



**THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
OVER THE EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION ON
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Master's Thesis

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Master's Thesis

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ÖZET

İŞ TATMİNİNİN ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİNDE ÖRGÜT KÜLTÜRÜNÜN ARACILIK ROLÜ

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İletişim sektörü, toplumsal iletişim için teknolojik bir temel sağlar ve iş dünyasından devlete ve ailelere kadar bir toplumun temel işlemlerinde merkezi bir rol oynar. Bu sektördeki işletmeler rekabette öne geçme arzusunun verimlilik unsurlarından biri olan dış ve iç müşterilerin (çalışanların) memnuniyeti ile doğru orantılı olduğunu varsayarak maksimum fayda sağlamayı ve en üst düzeyde kar maksimizasyonu yaşamayı hedeflemektedir. İşletmelerin çalışanlarının iş tatmini, örgütsel bağlılığı ve örgüt kültürünün doğrudan verimlilik ve kâr ile ilgili olması nedeniyle şirketler, çalışanlarına gerekli hassasiyeti göstermeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmada, iletişim sektörü çalışanlarında örgüt kültürünün aracılık etkisi bağlamında iş tatmininin örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki etkileri üzerinde durulmuştur.

İletişim sektöründe 3 Azerbaycan firmasında çalışan 193 çalışandan rastgele veri toplamak için kesitsel bir anket araştırma tasarımı kullanılmış ve Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi (SEM) ile analiz edilmiştir.

Araştırmacı, aşağıdakileri içeren birkaç önemli önemli bulgu keşfetti: (a) İş Memnuniyeti, Örgütsel Bağlılığa önemli ölçüde ve olumlu katkıda bulunmaktadır. (b) Örgüt Kültürü, Örgütsel Bağlılık üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahiptir (c) İş Memnuniyetinin Örgütsel Bağlılığa katkıda bulunmasının altında yatan mekanizma, kısmen algılanan bir Örgüt Kültürünün varlığı ile açıklanmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: İş Tatmini, Kültür, Örgüt Kültürü, Bağlılık, Örgütsel Bağlılık

ABSTRACT

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OVER THE EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Communication sector provides a technological foundation for societal communications and plays a central role in the fundamental operations of a society—from business to government to families. Companies in this sector aim to provide maximum benefit and experience profit maximization at the highest level, assuming that the desire to stay ahead of the competition is directly proportional to the satisfaction of external and internal customers (employees), which is one of the productivity elements. Due to the fact that the employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and the organizational culture of the companies are directly related to, productivity and profit, the companies aim to show the necessary sensitivity to their employees. In the research, the effects of job satisfaction on organizational commitment with the mediating effect of and organizational culture in communication sector's employees are emphasized.

A cross-sectional survey research design was used to randomly collect data from 193 employees working in 3 Azerbaijani company in communication sector and it is analyzed through Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

The researcher discovered several key important findings that include: (a) Job Satisfaction significantly and positively contribute to Organizational Commitment. (b) Organizational Culture has positive impact on Organizational Commitment (c) The underlying mechanism through which Job Satisfaction contribute to Organizational Commitment is partially explained by the existence of a perceived Organizational Culture.

Key words: Job Satisfaction, Culture, Organizational Culture, Commitment, Organizational Commitment

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STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

I state that the work titled ‘‘The Mediating Role of Organizational Culture over the Effect of Job Satisfaction on the Organizational Commitment’’ which I submitted as a master’s Thesis was written by me without applying for any help that would be contrary to scientific ethics and traditions. I proudly confirm that the works I have used are those shown in the references, and I have benefited by making reference to them.

15.06.2022

Rashid KHALILOV



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ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Description
AMOS	Analysis of a Moment Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
C.R	Critical Ratio
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMIN	Minimum Discrepancy
DF	Degree of Freedom
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
GoF	Goodness of Fit
JS	Job Satisfaction
NFI	Normed Fixed Index
OC	Organizational Culture
OCO	Organizational Commitment
PNFI	Parsimony Normed Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

INTRODUCTION

With the globalization and rapid change process, the importance given to human is increasing all over the world. Human beings have become an important element of all systems. Human beings have such a meaning and importance in terms of organizations. Organization and individual are inseparable. All activities carried out throughout life are for people towards a happy and comfortable life. Organizations try to achieve this goal and get help from the human factor in this process.

Two organizational attitudes are job satisfaction and organizational commitment in businesses. Attitudes are judgments of whether comments about items, people, or events are favorable or unfavorable. They express one's feelings regarding something. Although attitudes and values are not synonymous, the two are intertwined.

In today's ever-changing and developing world, the biggest helper for organizations to survive is the employee factor. If a job meets or exceeds one's expectations, the individual's positive feelings about his job represent job satisfaction.

Organizational commitment, instead, includes the attitudes and behaviors that form the basis of adopting the organization and its goals, and striving for the success and goals of the organization.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are significant topics for both employers and employees to research. Because of the reported association between job satisfaction and employee productivity, firms frequently use job satisfaction surveys to generate cost-cutting tactics. It is also a good idea to investigate organizational commitment and how it relates to how employees feel about the organization in terms of membership status. To create this study, it is also necessary to understand the motivational factors of how employees become satisfied and dedicated to an organization.

In the globalizing world, competition is increasing, and radical changes are taking place in traditional values. Discipline, which is accepted as traditional values, is replaced by auto control, centralization is replaced by decentralization, the ability to hold power and maintain balance is replaced by the ability to compromise, and effectiveness is replaced by creativity and innovation. The change process experienced has led to

changes in the tools and methods that will ensure the success of the organization. Today, the imitation and application of many methods that have given successful results in the past have led organizations to find and develop new methods and tools that increase their competitiveness. It has become inevitable for organizations to go out of traditional methods and seek new ones. Today, organizational culture emerges as one of the tools that respond to this new search.

The culture of the organizations, whether it comes from the past or is created again, is important for the identities of the enterprises, without making any difference. This element, called organizational culture, which is important for the evaluation of the feelings of the employees within the organization as well as for understanding the identity of the enterprise in the business world and the public, is a tool for enterprises to express themselves. This tool is important primarily in terms of adapting employees to the process. Organizational culture is important for the employment of people who are suitable for the identity of the organization.

There are four chapters in this study. In the first chapter, the concept of job satisfaction, its importance and the conceptual framework of job satisfaction are discussed. In the second chapter, the dimensions, classification and conceptual framework of organizational commitment are dealt with. In the third chapter, organizational culture is examined in terms of its characteristics, elements and models. Final chapter is about examining the mediating role of organizational culture in the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment.

1. JOB SATISFACTION

1.1.The Concept of Job Satisfaction

Although job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept, it can be defined as “the degree to which employees like their job” in its simplest form. Job satisfaction is an emotional response of the employee to the job situation. Job satisfaction is a reflection of the employee's emotional response to the job or to certain characteristics of the job. The financial return of the work, the level of satisfaction with the colleagues working together and the sense of happiness created by producing a product are indicators of job satisfaction. It is an abstract and difficult to measure concept because it is an emotional reaction (Yilmaz & Ceylan, 2011, p.281).

In recent decades, job satisfaction has gained a lot of attention and is still one of the most relevant and widely studied and wide-ranging subjects in the field of HRM. Various academics, scholars, and practitioners have evolved and characterized the notion of employee satisfaction in a variety of ways to figure out why some people are very happy and content with their jobs, while others are very unhappy and unsatisfied with their jobs.

Locke (1976) describes job satisfaction as a feeling of happiness resulting from a sense of accomplishment in one's job, according to Dugguh & Denies (2014). Wong & Laschinger (2013) notes that one of the key variables that must be assessed when addressing job satisfaction is job design. Job design is defined as shaping roles, duties and responsibilities and defining the workplace procedures and structure in relation to the job analysis carried out. Job design is engaged with coordinating and scheduling work to enhance organizational effectiveness and the satisfaction of workers. (Amin et al., 2017)

Singh & Jain (2013) classify job satisfaction as an emotional reaction and feelings of individuals not only about their employment, but also various job characteristics. A worker may be pleased with one or more aspects of his employment, as shown by this strategy, but may be unhappy with other aspects relevant to the job at the same time. For example, some staff may be happy with their wages, coworker relationships, and supervision, but may be unhappy with the rules and procedures that need to be followed to complete a given mission.

To back up this claim, Bakotic (2016) defines job satisfaction as employees' feelings about their varied employment. When a person is dissatisfied with his job, on the other hand, he often goes above and beyond the standard requirements of his formal employment and looks to be more active, inspired, passionate, and committed to it. When a person is unsatisfied with his or her job, he or she is more likely to engage in unproductive behaviors such as workplace hostility and indicators of impairment. Unsatisfied employees are, without a question, incredibly harmful to any company.

When it comes to job satisfaction, the financial benefits of the job, the coworkers with whom the employee enjoys interacting, and the joy supplied by creating a product come to mind. Job satisfaction is defined as the emotional state resulting from individual evaluation of the job. It is understood that job satisfaction depends on individual factors

such as doing work passionately and social factors such as participating in decisions (Keser, 2005, p. 79).

If the general attitude of the person towards his / her job is positive, it means there is job satisfaction. If the attitude formed because of the experience of a person in his job is negative, there is no job satisfaction. The person is not satisfied with his job (Gozen, 2007, p.2).

Job satisfaction can generally be defined as follows: it is the collective satisfaction that consists of the sum of the feelings, thoughts, beliefs, behaviors and evaluations of the employees towards the various elements of the job and indicates the current attitude of the employees towards the job. In addition to the different definitions developed regarding job satisfaction, it is a common view that job satisfaction has a dynamic characteristic and may occur immediately or decrease suddenly (Aydın, 2008, p.31).

The employee's satisfaction because of the job he or she does at his or her institution is described as the sense of satisfaction acquired by persons working in a workplace in exchange for the tasks and responsibilities undertaken for the job they do. An increase in earnings, promotion prospects, positive relationships with coworkers, a positive management style, and some jobs and responsibilities that the employee will undertake are some of the elements that may improve the employee's satisfaction (Vroom, 1964, p.92).

It is also known as the difference between components like knowledge, work, and this gain, all of which are presented by employees in the hopes of gaining a profit. A person puts in a great deal of effort to achieve a specific result. The greater the work and effort put in by the individual, the bigger the predicted gain. The degree of job satisfaction is determined by the difference between these two scenarios (Luthans, 1989).

The thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and dispositions of a person working in a workplace toward his or her job are referred to as job satisfaction. These assessments of the individual might be both good and negative. Job satisfaction refers to situations in which these evaluations are good, and job dissatisfaction refers to negative thoughts and feelings (Vecchio, 1991).

The Job Satisfaction Model is shown in Figure 1.1.

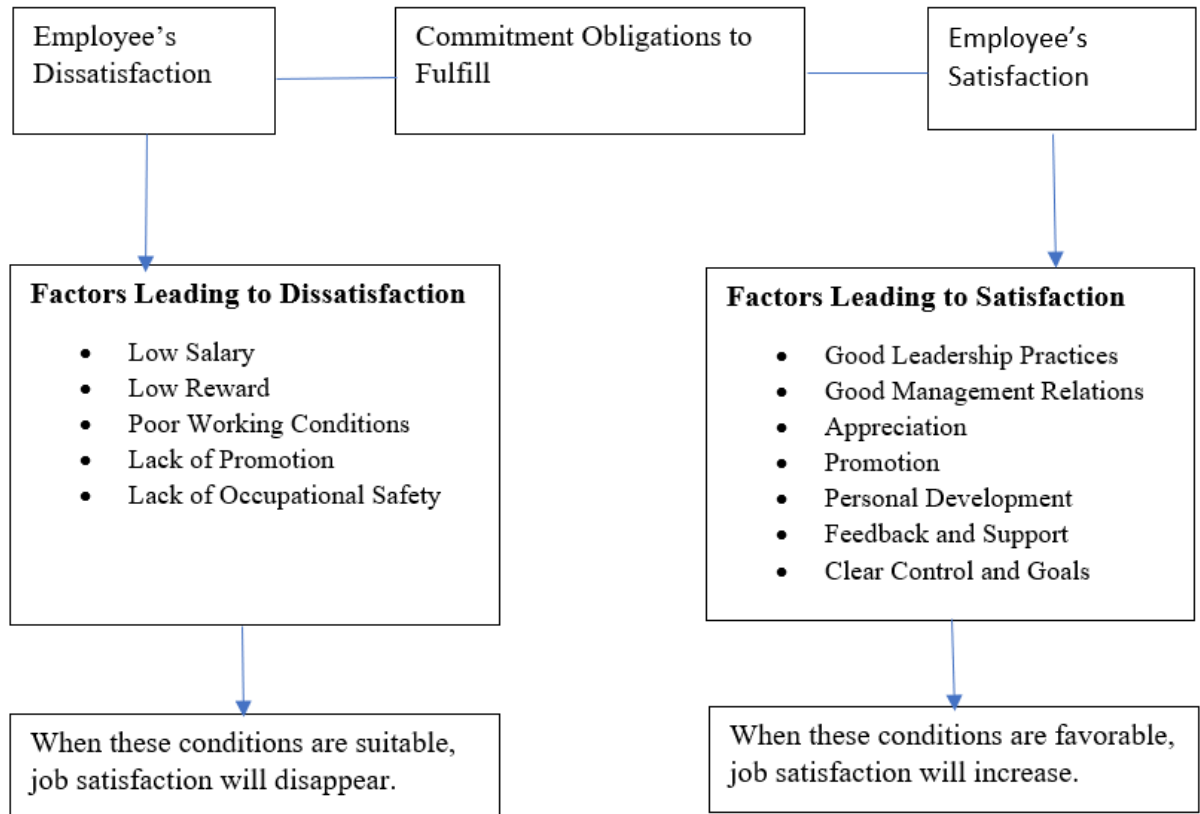


Figure 1.1. Job Satisfaction Model (*Artimany and Gelogir, 2013*).

