suggested that this could be due to more educated people being harder to satisfy. Meyer and Allen 1997 found that educational level is not consistently related to affective commitment.

Fourth demographic factor is seniority. Results of ANOVA showed that there is significant difference between seniority and normative commitment factor of organizational commitment. The findings of Hall, Schneider and Nygren (1970), Lee (1971) and Hrebiniak (1974) that seniority has generally been reported to be positively related to commitment. Allen and Meyer (1993) found that affective commitment correlated positively with tenure and they suggested that this effect may be due to attaining a better position in time.

Fifth demographic factor is position. Results of ANOVA showed that there is a significant difference between position and organizational commitment.

We find four factor of organizational commitment and these are, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and stay in organization factors.

We find five factor of job satisfaction and these are; job's character, work itself, working condition, job's psychological effects and coworkers factors.

Thirdly, the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment was investigated. Results of correlation analysis showed that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors. First organizational commitment factor is affective commitment. Results of correlation showed that there is a significant and positive relationship between affective commitment and each job satisfaction factors. These findings are consistent with prior researches indicating that employees perceiving a high degree of organizational commitment experienced a high level of job satisfaction (Allen&Meyer, 1997).

Second organizational commitment factor is normative commitment factor. Results of correlation showed that there is a relationship between continuance commitment and the following job satisfaction factors; job's character, working conditions, the job's psychological effects and coworkers. These findings are consistent with research by Morrison (1994) reporting a positive and significant correlation between normative commitment and job satisfaction.

Third organizational commitment factor is continuance commitment. There is not significant relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction. None of the job satisfaction factor correlated significantly with normative commitment.

Fourth organizational commitment factor is stay in organization. The study found only one of job satisfaction factor to show statistical significance; job's character.

In conclusion, in this research it has been constituted that there is relationship between, age, education, position, seniority variables and job satisfaction. Also, difference has been found between age, gender, position, seniority variables and organizational commitment. The results of the correlation analysis between the scales

revealed that job satisfaction is strongly related to affective commitment, and normative commitment. Based on this finding, it can be interpreted that affective and normative commitment will increase provided that job satisfaction is improved in terms of job's character, working conditions, job's psychological effects, coworkers and as a result their performance will improve, too.

9. LIMITATIONS And RECOMMENDATIONS

This research was designed as an experimental field study. The most important limitation we faced was the “time” for applying tests.

The survey involves three firms which new enterprise resource planning system has recently been implemented. The survey’s results are concerning only these three firms in logistics, pharmacy and iron sector. It is hard to say the results of survey reflect the other companies.

In order to make a more reliable generalization, a larger sample would be better. Although the number of subjects and the results we collected are statistically acceptable and significant, it would be more convenient to have a larger sample.

Another consideration involves the demographics. Results might have been different if percentages for age, gender, position, seniority and position were different.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire Cover Letter

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Size sunulan bu anket formu, Marmara Üniversitesi, Human Resources Management and Development Yüksek Lisansında, yüksek lisans tezi için hazırlanmış olup, bilimsel bir çalışma niteliğindedir.

Ankete değerli zamanınızı ayırarak gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve katkıdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Çiser Engin

Marmara Üniversitesi

Kamu Yönetimi Anabilim Dalı

Human Resources Management And Development Bilim Dalı

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

APPENDIX 2: Demographic Questions

Kişisel Bilgiler:

- **Cinsiyet:**

Kadın ()
Erkek ()

- **Yaşınız:**

20-30 ()
30-50 ()
50- üstü ()

- **Pozisyonunuz:**

İşçi ()
Memur ()
Uzman ()
Şef ()
Müdür ()
Diğer ()

- **Eğitim Düzeyi:**

İlköğretim ()
Lise ()
Lisans ()
Yüksek lisans ()
Doktora ()

- **Şirkette Çalışma Süreniz:**

0-2 yıl ()
3-6 yıl ()
7-15 yıl ()
15- üstü ()

APPENDIX 3: Job Satisfaction Scale

İş Tatmini Ölçeği

	Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı ilgili rakamı daire içerisine alarak belirtiniz. İşimden;	Hiç Memnun Değilim	Çok Az Memnunum	Biraz Memnunum	Oldukça Memnunum	Çok Memnunum	Tamamen Memnunum
1	Beni her zaman meşgul etmesi bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Tek başına çalışma olanağının olması bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Ara sıra değişik şeyler yapabilme şansımın olması bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Toplumda “saygın bir kişi” olma şansını bana vermesi bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Amirimin emrindeki kişileri idare tarzı açısından	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Amirimin karar vermedeki yeteneği bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Vicdanıma aykırı olmayan şeyler yapabilme şansımın olması açısından	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Bana sabit bir iş sağlaması bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Başkaları için birşeyler yapabilme olanağına sahip olmam açısından	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Kişilere ne yapacaklarını söyleme şansına sahip olmam bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Kendi yeteneklerimi kullanarak birşeyler yapabilme şansımın olması açısından	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	İş ile ilgili alınan kararların uygulanmaya konması bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Yaptığım iş ve karşılığında aldığım ücret bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	İş içinde terfi olanağının olması bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6

15	Kendi kararlarımı uygulama serbestliğini bana vermesi bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	İşimi yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi kullanabilme şansını bana sağlaması bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Çalışma şartları bakımından	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Çalışma arkadaşlarımla birbiriyle anlaşmaları açısından	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Yaptığım iyi bir iş karşılığında takdir edilmem açısından	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Yaptığım iş karşılığında duyduğum başarı hissinden	1	2	3	4	5	6

Kaynakça : Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

APPENDIX 4: Organizational Commitment Scale

Organizasyona Bağlılık Ölçeği

	Aşağıda belirtilen ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı ilgili rakamı daire içerisine alarak belirtiniz.	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Çok Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Meslek hayatımın geri kalan kısmını çalışmakta olduğum kurumda geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Çalıştığım kurumun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerimmiş gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Kendimi çalıştığım kuruma ait hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Kendimi çalıştığım kuruma “duygusal olarak bağlı” hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Kendimi çalıştığım kurumda “ailenin bir parçası” olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Çalıştığım kurum benim için çok şey ifade ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Şu anda kendi isteğimden ziyade mecburiyetten dolayı bu kuruluşta çalışıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	İstesem de şu anda çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmak çok zor olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Şu anda çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılacak olsam hayatım altüst olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Fazla alternatifim olmadığı için çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmayı düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Çalıştığım kuruma kendimden o kadar çok şey verdim ki, buradan ayrılmayı düşünemiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

12	Çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılacak olsam, başka iş bulma imkanım sınırlı olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Bu kurumda çalışmaya devam etmek için zorunluluk hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Benim için avantajlı da olsa çalıştığım kurumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılırsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Çalıştığım kurum sadakat gösterilecek bir kurumdur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için çalıştığım kurumdan şu anda ayrılamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Çalıştığım kuruma çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5	6