From these definitions, the most important factors affecting job satisfaction appear to be the financial gain of the employee, the structure of the business, the co-workers he works with and the attitudes and behaviors of the people in the managerial position. Job satisfaction occurs when the person working in the business matches the characteristics of the job and the wishes of the employee and is satisfied with the job. If the opposite attitude and behavior is exhibited, it occurs because of job dissatisfaction (Silah, 2005, p.16).

The decrease in job satisfaction is the most essential indicator that an organization's current position is growing worse. Unexpected strikes, discipline issues, low productivity in the workplace, and the continuation of organizational problems are all examples of job dissatisfaction (Kahn, 1973, p.94).

It is critical for an organization's success that each employee is content with the organization for which he works. Because the higher the level of job satisfaction among the company's employees, the more successful the job performance will be. Employees

that are dissatisfied with their jobs will put forth less effort. Job happiness is one of the most important aspects of employee motivation (Raziq and Maulabakhsh, 2015, p.718).

1.2. Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

In certain ways, the organizational options provided by a workplace to its employees are determinants of job happiness. Most of these organizational options are tied to job requirements and the work environment. However, providing the employees with the necessary organizational opportunities does not guarantee that job satisfaction will be created. Because the personal characteristics of each employee are different from each other. As a result, how personnel are affected by organizational situations and what kind of attitude they form in response to them is primarily determined by their personal characteristics. Factors such as a person's education, work experience, and social environment influence how they evaluate their jobs and working conditions, and they are successful in shaping attitudes. As a result, the elements that lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction must be investigated. (Eğimli, 2009, p.30).

Individuals, who are not satisfied with their jobs, develop different reactions as well as absenteeism to make the time they spend in the workplace bearable. These include using the time spent in the workplace for private work, taking long breaks, looking busy without doing business, chatting with coworkers on trivial matters, delaying work, opposing authority by deliberately ignoring the rules, displaying aggressive behavior towards colleagues and superiors. Variables such as personal background, group norms, individual characteristics, and workplace policies are effective in individuals choosing one or more of these reactions (Erturk and Keçecioglu, 2012, p. 44).

1.2.1. Personal factors

1.2.1.1. Age

Studies have shown that people experience a higher job satisfaction in the first years of employment, that dissatisfaction starts to increase in the following years, and then that job satisfaction starts to rise again. It is understood that there is a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction. Satisfaction increases with increasing age. This is because adaptation increases due to experience. Job performance improves as the

employee gets experience and skills on the job (which happens over time), and the beneficial influence of good job performance on job satisfaction emerges. As a result, job satisfaction rises as people get older (Sevimli & Işcan, 2005, p.57).

1.2.1.2. Gender

Although researches indicate that gender has an effect on job satisfaction, there is inconsistency as to which gender provides more satisfaction. The results of the research looking for the relationships between gender and job satisfaction differ. While some research results show that women have higher job satisfaction, some research results show that women have lower job satisfaction. In the relationship between job satisfaction and gender, women who do not fully assume the economic responsibility of the family have low expectations for work life, low levels of longing, and therefore they achieve job satisfaction more easily than men who work under similar conditions, that is, the job satisfaction of women working under similar conditions. There is an opinion that it is higher than male workers. (Samadov, 2006, p. 15).

1.2.1.3. Education

There is consistent evidence to show that there is a negative relationship between education level and job satisfaction with the requirement to remain stable, especially with regard to payment. Education level affects both employee performance and job satisfaction. In the studies on the effect of socio-cultural characteristics on job satisfaction, significant relationships were found between them compared to the satisfaction behavior of other factors (Taşdan & Tiryaki, 2008, p.58).

Employees become unhappy and their job satisfaction decreases when they cannot take positions appropriate to their education level and experience. However, high levels of anxiety and stress can lead to a decrease in job satisfaction in employees who are in a position where they have higher expectations than their qualifications. In a study that examines the relationship between education level and job satisfaction through the harmony between the education received and the knowledge and skills required by the job, if the education level is higher than the job requires, this creates job dissatisfaction;

It has been observed that if the level of education is moderately higher than the job requires, the interaction between these two variables is very low. It is stated that this situation may be due to the subjective perception of individuals that they are more qualified than their job, rather than the objective incompatibility between these two variables, of the effect of having more education than the job requires on attitudes. (Yelboga, 2007, p.5)

1.2.1.4. Marital status

One of the factors known to influence job satisfaction is a person's marital status. When the marital status element was considered, it was discovered that married people working in a business had higher job satisfaction than single employees. The explanation for this is that marriage alters the employee's degree of satisfaction or his expectations from his job. Single employees are found to have lower levels of continuity and satisfaction than married employees (Ozaydin and Ozdemir, 2014, p.255).

The satisfaction levels of doctors who stated their marital status as married differed from those who did not, according to a study, and the job satisfaction levels of married people were shown to be greater. It may be said that the reason for this is because marriage brings with it a regular family life, and so its beneficial contribution to company life has a positive effect on job satisfaction. According to several studies, there is no apparent link between job happiness and married status, which is one of the personal characteristics (Sevimli and İscan, 2005, p. 60.)

1.2.1.5. Personality

In a meta-analysis study based on the hypothesis that personality factors play a significant role in achieving high job satisfaction, it was discovered that while personality does not have a direct impact on job satisfaction, it does affect the person's job conditions, which in turn affects job satisfaction (Dorman, Christian, & Dieter, 2001, p. .480).

When examining the effects of personality on job satisfaction, it can be said that employees who are flexible, determined, overcome the barriers of low socio-economic level, are self-confident, need less approval and praise, and have less criticism, have higher job satisfaction (Alan, 2010, p. 36).

1.2.2. Organizational factors

Employees who spend a large portion of their lives at work have a major impact on the organization and work-related issues that affect their job happiness. Job satisfaction, defined as the occurrence of internal, positive or negative feelings about one's job, can be considered to be significantly influenced by external circumstances. The following are some of the organizational elements that contribute to job satisfaction (Locke, 1976, p.336):

- Fee
- Promotion opportunities
- Management style
- Business environment
- Communication
- Working conditions
- Satisfaction level

1.2.2.1. The nature of the job

A diverse atmosphere not only enriches the culture of a business, but also contributes to the empowerment and self-growth of employees, as various backgrounds, talents, expertise and ideas lead to innovation and skills to solve problems. Thornbecke & Alike (2014) argue that companies need to ensure that the needs of workers are met and fulfilled by providing them with improved working conditions to improve efficiency and staff engagement. Every worker needs a good working environment that motivates them to do their best. It is also of vital importance to provide workers with sufficient efficiency resources such as resource availability and advanced information technology to help them perform specific tasks more effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, good services, occupational safety and a healthy atmosphere are important for the satisfaction of both staff and consumers, which also leads to achieving organizational objectives. MNCs normally create new stores and office buildings or renovate their old buildings to the norm, while creating new functional environments for workers, as well as providing their employees with an employee-friendly atmosphere and the latest technology.

1.2.2.2. Supervision

A workplace supervisor refers to a person who is responsible for managing and directing other workers and their activities (Shanks, 2012). Employees operate under supervision in organizational environments as a consequence of good relationships with employee managers as it affects efficiency. The way a worker feels about his job, Bakotić (2016) says, defines how he does it. MNCs bring a wealth of expertise and experience to the nations and businesses in which they work, and they also pay and offer world-class training to their workers, advice that promotes personal growth and development.

As a result, employees from least developed countries can learn quite a range of skills and gain more useful knowledge from their managers and superiors not just for the company, but also for their personal growth and development. Jin (2017) describes MNC employees as among the best in the world. However, it is vital for supervisors to build an open forum for communication where both supervisors and workers feel more comfortable sharing their opinions. For business owners, it is very important to treat each employee with dignity, courtesy and empathy on the basis that frustrated and unhappy workers appear to be less motivated to do their work, leading them to leave for other businesses where they feel more respected and appreciated.

1.2.2.3. Salary

The relationship of money with job satisfaction depends on the extent to which people's needs will be met with money, the size of monetary expectations, the equality and fairness of the earned income, and the extent to which it is associated with the performance of the person.

The employee expects his workplace's compensation system and promotion policy to be fair and consistent with his expectations. The employee's attitude toward his job will be favorable if the compensation is fair in relation to what he wants from the person, his ability, and the economic structure of society. In terms of job satisfaction, the amount of money earned is more essential than being fairly compensated in comparison to others. Wages are particularly essential to employees, according to research. There has been research that show a link between job satisfaction and income level. The higher the wage, the higher the satisfaction (Yıldız, 2013, p. 31).

1.2.2.4. Co-workers

Kaur (2013) notes that one of the most important facets influencing both job performance and job satisfaction is also the good relationship between co-workers. Fok & Yeung (2016) supports this view by clarifying that people share the working environment with those who perform the same type of job. Staff tend to be treated by their co-workers with dignity and courtesy. As a result, when workers feel appreciated, they still look forward to returning to the warm and friendly working atmosphere every day. A hostile work environment, on the other hand, also leads to discontent. Sometimes when communicating with their other coworkers, workers can need to be reminded of what actions are deemed acceptable and unacceptable. In the case of multinational corporations, through working with those from various races, cultures and ethnicities, employees are exposed to wider experience, particularly if they have the opportunity to travel or work with coworkers from all over the world. Employees of multinational companies, unlike employees of domestic or local firms, can learn not only about various cultural, political, customs, or ethical norms, but also different viewpoints from other employees, according to Baharin & Sentosa (2012), because multinational companies are characterized by great diversity in their operations.

1.2.2.5. Communication

Employees want to be informed about changes and developments in their organizations before anyone else. An employee who works in a well-functioning organization feels cared by the organization. The employee, who is aware of the organization's goals and decisions, feels himself a part of the organization and this increases job satisfaction. Thanks to the communication, employees in the organization can learn what is expected of them, how they should do their job, and what their superiors or other employees think of them. In addition to the managerial importance of communicating information in organizational life, communication also plays an important role in the positive attitudes of the employee. The absence or insufficiency of communication causes uncertainty in the organizational environment. On the other hand, uncertainty causes an increase in stress, dissatisfaction with the job, insecurity towards the organization, low level of organizational commitment, decrease in productivity, absenteeism and turnover tendencies. Establishing communication provides the opportunity to cope with uncertainty (Donmez, 2013, p. 20).

1.2.2.6. Security

Job security is a different source of pleasure for those who work. If a person knows that the company, he or she works for values him or her and that he or she has the qualifications to accomplish his or her job, he or she is more likely to be satisfied. The lower a person's position in a company's management hierarchy, the more importance occupational safety is given.

The occurrence of job insecurity has led to some negativities in terms of employees and organizations. The job reduces the motivation of the person. It decreases its efficiency. There is a high probability of confusion and chaos in the workplace where organizational trust cannot be established. Therefore, this factor causes workforce losses, resulting in a performance decrease. It causes the organization to lose reputation and prestige outside the organization. The employer's sense of security is more than just a financial assurance. The sense of security encompasses the self-assurance that comes from working in each corporate environment or complying to the terms of the contract. This feeling is mostly adopted by subordinates by their superiors. Both the security provided by a continuous material element and the sense of self-confidence are not directly effective in increasing productivity. However, under the feeling of insecurity, it is likely that the determination of the employees who offer their effort and effort will decrease. On the contrary, under the feeling of security, employees appear energetic and diligent, and their influence will increase (Dönmez, 2013, p. 21).

1.2.2.7. Satisfaction level

Because organizational factors have a greater impact on employee satisfaction than individual factors, job satisfaction research includes not only individual factors, but also management style, organizational size, qualifications, rules in the workplace, wages, promotion opportunities, advancement opportunities, friendship relationships, and so on. It has been demonstrated that it is a significant issue that should be considered from a variety of perspectives, including being appreciated (Barli, 2008: 348).

1.3. Job Satisfaction Models

1.3.1. Two Factor Theory

Developed by Herzberg, this theory includes essential ideas towards job satisfaction, despite being the most well-known motivation theory. Employees have a variety of needs in the workplace. These demands are divided into two categories in the dual factor theory: situational protection and incentive factors. Dissatisfaction is caused by situation protection factors, whilst satisfaction is provided by motivating elements. The external environment is often linked to condition maintenance elements.

Business policy, pay, working conditions, supervision, and other comparable issues can all be considered among them. Motivational elements are linked to both the job and the employee's success at work. Success, embracing responsibility, and advancement opportunities are among them.

Satisfaction is not considered as the opposite of discontent in the two-factor theory. As a result, an individual who is unable to deliver satisfaction in his job can continue to work despite his dissatisfaction. In this scenario, if organizations that are unable to deliver motivational factors can meet the criteria of situation protection factors, employees might continue to work without feeling satisfied.

1.3.2. Job Characteristics Model

Researchers' contributions to Hackman and Oldham's 1975 'features of work' method, which is built on five main elements: "skill variety, task integrity, task importance, autonomy, and feedback dimensions." Working in this manner necessitates a wide range of skills, the tasks assigned are coherent, and the more important this task is to the employee, the more important it creates a sense of meaning about the job, the employee's sense of responsibility as an autonomous job, and the job-related outcome can be learned through feedback. To measure the characteristics they suggested, Hackman and Oldham created the Occupational Diagnostic Questionnaire.

1.3.3. Equity Theory

This theory, proposed by Adams, is primarily a motivational theory, but it also covers crucial aspects of job satisfaction. According to this theory, the degree of success and pleasure a person has in his job is determined by the level of equality he perceives in his workplace. They compare the outcomes received in exchange for an employee's effort

in the workplace with the results obtained in exchange for other employees' efforts in the same setting (McCormick and Ilgen, 1980: 307).

1.3.4. Cornell Model

Job satisfaction is defined as an individual's feelings about his job, according to the Cornell Model created by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin in 1969. These emotions are triggered by the expectation of a high probability and fair reaction based on the employee's situation's alternatives, as well as their perception of the differences they observe as a result of their experiences. The Cornell model is built around the concept of the frame of reference. "It is an individual's internal standards that he or she applies when making an assessment." This standard is concerned with a person's past experiences, expectations, and change threshold in reaction to a current stimulus.

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin established the Job Descriptive Index by adding the work itself, salary, advancement opportunities, supervision, and coworkers to the frame of reference notion. Scales established to evaluate job happiness are significant for scientific studies as well as for organizations that conduct operations to understand their employees, based on beliefs regarding job satisfaction (Greenber and Baron, 2003, p.152).

1.3.5. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

"Needs are the basis of an individual's motivation, and the individual conducts action to meet these needs," according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. As a result, needs are a significant factor in determining behavior."

The needs that Maslow's theory is founded on are organized into five groups, each of which is followed by the next in a row, with the idea that once a need is met, it loses its motivational influence. Said needs are divided into five categories and enumerated from bottom to top: physiological, safety, social, esteem and status, and self-actualization. As the demands of the lower group are addressed, the needs of the upper group are met. As can be seen here, while there are physiological and safety needs at the bottom, the individual has needs such as respect and status that must be met socially (Ozkalp and Kirel, 1996, p.166).

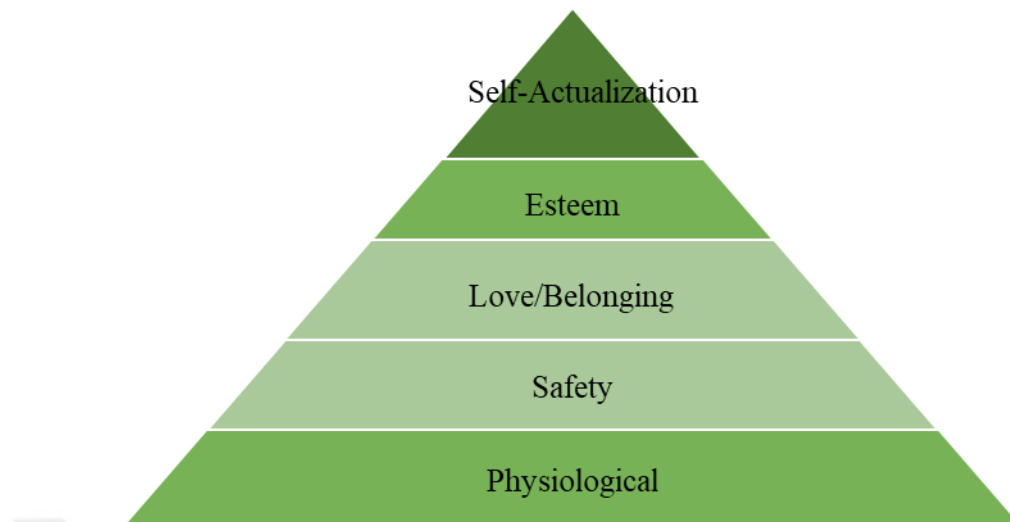


Figure 1.2. *Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943)*

Physiological needs are the most basic of these requirements; these are the requirements that will keep a person alive, such as food, defense, and shelter. People will tend to their security needs after addressing these demands, which is the following phase, because they need to feel protected in any situation. The demands of belonging and love will be addressed when these two requirements are met: the need to feel socially connected to a place, the need to communicate, and the person's need to express himself emotionally. The focus will then shift to value and self-actualization demands (Erturk, 2013, p.78).

1.3.6. McClelland Theory of Learned Needs

Although McClelland's Success Guide is the most widely used theory in practice, it does not take up much space in practice. The reason for this may be since it is difficult to distinguish needs, and it can be difficult to measure (Robbins and Judge, 2012).

They select work environments where people want to succeed, where they are not afraid to take risks in pursuit of their aspirations and ambitions, where they can contribute to problem resolution, and where they can take responsibility. They believe that their achievement is a motivating force for themselves since they see consistent acceptance from their superiors and business companions. The performance and success that people

desire to attain within themselves is a guideline for their needs, regardless of the culture in which they live (Seker, 2015: 25).

The three different requirements will be satisfied within the context of achievement based on individual expectations. This notion shows that a person's wants can be addressed without having to take a specific step. The want to form relationships, the desire to form relationships based on power, and the desire to be in a peaceful close relationship all indicate that individuals who want to meet have more potential (Ertürk, 2013, p.80).

The need to establish relationships: It covers the needs of individuals such as having social identity, establishing relationships and developing social relations. People with high needs attach more importance to social relations.

The need to gain power: It means that the person is trying to expand the strong authority and power resources that he or she has gained from birth or later. In addition, it is seen that the person exhibits behaviors that will protect his authority and power.

The need for success: The person sets goals and objectives that are difficult to achieve and require hard work and includes the needs to achieve these goals and objectives (Koçel, 2015, p.739).

1.3.7. Lawler-Porter Theory

According to the Lawler-Porter Theory, paying people who work in a business for their efforts will enhance employee motivation. In this situation, it will have an impact on people's performance by requiring them to exert more effort. People who work in a firm should be rewarded both internally and externally, according to this approach (Kizildaş, 2017, p.19).

The value of the rewards that an individual will obtain in exchange for his work, as well as the level of his efforts, play a significant role. Employees' personality traits, the knowledge and experience that will enable their efforts to be relevant in the workplace, and their role perception while performing their duties and responsibilities all have an impact on job satisfaction. The fact that the advantages are both tangible and spiritual means that they match the individual's physical and spiritual aspirations (Önen & Kanayran, 2016, p.53).

Lawler and Porter's Theory was founded on Vroom's theory, but it was produced after a thorough examination of some organizational situations and realities. An employee's efforts in the workplace may not necessarily result in excellent performance. Two new factors are necessary for this. The first is that people are looking for a career that will allow them to attain a high level of productivity, and the second is that the person have talent and knowledge (Bingöl, 1990, p.194).

1.3.8. Vroom's theory

According to Victor H. Vroom, motivation is a combination of the values one seeks and one's assessment of the likelihood that taking a particular action will lead to those values.

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

The strength of a person's desire for one result above others is reflected in valance. It's a way of expressing how much you want to achieve something. When an employee is adamant about getting a promotion, the promotion is said to have high valence for the employee.

Because the valence is based on each employee's interior self as conditioned by experience, it will differ significantly from one individual to the next. Furthermore, because people may have both positive and negative preferences for an outcome, valence can be both positive and negative. When a person chooses not to achieve an outcome overachieving it, valence is a negative number. (Davis, 1977, p.60)

Vroom's theory's second major concept is expectancy. Expectancy is the degree to which one believes that a specific action will result in a specific outcome. It indicates the employee's assessment of the likelihood of what he is waiting for. Expectancy is a measure of the relationship between action and outcome that can range from zero to one. Expectancy is 0 if an employee sees no probability. In contrast, expectancy has a value of one if the action-outcome link suggests certainty. Employee expectations are usually somewhere in the middle of these two extremes.

The third concept in Vroom's theory is instrumentality. A person can demonstrate a given degree of performance by attempting a specific task. This is a performance that can be awarded in a specific way. This gratification may be considered a first-level result.

As a first-level outcome, a person's pay, for example, can be increased. In fact, first-level outcomes serve as tools for achieving second-level goals. Salary, as previously stated, is a tool for achieving high prestige, being recognized, and providing for his family's necessities, among other things. Otherwise, a salary is meaningless. Instrumentality here refers to the subjective likelihood that first-level outcomes will lead to the realization of second-level outcomes. (Davis, 1977, pp.60-61)

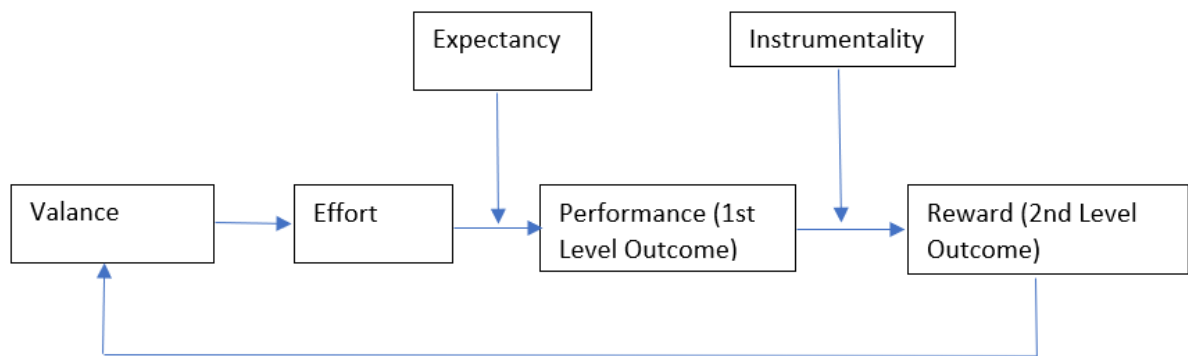


Figure 1.3. *Vroom's Theory (Borkowski 2011:130)*

1.4. Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a subject worthy of attention due to its strong relationship with variables such as turnover and absenteeism, and this relationship has been shown in many studies. Because employee job dissatisfaction; It causes results such as absenteeism, distressing problems, low morale, high workforce turnover.

1.4.1. Alienation

The most well-known signs of alienation are aimlessness and inadequacy of efforts for the future, avoidance of contact and communication with other people, seeing oneself as helpless and pathetic, apathy and boredom, and resistance to change.

The most common cause of workplace alienation is stress caused by unsatisfactory working circumstances and environments, as well as disappointments (Sahin, 2007, p.68).

If the workplace has poor working circumstances, the employee feels alienated from his or her job and is simply interested in gaining financial gain. As a result,

employees do not put in the necessary effort or motivation to meet company objectives. (Eroglu, 2000, p.337)

To ensure job satisfaction, the employee's efforts are appreciated and recognized, a fair wage and promotion system, a sense of belonging, participation in workplace decisions, positive managerial leadership, the opportunity to achieve personal goals, a fair and objective complaint resolution process, honesty in job evaluations, and an information communication network where changes that will affect or change the life of the employee are communicated. Organizations succeed as long as their personnel are happy. (Sahin, 2007, p.668)

1.4.2. Absenteeism

In the case of absenteeism, it is the case that the employees who should come to work under normal conditions do not come to work by making various excuses and tend to make it a habit (Eroğlu, 1996, p.117).

Reasons such as illness and private excuses are the ways used to hide absenteeism (Erdogan, 1996: 252), as well as work accidents, occupational diseases, long working hours, lack of interest and the thought that he is not valued, transportation problems, bad weather conditions, searching for another job, etc. (Keskin, 1997, p.150)

Another sort of absenteeism that is regarded a signal of job discontent is being late to work on a regular basis and departing early for no apparent cause. Although it is difficult to distinguish between arriving late for work and absenteeism, absenteeism and late arrivals for legitimate reasons should be evaluated in a different way. Although it is difficult to do so, the employee's attitudes and attitudes play a decisive role in making this distinction. (Erdogan, 1996, p.252).

1.4.3. Resignation

Dismissal is not a phenomenon that can be explained by a single element; an employee may quit for a variety of reasons, including pay, promotion, working environment, and coworkers. An employee's decision to leave his work might be

influenced by a variety of reasons. Furthermore, the employee may retire, change jobs, marry, or relocate to another place.

As previously said, personnel turnover is separated into two categories: controllable and uncontrollable. Personnel turnover is defined as an employee quitting his job for whatever reason after being employed in a workplace staff. Controllable turnover, which is linked to job satisfaction, is more important to employers. To reduce staff turnover, first and foremost, the employee's job satisfaction must be improved, as well as the employee's ability to influence his own work and be rewarded for his efforts (Şahin; 2007: 65).

When looking at the relationship between quitting and job satisfaction, it is clear that there's a negative correlation between the two, as well as an inverse association between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Mitchell & Larson, 1987, p.142).

Personnel turnover causes more problems in the workplace, particularly in jobs that require specific experience and mastery. The cost of training each experienced employee who leaves the job, the mistakes they make while learning the job, and inefficiency during the novice period are all cost factors. Furthermore, if an experienced person leaves the company and goes to a competitor, the competition will get a lot of knowledge and expertise from the organization (Sahin, 2007, p.65).

1.4.5. Performance

Much research has been conducted on the relationship between job happiness and performance.

Whether job satisfaction leads to performance or performance leads to job satisfaction is a contentious topic. The relationship between job satisfaction and performance is a complex one that is influenced by the employee's rewards as well as several other factors. In this way, it is more appropriate to state that job happiness and performance are linked and influenced by one another.

1.5. Measuring Job Satisfaction

Management can learn more about the causes and consequences of job satisfaction, diagnose potential problems, see the reasons for absenteeism and quitting, measure the tendency of employees to unionize against changes, and improve intra-

organizational communication by conducting job satisfaction surveys. As a result, work satisfaction surveys have evolved into a tool for efficient personnel management.

According to Arnold, the purpose of job satisfaction research is

- diagnosing potential problems in the organization,
 - determining the reasons for absenteeism and leaving the job,
 - determining the effects of organizational changes on employee behavior to make,
 - improve communication between management and employees,
 - is to provide accurate information about the desire of employees to form unions.
- (Arnold, 1986, p.25)

According to Bennett, the purpose of job satisfaction research is

- identify the causes of low morale,
- to identify the differences in job satisfaction among staff and employer groups in different positions (such as young and old workers, male and female, workers in different departments)
- improve communication between management and the working class,
- giving employees the opportunity to express their opinions,
- to determine the effects of organizational policies on employees. (Bennet, 1994, p.111)

1.5.1. Measurement Scales and Surveys

Three questions draw attention in the use of job satisfaction surveys in organizations.

- What are the most reliable and valid methods for measuring job satisfaction?
- When should job satisfaction surveys be used?
- How should job satisfaction surveys be applied?

1.5.1.1. *Smith, Kendall and Hulin index*

Probably the most well-known job satisfaction survey is the Job Description Index developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin. In the Job Description Index, there are factors related to job satisfaction such as wages, promotions, consultants, coworkers and colleagues. The Job Description Index has been used in organizations with employees at all levels of education and income.

This tool asks workers to choose from a list of adjectives that define five characteristics of their employment (work, income, promotion, supervision, and coworkers). Employees are asked to rate how well each term characterizes their jobs by answering Yes (Y) or Agree, No (N) or Disagree, and Don't Know or Unstable (?)

1.5.1.2. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lufquist created the Minnesota Satisfaction Scale. The extended version of the scale has 100 items (5 items related to each of the 20 determined factors). The short version of the scale has 20 items, and the sum of the scores is used to determine overall satisfaction. The long version of the scale takes roughly 30 minutes to administer, whereas the short version takes only 10 minutes. The Minnesota Satisfaction Scale provides comprehensive information regarding employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction, whereas the Job Description Index assesses employees' attitudes toward the five primary elements of their jobs from a broad viewpoint.

Table 1.1. *Long-Form MSQ (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, 2007.)*

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

There are several essential factors to consider whether a company develops its own instrument or uses one that has been commercially prepared:

1. What kinds of inquiries are relevant to the jobs being researched?
2. Item phrasing: Is the item language appropriate for the sophistication and verbal skills of the personnel being polled? Pre-testing the instrument with a small group of employees may be helpful in determining this.
3. Does the survey disclose which employees are answering honestly and which are faking replies due to the ease with which responses can be "faked"?
4. The amount of time it takes to complete the survey While there is no ideal time limit, any questionnaire that takes more than 35 to 40 minutes to complete is likely too long.

The questionnaire will not only take up too much time during the workday, but it will also dull and exhaust personnel.

5. Has the instrument's statistical validity been verified to check if it truly measures work satisfaction and not something else?

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire allows for independent evaluation of attitudes on a variety of variables. In practice, people's answers to these many aspects are often positively connected, so that people who are content with their boss are also satisfied with their coworkers, and so on. (McCaffee and Champagne, 1987, p.44)

1.5.1.3. Porter's Needs Satisfaction Scale

Porter's Needs Satisfaction Scale was built on the theory of conflict in order to measure job satisfaction. Each item contains two questions; one is "how much should it be" and the other is "how much now". In addition, Porter's Need Satisfaction Scale was applied only to managerial employees.

2. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Commitment, as a word, means "love, respect and closeness to someone and showing them, loyalty". In addition, it is also defined as "to show commitment to a person, to an idea, to an institution, to something that we see greater than ourselves, is an obligation we have to fulfill."

Organizational commitment, according to Luthans, is an attitude of employees' loyalty to the company (Luthans, 1992 p.130). It is the consistency and alignment of the organization's and employee's goals. Employees' desire to devote their energy and allegiance to social structures is known as organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 20).

Organizational commitment is described as the inclination to prioritize the organization's benefits and act in a way that protects them over the interests of individuals or sub-groups (Kundi & Saleh, 1993, p.154).

Organizational commitment, according to O'Reilly and Chatman, is the foundation of an individual's psychological commitment to the organization (Caldwell, 1990, p.246).

The topic of organizational commitment has become immensely popular in the past two decades through interest of researchers and practitioners in the field of management (Mowday, et al. 1982 and Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment has been researched in various contexts, including

- Perceived Organizational Support (O'Driscoll and Randall, 1999),
- Performance Among Guest Workers (Shawa, et al. 2003),
- Job Outcomes (Wasti, 2005),
- Trust, Innovative Behavior (Lee, 2008),
- Organizational Culture and Leadership Style (Lok and Crawford, 1999) and
- Job Satisfaction (Lim, 2010 and Shurbagi and Zahari, 2013b).

Some of these studies pointed out that organizational commitment has a positive relationship with these variables.

2.1. Concept of Organizational Commitment

Commitment theory and research have been the subject of many studies in recent years (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Griffin & Bateman, 1986; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter & Steers, 1982; Morrow, 1983; Mowday, Reichers, 1985 as cited in Meyer et al., 1993:538).

The subject was first discussed by Whyte in 1956, and later developed by many researchers such as Porter, Mowday, Steers, Allen, Meyer, and Becker. Various aspects of organizational commitment have been addressed by various researchers. Continuing research since 1956 reveals that there are many and different concepts about commitment (Gul, 2002: 37).

It was stressed, particularly after the 1970s, and there is no consensus on the definition of the idea of organizational commitment, which is one of the employee attitudes toward work. The main reason for diversity is that academics from many disciplines, including as sociology, psychology, social psychology, and organizational behavior, approach the subject from their own perspectives. As a result, while looking through the literature on organizational commitment, several alternative definitions of commitment can be found (Oliver, 1990, p.21).

In 1966, Grusky defined organizational commitment as "the strength of the individual's attachment to the organization." Organizational commitment, according to Kiesler, Sakumura, and Salancik, is defined as organizational behaviors that develop as a result of people's commitment attitudes. Organizational commitment, according to Kidron, is "the intention to sustain organizational commitment when more appealing alternatives are available" (Penley and Gould, 1988: 46). Another definition of commitment is that it is a function of the individual's and the organization's perceived harmony (Bateman and Strasser, 1984, p.95).

Commitment is a "psychological state" that "describes the employee's relationship with the organization" and "leads to the decision to remain in the organization" (Meyer and Allen, 1997b). As a result, organizational commitment, in its broadest definition, refers to the alignment of individual and organizational goals. In this approach, the individual can contribute to the organization's overall aims while still defining himself as a member (Çakar ve Ceylan, 2005, p.52).

Commitment may be examined in a multifaceted structure, first as a link that binds individuals and groups in the workplace, and then as a motivation that leads to the establishment of commitment. Organizational commitment is essentially a process of mutual exchange between an individual and an organization. In exchange for certain incentives or outputs from the organization, the individual dedicates himself to the organization. In other words, the individual expects incentives and/or outcomes in exchange for his commitment to the organization (Beem, 2007, p.14)

Employees' will to stay in the organization, to strive for it, and to adopt the organization's objectives (Balay, 2000, p.16). Kiesler, Sakumura and Salancik made the following definition for the concept of organizational commitment: "commitment is behavioral actions that arise as a result of individuals' commitment attitudes (Reichers, 1985, p. 468).

Devoted employees freely obey commands and expectations because they passionately believe in the organization's goals and values. These individuals also go above and above the bare minimum to accomplish the desired results and are committed to remaining in the company. Employees who demonstrate dedication are internally

motivated. Their intrinsic rewards are based on action rather than external situations. It emanates from inside, as evidenced by its positive outcomes (Balay, 2000, p.3).

Commitment to organizational goals not only helps to reduce absenteeism and labor turnover by raising the degree of success of a specific function in terms of quality and quantity; it also guides the individual to various voluntary acts that are important for organizational life and system success (Katz & Kahn, 1977, p.436).

Organizational commitment is a constant source of frustration for managers because it is a vital element of organizations. (Brewer, 1996, p.24). Because organizations face many complex problems that they must balance to compete successfully in the world economy. They must continuously reduce costs, increase their performance, improve processes and products, and increase quality and efficiency. In this context, organizational commitment becomes more important for businesses (Becker & Gerhart, 1996, p.778-801).

Because firms must balance a plethora of difficult issues to compete successfully in the global economy. They must constantly lower costs, enhance performance, improve processes and goods, and improve quality and efficiency. Organizational commitment becomes increasingly vital for businesses in this scenario (Becker & Gerhart, 1996, p.778-801).

Based on organizational commitment, there are two key principles. These qualities are devotion and a proclivity for staying organized. Devotion is defined as a sense of belonging to an organization and emotional obligation based on a sense of duty and responsibility. It appears as a significant aspect in the interaction between an employee's ideals and expectations and his or her decision to stay or leave the company. As a result, while leaving an organization reduces devotion, it grows in a positive and rewarding workplace. The employee's desire to remain a member of the organization might be explained by emotional ties and the employee's desire to stay in the organization. The employee calculates the perceived advantage of staying in the organization before deciding to stay or quit (Uygur, 2009, p.15).

The organizational commitment literature shows that researchers mostly focus on the commitment quality of individuals, the desire to protect the organizational goals and interests of the individual, the fulfillment of certain behavioral requirements for the

organization, and the moral-psychological power of the association shared with the organization. In addition, an important part of the authors also interpreted organizational commitment as the commitment of the employees to different parts or elements of the organization (Balay, 2000b, p. 18).

Employees that are devoted are less likely to depart for another job and perform better at work (Stup, 2006, p.1). Organizations with high levels of commitment have reduced levels of absenteeism, tardiness, and job turnover, and their production rate is said to be high (Angle and Perry, 1981, p.2).

Organizational commitment has been defined as an emotional commitment in most of related research, as mentioned by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), and it has been argued that employees feel committed to the extent that they adopt the values and goals of their organizations. Organizational commitment is characterized in other research as a commitment that develops as a result of employees' investments in their organizations (Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Becker, 1960: cited in Wasti, 2002, p.526).

Various measures have been developed to measure organizational commitment, but Meyer and Allen's organizational commitment scale is the most often used in the literature. "Emotional commitment," "continuance commitment," and "normative commitment," which are sub-elements of organizational commitment, were measured in Meyer and Allen's organizational commitment model. Organizational commitment is assessed as a multidimensional concept in this paradigm, dubbed the "three-dimensional organizational commitment model." Organizational commitment aspects that appear in three different ways, namely "emotional commitment," "continuance commitment," and "normative commitment," have four similar features, according to this paradigm (Meyer & Allen, 1997b, pp.11-24);

- They reflect the psychological state.
- They show the relationships between the individual and the organization.
- They are concerned with the decision to continue membership in the organization.
- It has effects on reducing labor turnover.

2.2. Levels of Organizational Commitment

According to the literature, organizational commitment is classified into three levels: low, moderate, and high.

2.2.1. Low level of organizational commitment

Low organizational commitment suggests that employees are less committed to the company than is essential, that the company is not meeting its aims and objectives, and that individuals lack the necessary conduct and attitude. Allen and Meyer propose that low organizational commitment is also considered continuation commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1991). At the same time, leaving a work where employees have a low level of devotion to the organization can improve an individual's psychology. Individuals who are psychologically weak during their working hours are less likely to desire to come to work and are more likely to be dissatisfied (Rosenholtz and Simpson, 1990, p. 242).

Low levels of commitment, on the other hand, might occasionally be beneficial. Employee engagement is low, and there is a lot of ambiguity, which indicates business innovation. With the employee's willingness to quit his current position, the firm can more effectively use its resources and recruit new employees by conducting a job search. To put it another way, the business evolves as a result of self-criticism (Celep, 2015, p. 40).

2.2.2. Moderate organizational commitment

A moderate commitment level is one in which a company's loyalty and trust are high, and some of the company's principles are accepted. Individuals demonstrate the business's intended performance while simultaneously prioritizing their personal concerns (Celep, 2014: 45). Individuals with a moderate level of dedication reject the current system's transformation and work to maintain their own identities (Randall, 1987, p.463).

Individuals with intermediate organizational commitment have more experience in the business but are not entirely dedicated to it. Individuals do not put themselves in jeopardy for the sake of the company. As a result, they have the right to protest to the company's decisions. Individuals, on the other hand, desire to integrate with the firm while trying to defend their own interests. Individuals who are moderate in business, according to Randall, do not wish to quit the institution where they work. Because they

are content with their jobs. Individual values, on the other hand, may collide with the enterprise's values. As a result, even if they do not wish to quit the institution, job disruptions may arise. The business will be difficult because of this (Somuncu, 2008, p.41).

2.2.3. High level of organizational commitment

Strong attitudes and behaviors are displayed by someone who is deeply committed to the company. Individuals that demonstrate a high level of devotion are rewarded by corporations. Individual honesty and open communication, as well as the impact of a strong team, are critical in the development of high commitment (Acar, 2006, p.60). Individuals' high organizational commitment creates a more stable and reliable working environment. Individuals do better at work because of this (Guyen, 2006, p.19).

A high level of commitment may have harmful implications since the emotional dimension is higher than the cognitive dimension. When an employee is deeply dedicated to the company's values and judgments, self-development and mobility within the company may be limited. Employees' identities may be jeopardized within the company, resulting in conflict outside of the workplace. Inefficient and ineffective use of business resources can also be caused by unqualified individuals in the workplace (Celep, 2014, p.49).

At this level of commitment, people are more committed to their jobs than at other levels. Because of the obligations assigned to them within the company, these personnel are sensitive to the company. They are likewise unconcerned about their professional careers. If the person is in a leadership position in the organization where they work at this level of commitment, they will treat their employees fairly in their payments. Furthermore, unless there are essential issues such as health, an employee's high level of dedication does not generate problems with attendance.

By combining all three levels of dedication, Meyer and Allen were able to gain a greater grasp of the issue. Meyer and Allen (1984) offered a paradigm that contains two types of organizational commitment, dubbed "emotional commitment" and "continuance commitment," respectively. Later, they added a third dimension to this paradigm, which was previously proposed by Weiner and Vardi (1980) and is defined as "normative or moral commitment" (Wasti, 2000). Meyer and Allen's research focused on three distinct

themes to explain the definition of commitment: These are emotional commitment to the organization (affective commitment), the expense of leaving the company (continuance commitment), and the need to stay in the organization (normative commitment).

Affective Commitment:

Affective commitment refers to the emotional commitment of individuals to the organization and refers to individuals' attachment and identification with organizational objects. Because the individual and the organization share similar ideals, there is a beneficial relationship in this form of commitment. Those that stay in their jobs with a strong dedication do so not only because they need the job, but also because they want it (Meyer 1993).

Continuance Commitment:

The term "continuance commitment" refers to an understanding of the costs of quitting an organization. Continuance commitment is defined as "staying to remain in that organization because of necessity" since employees believe they will lose their investments and fringe benefits if they leave and considering the restricted job options. It has to do with one's experience being given to an organization, the difficulty in giving it up, the expense of goods if he departs, or having few or no alternatives if he left the organization. Furthermore, according to Meyer, talents and education are difficult to transfer to other businesses, which strengthens employees' loyalty to their current employers. Those who remain in their organizations with a strong commitment to continuity are there because they require it. (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539). When a result, as an individual's investments in the organization grow and alternative career alternatives shrink, their commitment to the business will grow as well. (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p.72).

Normative Commitment:

In its broadest sense, normative commitment is "the sense of obligation felt by employees to continue organizational participation" (Meyer et al., 2000; 320). Employees who believe that staying in the company is morally right, regardless of the status or happiness that the organization has afforded them over the years, form normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991; 66). It expresses a person's thoughts about their responsibility to remain in a company. These commitments are not for one's own benefit; rather, an individual reflects these behaviors because he considers everything, he has done

to be ethical and decent. The commitment that emerges because of socialization demonstrates a person's devotion to his or her job. Those with a strong normative commitment remain in their organizations just because they feel obligated to. When an individual feels loyal to his employer or responsible to work for the benefits that he receives from the organization (e.g., educational payments, skill training), normative commitment might rise as a result of the desire to repay the institution for the favors received (Meyer, 1993).

Personal difficulties, job-related issues, organizational issues, cultural influences, and things that arise from organizational commitment and job satisfaction have all been major topic matters in several studies. Most research findings reveal a favorable association between age, experience, and organizational commitment (Luthans, Baack, and Taylor 1987, p. 221.). Because they are more mature and have more experience in their organizations, Meyer et al. (1993) found that persons in their later years have a high affective connection to their organizations.

Employees can experience each of these psychological states to varied degrees. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment are best understood as disguisable components, rather than categories, of attitudinal commitment. Some employees, for example, may have a great need and obligation to stay but no desire to do so; others, on the other hand, may have neither a need for an obligation but a strong want to stay, and so on. As a result, the 'net sum' of an individual's commitment to the organization reflects each of these distinct psychological states.

2.3. Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

Many factors influence the concept of corporate commitment, which is the root of many employee behaviors. When looking at the literature on organizational commitment, it is clear that the factors that influence organizational commitment are characterized in a variety of ways.

In Northcraft and Neale's (1990) study, organizational factors were classified under three main headings. The factors affecting organizational commitment can be seen in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. *Factors affecting organizational commitment. (Northcraft and Neale, 1990, p.471)*

Personal Factors	Organizational Factors	Non-organizational factors
1. Job expectations 2. Psychological expectations 3. Personal characteristics	1. Nature and importance of the job 2. Supervision 3. Salary 4. Surveillance 5. Organizational culture 6. Organizational justice 7. Organizational awards 8. Teamwork 9. Role ambiguity and conflict	1. New job opportunities 2. Professionalism 3. Unemployment rate 4. Country's socioeconomic status 5. State of the industry

2.3.1. Personal factors

The link between personal factors and organizational commitment has been the subject of numerous research. It is widely acknowledged that personal qualities and organizational dedication have strong correlations. Personal considerations have a big role in accepting corporate goals and values and staying with the company for a long time. Personal elements, such as employment expectations, psychological contracts, and personal qualities, are relevant in this situation.

2.3.1.1. Job expectations

The individual's job is to realize his or her own needs and aspirations, and he or she has expectations regarding whether his or her job will help him or her reach these needs and goals. Organizational commitment is linked to the contract made between the employee and the organization under labor and market conditions. Organizations are frequently used by people to pursue personal goals in this relationship. As a result, organizational commitment is influenced by the ability and capacity of organizations to accomplish or serve these aims. A long-term contract entails adopting a well-defined task at the outset, which encourages behaviors such as sharing the organization's ideals and continuing a member (Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989, p. 267).

2.3.1.2. Psychological expectations

Psychological expectations begin to emerge from the first day the individual finds a job in the organization. The occurrence of expectations puts the parties under obligation and makes them dependent on each other. The correct perception of mutual commitments by the employees and the correct formation of the psychological contract are closely related to the accuracy of the information provided. In an organization, the fact that an individual believes in the existence of a certain psychological contract does not mean that the members of the other organization attribute the same meaning to the contract. Because every person has a different world that is different from other people in terms of feelings and thoughts (Atay, 2006, p.77).

2.3.1.3. Personal characteristics

Individual differences in age, gender, service time, and education have a variety of ramifications for organizational commitment. Personal attributes include variables such as age, gender, seniority, and educational level.

2.3.2. Organizational factors

2.3.2.1. Nature and importance of the job

Since the initial research on organizational commitment, the nature of the job has maintained its relevance and importance. In most studies on the subject, the link between organizational commitment and organizational qualities is shown to be very strong. While personal factors such as age, marital status, and education have a greater impact on lower-level employees' organizational commitment, organizational features have a greater impact on senior employees' commitment. Variables such as participation in choices, role ambiguity, and autonomy emerge as a more essential component in terms of commitment for such senior personnel (Cohen, 1992, p.539-554).

2.3.2.2. Management and Leadership

Williams and Hazer (1986) discovered that there is a link between organizational commitment and leadership. Managers' management and leadership styles have an impact on employees' dedication to the organization's aims and ideals. The more coercive and controlling senior management's attitude toward employees is, the more employees will

be restricted from expressing themselves and coming up with new ideas. As a result, top management's activities, which represent a key organ of the organization, might be considered one of the factors of employee commitment.

2.3.2.3. Salary

According to a study, one of the most crucial considerations in leaving a job is the income level (Byington & Johnston, 1991, p.3-10). Employees are forced to seek greater financial options due to low wages. In this instance, the employee does not feel dependent and believes he must work on a temporary basis. As a result, employee turnover in low-wage jobs is typically significant (Eren, 1993, p.271).

The more fair and balanced employees believe the organization's salary policy is, the more committed they will be (Ince & Gul, 2005, p.73). Non-wage financial benefits in the business, such as promotion possibilities, retirement pensions, and health benefits, will also be lost if you leave, promoting loyalty (Allen & Meyer 1990, p.710; Mottaz 1989, p.143).

2.3.2.4. Surveillance

Maguire and Ouchi (1975) found that oversight of the results of the work increased employee satisfaction. At this point, feedback is vital. Following the work behavior of employees and providing feedback on their performance without much intervention will increase their loyalty (Salancik, 1977, p.18).

2.3.2.5. Organizational culture

Organizational culture is another aspect that influences organizational commitment. A set of conventions, behaviors, values, beliefs, and habits that direct the behavior of employees inside an organization is known as organizational culture. People are given cues about what they should do and how they should act based on their culture. In other words, "organizational culture" refers to the "dominant values and beliefs that shape organization members' ideas and behaviors" (Dinçer, 1998, p.347).

2.3.2.6. Organizational justice

Organizational justice is a notion that encompasses the individual evaluation of employees' own outputs, the distribution of justice within the organization, and decision-makers following proper distribution processes (Altıntaş, 2002, p. 32).

It is the process of reviewing employee managerial decisions such as task distribution, working hours compliance, authorization, wage level, and reward distribution. Giving different wages to two newly recruited employees who have the same characteristics and perform similar tasks, for example, will lead the employee who receives low wages to believe that organizational justice is lacking in the institution, negatively affecting that person's organizational commitment (İnce & Gül, 2005, p.76-77).

2.3.2.7. Organizational awards

Awards have an important place in the development of organizational commitment. Non-personal rewards such as payments, non-wage ancillary income, progress in status, recognition, promotion, responsibility to start and finish a job or a project, or more flexible supervision also affect the employee's commitment (Keleş, 2006, p. 63).

It has been discovered that managers' ability in equitably distributing prizes is a factor that promotes employees' organizational commitment (Zahra, 1984, p. 19). Internal rewards (such as a respectable task and a friendly workplace in which the employee can find support) and financial benefits, according to Loscocco (1990, pp.152-177), influence organizational commitment.

2.3.2.8. Teamwork

The higher the organizational commitment of a team's members, the more common judgments they make. Employees will regard active engagement in the decision-making process, both individually and as part of a team, as an indicator that management values them. This will strengthen the company's commitment (Korsgaard et al., 1995, p.61).

2.3.2.9. Role ambiguity and conflict

Role conflict refers to the situation of incompatibility between the demands of different parties inside and outside the organization while the employee fulfills his/her duties within the organization (Katz and Kahn, 1977, p.202).

Role conflict can be attributed to the individual to some extent, while role ambiguity can be attributed to the organization. The existence of clearly defined tasks that provide satisfaction and pleasure when completed, according to Ince and Gül (2005, p.82), is a condition that role-related variables might favorably affect organizational commitment.

2.3.3. Non-organizational Factors

2.3.3.1. Professionalism

Professionalism is a concept related to commitment to the profession and it is an individual's identification with his profession, accepting and internalizing professional values (Ince & Gul, 2005, p. 84). If the organizations that professionals work with support their professional development, their professional commitment will be negatively affected and their organizational commitment will be positively affected (Gunz & Gunz, 1994, p.802).

2.3.3.2. New job opportunities

The most important non-organizational factor affecting a person's organizational commitment after starting work is the existence of new job opportunities. Alternative employment options are unquestionably linked not just to employees' personal skills but also to national and international variables such as the organization's industry, globalization, and the country's socioeconomic condition (Ince & Gül, 2005, p.85).

The paucity of fresh work options, according to academics, boosts organizational dedication (Gilbert and Ivancevich, 1999, p.385-397). Employees who believe they have less options and fewer options to acquire another employment are more committed to their organizations, according to Balay (2000, p.67). As a result, in times of economic crisis when work opportunities are few, it is reasonable to predict that employees' organizational commitment will increase.

2.4. Classification of Organizational Commitment

In this section, approaches that contribute to the organizational commitment literature will be examined.

2.4.1. Katz and Kahn's Approach

Organizational commitment, according to Katz and Kahn (1977), is the result of many reward-based circuits that encourage employees in an organizational setting to fulfill their tasks, i.e., to feel committed to the organization.

Employees' behaviors inside the system are influenced by a combination of internal and external incentives. The expressive circuit is represented by internal rewards, while the instrumental circuit is represented by external rewards. The distinction between expressive and instrumental circuits reveals the degree to which people are committed to the system. The expressive circuit is where it is genuinely enjoyable. The instrumental circuit is suggested when similar extrinsic benefits are motivated (Katz & Kahn, 1977).

2.4.2. Mowday's approach

Two different meanings of organizational commitment have been presented in Mowday's classification: attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment. Attitudinal commitment refers to an employee's dedication to the organization's objectives and readiness to work toward them. Employee commitment to behavioral activities leads to behavioral commitment (Dogan and Kılıç, 2007: 40).

It is seen that the areas of expertise of researchers who focus on attitudinal commitment by adopting the attitudinal approach are organizational behavior. According to this approach, commitment; It is an emotional reaction that occurs as a result of the individual's evaluation of the working environment and connects the individual to the organization. In other words, commitment is the relative strength of the individual's integration and participation in the organization (Clifford, 1989).

Staw and Salanick, on the other hand, have the following perspectives on attitudinal and behavioral commitment: Attitudinal commitment, according to Staw, is organizational members' identification with the organization's ideals and aims, as well as their desire to remain a member (Mowday et al., 1982: 24). Organizational commitment,

according to Salancik, is a condition of connection to employees' behaviors and beliefs that strengthen their activities and interest in the organization through their conduct.

2.4.3. Affective commitment approaches

According to the attitudinal commitment method, commitment is defined as the emotional state that links a person to a company, as well as the person's assessment of the workplace. To put it another way, commitment is the ability to integrate and participate in the business (Clifford, 1989: 144). Attitudinal commitment, according to Porter (1974), is the point at which the company's and individual's goals are linked. In contrast, according to Mowday (1982), attitudinal commitment is defined as an individual's connection to the organization not only for the business but also for himself, in addition to having an emotional commitment to the business's goals and ideals (Oguejiofor, 2012: 19-20). Attitudinal commitment arises when the individual's aspirations and the enterprise's goals are compatible, according to Mowday et al. (1979). As a result, attitudinal commitment refers to a relationship in which individuals align themselves with a company in exchange for specific benefits and costs.

According to this method, dedication is measured as a reflection of the qualitative and quantitative relationship between the employee and the company. Commitment to the business should be based on the individual's perspective on the business in the attitudinal approach. In many circumstances, it is assumed that the employees' values and aims are similar to the company's values and goals (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 61).

In the affective commitment approach, it focuses on the situations that will increase the organizational commitment of the person and deals with the consequences of attitudinal behavior. This situation is as in Figure 2.1

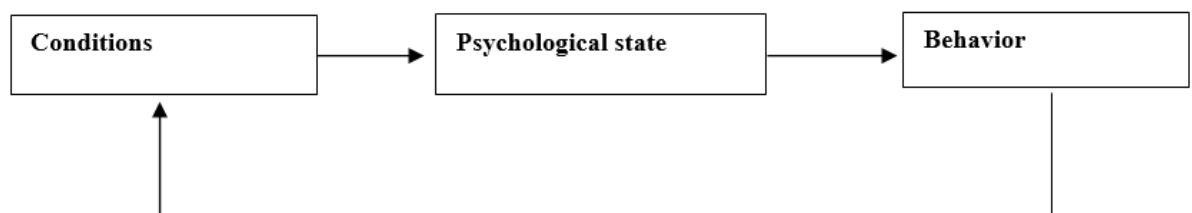


Figure 2.1. *Affective commitment cycle (Meyer&Allen, 1991)*

Figure 2.1 shows how continuous lines (leaving or choosing) affect an individual's psychological state (feeling and belief in the business), resulting in behavior. Broken lines, on the other hand, have an impact on conditions that cause an individual's psychology to alter or remain the same (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 62).

The affective commitment approach also includes many approaches within itself. One of them is the Kanter approach.

2.4.3.1. Kanter approach

Organizational commitment, according to Kanter (1968: 499), can be split into several groups based on behavioral demands. Organizational commitment, according to Kanter, will be classified into three categories: continuity commitment, merger commitment, and control commitment.

Continuance Commitment: This is defined as an individual's commitment to the company by continuing to work there. Individuals who leave their occupations incur various costs. This implies that the person will not leave the company despite making sacrifices. As a result, the individual will not be able to detach himself from the work in the business's continuity, and a continuous commitment will be developed.

Merger Commitment: It is defined as an individual's sense of belonging to a group if they have positive relationships with other employees and coworkers in their organization. If a person feels that he belongs to a group, he will communicate effectively and be satisfied. The individual will be attached to the organization as a result of their satisfaction (Samadov, 2006: 77).

Control Commitment: It is the attachment of the behavior and attitudes of the employees to the enterprise by shaping them at the desired level. Control commitment occurs when employees adopt the norms and values of the enterprise in their activities within the enterprise.

Internal and external incentive, according to Katz and Kahn (1977), are the two phases that will assure employees' organizational commitment to accomplishing their obligations, and that employees will demonstrate their success based on these two prizes. The semantic circuit is represented by intrinsic reward, while the instrumental circuit is represented by extrinsic reward. This distinction between semantic and instrumental

denotes the level of commitment that individuals have to the system. Intrinsic incentive is tied to an employee's values and needs as they relate to the company they work for. Individuals perform their tasks, salaries, being satisfied with other people functioning in the firm, or fulfilling them with other thoughts in an instrumental circuit interaction.

2.4.3.2. O'Reilly and Chatman's approach

Organizational commitment can be studied from a variety of perspectives, according to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986: 493), yet these perspectives are connected on specific grounds. They divided organizational commitment into three categories: compliance commitment, identification commitment, and internalization commitment.

Compliance Commitment: It is stated that tools such as externally derived rewards are beneficial in achieving this commitment. The employee's behavior, sacrifice, and cooperation are the most essential characteristics that bind an individual to a firm. In other words, as long as the employee receives the prize, he will continue to work for the company.

Identification Commitment: People look for self-satisfying factors in the workplace. In this sense, the individual recognizes the enterprise's worth and accomplishments while also feeling proud of himself for working for it.

Internalization: This form of devotion is totally based on the individual's personal values and the company's principles. When a company's ideals and an individual's values are in sync, the individual feels a sense of commitment to the organization.

Following O'Reilly and Chatman, researchers focused on several challenges with commitment groups. To begin with, distinguishing between internalization and identification commitments is challenging. Furthermore, it has been debated whether making such a separation in practical terms is acceptable, even though the commitments of adaptation, identification, and internalization are distinct (Nwadei, 2003: 24).

2.4.3.3. Etzioni's approach

Etzioni was the first person to classify commitment in 1961, and he was widely acknowledged as the first person to do so. Etzioni classified companies based on their individual participation in the business rather than organizational commitment.

According to Etzioni (1975), employees' integration with the business is due to the business's authority and obligations within the individuals. He divided organizational commitment into three categories from this perspective. Moral commitment, calculative commitment, and alienating commitment are the three types.

Moral Commitment: This is a sort of commitment that guides employees toward achieving corporate goals. Moral commitment, according to Newton and Shore (1992: 276), is the form of commitment that corporations seek to achieve. Employees with this high level of dedication regard themselves as valuable members of the company's workforce and perform their tasks as a result of these feelings (Gümüş and Sezgin, 2012, p.93).

Calculatory Commitment: This is a commitment based on the company's and its employees' exchanges. Individuals develop loyalty as a result of the compensation they receive in exchange for their contributions to the companies for which they work (Doğan and Kılıç, 2007: 38). Economic grounds underpin calculated commitment. As a result, the psychological or emotional component is lacking. The more economic rewards there are, the more loyalty increases (Seymen, 2008, p.167).

Alienating Commitment: It is the compelled continuance of an individual's employment in a company when the company punishes or views the employee's behavior as bad. When employees' activities are limited, and the employee continues to work despite the damage to his psychological attachment to the company, a situation like this can arise (Güney, 2000, p.89).

Etzioni identified three primary forces: coercive, utilitarian, and prescriptive, which enable employees to accept the company's regulations and demonstrate attitudes that satisfy the company's expectations. Individuals are threatened as a result of coercive authority. Prisoners, psychiatric and mental health hospitals, and military groups, for example, are supervised, controlled, and compelled. Remuneration is the primary premise of utilitarian power, and raises, social benefits, and premiums link the individual to the organization. The power here is purely built on utility, and if these fees are not paid, the loyalty is lost. Prescriptive authority, on the other hand, is linked to moral reconciliation. (Goren, 2012, p.46)

2.4.3.4. Allen and Meyer's approach

Organizational commitment has been defined as an emotional commitment in most research on organizational commitment, as mentioned by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), and it has been argued that employees feel committed to the extent that they adopt the values and goals of their organizations. Organizational commitment is characterized in other research as a commitment that develops as a result of employees' investments in their organizations (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Ritzer and Trice, 1969: cited in Wasti, 2000). Organizational commitment, according to this perspective, is established by the worry that gains such as the effort, time, and effort that an employee has spent while working in the organization, such as status and money, will be lost if he leaves the organization. Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed a model that includes these two types of organizational commitment, "Emotional commitment" was characterized as the first form of commitment, while "continuance commitment" was identified as the second. Later, they added a third component to this paradigm, termed as "normative or moral commitment," which was first proposed by Weiner and Vardi (1980): cited in Wasti, 2000).

It is a psychological condition that (a) defines the employee's relationship with the organization and (b) includes decisions to continue or not to join the organization, according to the common view in these three methods. Apart from these components, it is clear that the psychological nature of these three frameworks is vastly different. Employees who have a strong affective commitment stay in the organization because they want to, employees who have a strong continuance commitment stay in the organization because they need to, and employees who have a strong normative commitment stay in the organization because they believe it is necessary (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p.67). Employees may experience these three characteristics of commitment at varied levels, according to the concept. Meyer and Allen assumed that each element of commitment creates different experiences and outcomes (Meyer and Allen, 1991, p. 67). Employees demonstrate this level of dedication because they believe it is appropriate and ethical. Continuance commitment stems from an employee's desire to stay with the company because of the personal investments he or she has made. Close social relationships with coworkers, retirement benefits, seniority, career, and specific abilities earned during years of service in an organization are all examples of these investments. Furthermore, the fear

of missing better work chances abroad contributes to this commitment. These three components of commitment describe a psychological condition that binds employees to a company and determines their decision to stay or quit. A person with affective commitment believes that he or she wants to stay in the company, while someone with continuation commitment believes that he or she should stay in the company. (Meyer and Allen, 1990: 3). In other words, "desire" (emotional), "need" (continuity), and "duty" (normative) are used to analyze this circumstance (Meyer, Allen, 1991: 61). Affective, continuity, and normative commitment are considered as distinguishing characteristics of commitment rather than kinds. Employees in this situation are exposed to each of these components at variable rates (Wasti, 2003, p.303).

Affective Commitment: in some sources, emotional commitment is also referred to as attitudinal commitment. Individuals' work lives and emotional reactions are investigated in emotional commitment. Individuals who hold to their work more are linked to their coworkers' commitment, current job, and profession. When looked at as a concept, it encompasses people's emotional reactions to the organizations they work for, as well as their identification with the organization and a holistic perspective to the organization. Employees are found not because they have to stay in the business, but because they want to stay in the firm, thanks to their high level of emotional commitment. Employees have a sense of identification with the company, as well as integration with the company's values and aims. In addition, the concept of organizational participation is stated as individuals' satisfaction with the organization they work for and their active participation in the organization. Joining the organization means being in active communication with the employees in the enterprise (Doğan & Kılıç, 2007).

Continuance Commitment: This is the dimension of commitment that is concerned with an individual's economic interests. Employees in this dimension view staying in the company as a necessity, taking into consideration the costs and investments they have made in the company over the course of their employment. In other words, continuation commitment refers to employees' willingness to remain working despite the numerous costs they will incur if they leave their companies. Individuals' inability to locate another employment, their lack of knowledge of job-related requirements, health issues, family obligations, retirement status, and financial worries are all variables that influence their willingness to continue (Demirel, 2008, p.181).

Individuals who feel accountable for the firm they work for and wish to stay devoted to it are said to have normative commitment. This is referred to as normative commitment. Individuals put moral principles over personal interests in this dimension of commitment. The normative commitment is influenced by the person's previous experiences (Güney, 2011, p.289).



Figure 2.2. Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment.

Individuals wish to stay in their organizations at the level of emotional commitment, according to Allen and Mayer, when organizational commitment is evaluated in general. Individuals that have a continuous commitment continue in the institutions where they work because they require it. Individuals who adhere to normative commitment remain in the institution where they work because they believe they are required to do so (Wasti, 2005, p.291).

2.4.3.5. Penley and Gould's approach

The classification of Penley and Gould is based on Etzioni's (1961) concept of organizational participation. Etzioni is predicated on the fact that he combines both instrumental and affective kinds of commitment for organizational participation (Eker, 2006, p. 22).

Etzioni's (1961) model of organizational involvement is acceptable in terms of conceptualizing organizational commitment, according to Penley and Gould (1988, p.45), although this model does not receive enough attention in the literature. The model's intricacy is one of the reasons for this. Moral and alienating emotional participations are represented in the model. However, it is unclear if these conceptions are mutually exclusive or conflicting. If they are inverse of each other, the concept of alienating participation will not be necessary, because alienating participation would be the negative of moral participation. Penley and Gould (1988: 45) consider these two forms of participation as independent concepts. In this case, the opposite of moral participation is not alienating participation, but the absence of moral participation (İlsev, 1997, p.18).

The macro characteristic of Etzioni's commitment model (İlsev, 1997: 19) is another reason the model does not receive enough attention. Unlike Kanter, Etzioni believes that in businesses, a single compliance system and the type of commitment relevant to that system might be acceptable. Different compliance methods and types of commitment, on the other hand, might coexist in organizations. At this point, Penley and Gould suggest that in companies, several compliance systems and commitment types can coexist (Penley and Gould, 1988, pp. 45-46).

The commitment techniques of Penley and Gould are based on the flaws in Etzioni's work. As a result, they claim that three types of commitment can coexist in organizations, contrary to Etzioni's findings. The type of organizational commitment, in which the organization is recognized as a tool, and the type of emotional commitment are addressed separately in the literature, and the two cannot be realized together, according to the literature. According to Penley and Gould, these two sorts of commitment can coexist (Penley and Gould, 1988, p.52). Organizational commitment types, on the other hand, have various connections with different variables, according to Penley and Gould (1988: 48-49). Maintaining membership, for example, is an example of moral commitment. It includes behaviors such as being overly fond of one's work, working outside of working hours or on weekends, or carrying work home (Gould & Penley, 1984).

2.4.3.6. Wiener's approach

Wiener (1982) took an alternative approach to organizational commitment. Sardede and Doyuran (2004) defined organizational commitment as "all of the normative demands that meet the purpose and areas of the firm." In connection to the individual's commitment to organizational commitment, he proposed a theoretical model that separated instrumental motivation and organizational commitment (normative-moral). Individual utilitarianism, according to Wiener, is expressed as instrumental motivation focused on individual interests and interests. He classified motivation as normative-moral when it was founded on an individual's moral values. Individual moral and normative benefits expose internalized constraints and allow employees to behave in ways that support the company's goals and objectives (Newton and Shore, 1992, p. 277).

When an employee signs an instrumental commitment, the company expects the employee to benefit the company after the individual has met his or her basic needs. If the exchange connection is balanced or on the employer's side, the employees' commitment will be maintained. An employee with a high level of normative commitment feels emotionally connected to the company he works for and internalizes its ideals (Erdoğan, 2006: 38). Wiener underlined the importance of sharing corporate value perspectives and building employee loyalty and responsibility to form organizational commitment at this time (Balay, 2014, pp.26-27).

2.4.4. Behavioral commitment approaches

Employee behavior is seen as a crucial factor in determining a company's commitment to its mission. People act in accordance with their past life behaviors, according to this theory. To put it another way, behavioral commitment develops in response to the actions of persons outside the firm. As a result, people continue to behave in the workplace in the same manner. Furthermore, people's investments in the company are a critical component in the development of behavioral commitment (Shepherd and Mathews, 2000, p.556).

Meyer and Allen (1991) showed the course of behavioral commitment as in Figure 2.3.

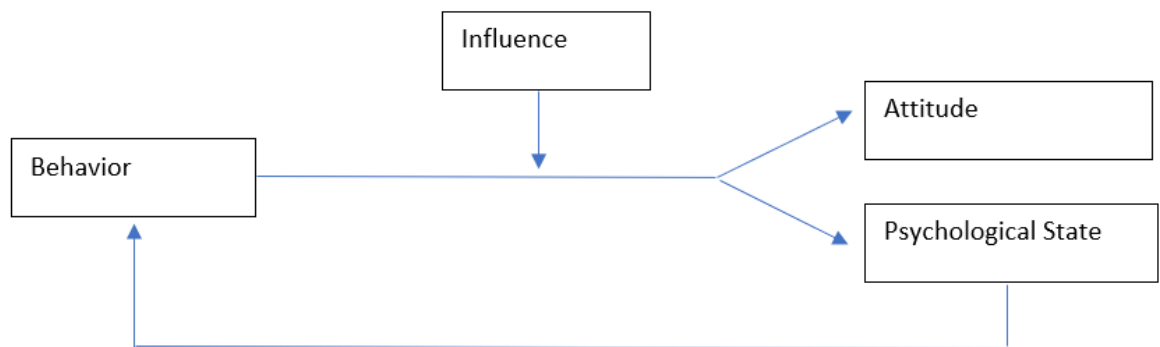


Figure 2.3. *Behavioral Perspective (Meyer and Allen, 1991)*

Starting from Figure 2.3, an external influence can come to the behavior of individuals. With this effect, the attitude and psychological state of the individuals emerge. This turns into a behavior again.

Behavioral commitment is the behaviors such as not leaving the institution where the individual works, being willing to stay in the institution and not being absent (Gül, 2002: 47).

There are generally two different approaches to the behavioral commitment dimension. These are "Becker's approach" and "Salancik's approach".

2.4.4.1. Salancik's approach to organizational commitment

According to Salancik and Staw, social psychologists and behavioral scientists have various perspectives on organizational commitment. Individuals' desire to internalize their attitudes about the firm and stay within the business, according to Salancik and Staw, is referred to as organizational behavior. Attitudinal commitment is also a term used to describe this circumstance. At this moment, attitudinal commitment is not regarded as the psychological factors that drive an employee to commit to a company. Employees' desire to internalize the firm's values and judgements, as well as their desire to continue in the enterprise, are two distinct elements of commitment. As a result, Salancik and Staw regarded behavioral scientists as just describing organizational commitment as the basic expression of these two dimensions (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1983).

According to Salancik, organizational commitment is achieved when behaviors and attitudes are in sync. When an individual's actions and attitudes are incompatible,

tension and stress are created. Salancik stressed that not all behaviors should be assessed equally. Only a few individual attributes contribute to organizational commitment (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981, p.560). Commitment, according to Salancik, is "a condition of being to which an individual is bound by his deeds." In contrast to attitudinal commitment, Salancik's commitment strategy is guided by the individual's desire to be psychologically consistent in various ways, rather than objections to the incentives he receives. In this way, the individual grows as part of the process by defending his own actions (Oliver, 1990, p.20).

2.4.4.2. Becker's Side-Bet approach

Becker defined organizational commitment by linking it with the expenses that may arise if an employee leaves the company, and he claimed that these costs are what keep employees loyal to the company. He referred to these expenses as "side bets," which he defined as the accumulation of an employee's investments in the workplace (Cohen, 2007).

A worker working in a business believes that he has invested in the company during the period he has worked there, according to Becker. As a result, he believes he earns this investment through side earnings such as social security and a pension. Because the employee believes he has lost his independence as a result of these investments, he will feel compelled to stay with the company. As a result, if he quits his work, he will avoid losing money since he believes he will lose these investments (Col, 2004, p. 58).

Becker's side-betting strategy centered on the expenditures that would be incurred if employees left the company. Employee investments, according to Becker, are a motivation not to leave their positions (Swales, 2004, p. 188). The behavioral technique is used to assess this scenario. Meyer and Allen claimed that, contrary to popular belief, the side bet strategy should be treated as part of the attitude strategy. They claim that side-betting occurs when decisions concerning a behavior have an impact on interests unrelated to that behavior. As the number of side bets grows, so does the level of commitment from individuals (Ritzer and Trice, 1969: 475).

The sources of side bets that drive employees to exhibit commitment, according to Becker (İlsev, 1997: 31-34), include as follows. These:

Expectations in society: He may take some side bets that limit his behavior due to the social and moral consequences of the society to which he belongs. Such societal constraints can be demonstrated by demonstrating that people who change employment frequently are not considered as trustworthy in society.

Arrangements with the government: Bureaucratic arrangements are the second source of side bets. Consider the case of a person whose pension is deducted a particular amount each month. When this person wants to leave the job, he will see that the amount deducted from his salary during his service period has reached a large amount. This bureaucratic arrangement regarding the pension put the person on a side bet. Because if he leaves the organization, he will lose this money, which has been deducted from his pension for years and which he is entitled to and will not be able to receive a pension.

Social interactions: Becker's side bet on social interactions is one of his side bets. When a person is involved in a relationship with others, he forms an idea about himself. He must act in conformity with this opinion to avoid spoiling it. For example, if a person has proven himself to be trustworthy, he should not lie so that his trustworthiness in his word is not jeopardized. He will establish a commitment to honest behavior in this scenario.

Roles in society: Side bets can also arise as a result of a person becoming accustomed to and adapting to the social context in which he finds himself. In such a situation, the person has become so accustomed to fulfilling the requirements of the social role he is in that he will no longer be able to adapt to another role.

According to Becker, the side's bets and investments in the mentioned sources have increased over time. As a result, the person's age and seniority are considered as the primary markers of the investments made. As a result, as a person's age and seniority rise, so will his investments, making it more difficult for him to leave the company.

2.4.5. Multidimensional commitment

According to Reichers, in the concept of multiple commitment, one person's commitment is different from another's commitment. Employee loyalty occurs in this regard when the company creates and gives reasonable rates for goods or services. The

commitment of another person is linked to the business's humanitarian ideas (Balay, 2000).

Businesses are often viewed as one and the same by engagement theorists. According to Reichers (1986), the individual's attachment to the corporate structure displays a whole in commitment. According to Reichers, individuals who formed the organization theory highlighted many different values of the services that the members of the organization attempted to provide, but they did not emphasize the character of the organization enough. Indeed, organizational nature is important to the varied commitments of individuals in groups inside the organization, all of which are aligned with these groups' goals. Individuals will establish various forms of commitments to the organization they work for, their profession, their bosses, and their coworkers, according to this viewpoint. Therefore, it is necessary to establish groups related to the business to identify multi-loyalty. These groups are employees, managers, customers, unions. Businesses generally serve the purpose of more than one group, not a single group. (Gül, 2003, p. 50).

3. ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

It is accepted that the first studies on organizational culture started in the 1930s. With the human relations movement, human resources in organizations were emphasized, and attention was drawn to issues such as informal group, group norms, symbols, organizational values. In this section, an extensive literature review about the conceptual framework of organizational culture has been made and will be explained in detail in the sub-titles.

When the literature on organizational culture is examined, firstly the concept of culture is discussed and the explanations of organizational culture, which is considered as a subset of culture, are passed. This is the right approach; but it is missing. However, organizational culture should be considered from a triple perspective as “organization”, “culture” and “organizational culture”: First, when organizational culture is mentioned, there is a limitation to the organization in scope. It should be determined what the organization is and what should be understood from the organization when it is said. Secondly, the concept of culture is broader and more difficult to define than the concept of organization; It should be considered separately from the concept of organization and

organizational culture. It is difficult to fully comprehend organizational culture without knowing what culture is, its elements and characteristics. Thirdly, organizational culture is a combination of the concepts of culture and organization and has its own characteristics, functions and elements. For this reason, the concept of organizational culture should be examined separately from the concepts of organization and culture.

There is a huge organizational science literature on the functions, elements and classifications of organizations. Considering the boundaries of the subject area, what should be understood from the definition of the organization will be sufficient. According to Daft, an organization is a social entity that is oriented towards a specific goal, is planned and structured in advance, designed as coordinated activity systems, and has a relationship with the external environment (Daft, 2004:11). While March and Simon define the organization as a kind of social structure in which there are relations between its members (March & Simon, 1958:262), Etzioni sees the organization as social units established to achieve certain goals (Etzioni, 1964:121). Lewis also defines an organization as a consciously coordinated social entity with a definable boundary that works continuously to achieve a common goal or set of goals (Earl-Lewis, 1999:15).

While Schein (1970) defines the organization as the rational coordination of the activities of people coming together for the achievement of common goal or goals by subjecting certain jobs to division within a hierarchy of authority and responsibility, Barnard is a system of consciously coordinated activities and forces of two or more individuals. defines it as (Barnard, 1945, p.178; Mano, 1994, p.14). Accordingly, while Schein emphasizes the hierarchy and division of labor; Barnard, on the other hand, consciously sees it as a system in which a group realizes a common goal.

3.1. Definition of Culture, Organization and Organizational Culture

3.1.1. Culture

Understanding how culture influences organizational behavior necessitates a detailed understanding of the idea of culture. Culture, according to Schein (1992), has a rich and colorful history as a notion. Even though it is a well-studied notion, researchers on the issue cannot agree on a definition. Culture, in general, can be defined as a way of life for a group of people. Culture, on the other hand, is tough to define in a single word because it is such a broad notion. More than 250 definitions of culture were used in the

anthropology literature in Kroeber and Kluckhohn's investigation in 1952. (Francesco and Gold, p.1998).

"Culture is a complex whole consisting of knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, and other practices and habits acquired by the members of a society," Tylor wrote in 1871. (Francesco and Gold 1998). Ferraro (1994) defines culture as "everything a person has, thinks, and does as a part of a society." Culture, according to Cohen, is the expression of people's values, assumptions, and beliefs (Alvesson and Berg, 1992).

Culture pervades many aspects of daily life and is a relatively stable phenomenon (Newman & Nollen, 1996). Because culture is such an important element of man, defining one's own culture can be difficult; culture is seen as a natural phenomenon and the only way of doing things by the members of the society to which it belongs (Francesco and Gold, 1998, p. 20).

Another definition of culture is "a sense of belonging to a group" (Goffee and Jones, 1996). Culture emerges from people's interactions with one another. Within the family, in the city where people live, in schools, and in groups and organizations, communities are formed. Because organizations, like families, communities, schools, and groups, rely on social relationships to survive. Unions are built on common interests and mutual obligations, and they try to achieve success through friendship and cooperation (Goffee & Jones, 1996).

Culture is important for individuals, institutions and societies. We can list the characteristics of culture as follows:

- Culture is social.
- Culture is learned.
- Culture is symbolic systems.
- Culture is a system of rules.
- Culture is integrative.
- Culture is continuous and transmitted.
- Culture changes.

- Culture is satisfactory.
- Culture is an adaptive mechanism

Language, religion, and beliefs, values, norms, symbols, attitudes, rituals and traditions, laws, and moral precepts are all variables that contribute to culture.

Language: Language is, without a doubt, the most significant aspect of civilization. Language is one of the most significant tools for passing down all aspects of culture from one generation to the next.

Values: Values are concepts and ideas produced by shared and important feelings that define persons, societies, and other entities. People's attitudes and behaviors are governed by values, which are criteria or standards.

Religion and beliefs: Religion and beliefs are one of the most essential aspects of culture. Religion is one of the most essential factors in the formation of people's common beliefs and feelings. Belief, on the other hand, ensures that human knowledge and perceptions continue.

Norms: Norms are the rules, measures, or commands that persons in specific roles must follow. Cultural norms are made up of cultural ideals that dictate what is acceptable and wrong, as well as how individuals act.

Attitudes: The spiritual part of culture is formed by attitudes. Attitudes must be taken into account since they enable conduct to be predicted and controlled.

Symbols: Symbols elicit emotions and give life to concepts. There is no such thing as a society without symbols, and language is nothing more than a system of symbols made up of sounds and signs. Certain emblems represent the unity of societies. Consider the flag.

Laws: Laws are the formal consequences used to penalize those who behave against tradition, as determined by the society's authorized authority. Laws and customs vary in that they are developed deliberately and willingly and then implemented.

Moral rules: These are the rules that govern how people interact with one another in social situations. The penal sanction is moral in the case of non-compliance with the moral rules. In society, there may be instances of shame and humiliation. The extent to

which a person can afford to be embarrassed and degraded in society determines whether he follows moral principles.

Customs & customs: In society, various norms govern people's daily lives, movements, and behaviors.

So yet, the only definitions of culture that have been proposed are those that deal with the notion from an anthropological standpoint. The term "culture" is used in this study to refer to the idea of "culture," which has its roots in the psychological anthropology tradition. In other words, the cognitive anthropology approach's concept of culture will be employed. From this standpoint, Philips' definition of culture is:

"Assumptions held by a group of individuals and distinctive to that group." These assumptions serve as a road map for developing appropriate perceptions, ideas, feelings, and behaviors. Without the group members' knowledge, assumptions are accepted, learned, and passed on to new members" (Sackmann, 1991:297).

When we examine the subject from a cognitive standpoint, we can see that revealing the cognitive aspects that activate perception, thinking, feeling, and conduct, as well as the basis of assumptions and beliefs, is critical to comprehending the concept of "culture" (Sackmann, 1991). Understanding the fundamental assumptions is critical to comprehending culture (Schein, 1992). "The prevailing opinion in the organizational behavior literature is that cognitive components are at the heart of culture" (Hofstede, 1980; Schein, 1992).

3.1.2. Organization and culture

The idea of culture and the theory of organization meet at five points, according to Smircich (1983). The first of these crossroads concerns "comparative management." As a result, culture is a stand-alone variable. Culture lives on in the people who make up an organization. The attitude and conduct of members are influenced by the culture that enters the organization through its members. "Organizational culture" is the second site of interaction between culture and organizational theory. Researchers who believe that the organization is a culture-forming phenomenon agree with this viewpoint. Organizations develop cultural artifacts such as rituals, tales, and ceremonies because they are considered as social tools that produce commodities and services. Even though

the organization is surrounded by a large culture, academics who hold this viewpoint emphasize the importance of the sociocultural features that the organization generates within itself. Culture is viewed as the social glue that ties an organization together, expressing the shared values, social ideals, and beliefs of its members. Culture is an internal organizational variable, according to this viewpoint.

Even though comparative management and organizational culture are two distinct concepts, they are complementary. Both perspectives begin with similar assumptions about society, organization, and human nature. According to comparative management, "culture" is a deciding force that is part of the environment, but "culture" is a product of human action, according to the second view. "Organizational cognition" is the third point of interaction between culture and organizational studies. To put it another way, it's critical to comprehend the principles that govern how individuals of a culture perceive and define their surroundings. In conclusion, individuals should be aware of the regulations that govern them.

Another point of convergence is "organizational symbolism." Culture is viewed as a system of common symbols and meanings in this perspective. The organization is thus characterized as a shape made up of symbolic discourses. To be comprehended, the organization must be interpreted, read, and decrypted. This sort of organizational analysis is concerned with how people perceive and comprehend their experiences, as well as how this interpretation and comprehension connects to action. "Subconscious processes and organization" is the last point of intersection. Culture is used in this context to represent the psychological processes that occur in a person's subconscious. The goal of culture research is to uncover the human brain's latent universal characteristics (Smircich 1983).

In summary, Smircich (1983) claims that the idea of culture and organizational theory interact at five points. The development of models of beliefs and attitudes, as well as the exploration of management methods in different nations, are critical for individuals working in comparative management. Employees who work in organizational culture aim to define the aspects of the culture and the relationships between them, as well as analyze their effects on organizational processes and outcomes. Organizational cognition sees the company as a collection of concepts. The interpretation and understanding of the created symbolic activities are crucial for those working on organizational symbolism. Finally, structural anthropologists have inspired organizational theorists to underline the

significance of subconscious processes established or implemented by organizations. It would not be wrong to say that the last three research topics have a more subjective orientation. The purpose of investigating the five intersections in the study may be different, but although culture is an organizational variable, a metaphor used to conceptualize the organization focuses on the irrational, impressive and meaningful features of the organization.

3.1.3. Definition of organizational culture

Organizational culture is an interdisciplinary research subject that draws on ideas, viewpoints, models, and methodologies from other fields. The origins of organizational culture studies are founded on sociology, according to Ouchi and Wilkins (1985), but the issue is primarily discussed by organizational researchers. The idea of organizational culture, which is defined as the junction of various disciplines, has a wide range of definitions (Alvesson, Berg 1992).

The idea of "culture" utilized in this study is based on psychological anthropology's tradition of culture. In anthropology, this approach is known as the cognitive perspective (Sackmann 1991b). From a cognitive standpoint, Mintzberg (1989) defines organizational culture as follows:

“ Every company has a culture that outlines how it does business. What we're talking about here is a more specific culture — a set of deeply ingrained values and ideas that serve to set one business apart from another. I prefer to refer to it as ideology. Of course, in the organizational sense, not in the political sense, the ideological group produces "state" and "environment" in order to generate a form of "chemistry." We talk about 'style,' 'culture,' and 'character' in organizations. When you go into IBM's workplace, you get a distinct, distinctive feeling. 'Chemistry' of Hewlett-Packard, Texas, despite the fact that they both operate in related businesses. It's not the same as Instruments. All of these words are used to describe an intangible yet actual object. As a result, what we refer to as ideology is essentially a physical component of the organization. Ideology, in particular, is used to describe the deep system of values and beliefs shared by the organization's members and to distinguish the organization from others. The ideology's unifying force is the most important attribute for our aims. It establishes a link between employees and the organization and fosters "mission

consciousness." By merging individual and organizational goals, it can produce a synergy effect.''

Organizational culture is made up of beliefs and values that are shared by all members of the organization and are mutually understood and respected. Organizational culture envisions what is required and desirable, as well as the goals to be pursued and how they should be pursued. It also envisions aims and behaviors that are incorrect, superfluous, and unwanted, and should not be pursued or resisted when presented by others (Beach 1998).

Not only do managers' activities within the organization effect culture, but so do decisions about the firm's environment and strategy. "The common views of managers about how to manage themselves and their staff and how to run their organization," says Lorsch (1986). Organizational culture is defined by organizational researchers as the common assumptions, priorities, meanings, and values of its members. To put it another way, it's a set of ideals that everyone in the company shares. Members of the company have varying levels of sensitivity to the demands, expectations, conditions, and challenges they face at work. Members utilize culture as a tool to arrange their experiences in relation to their surroundings. From this point of view, it would not be wrong to say that organizational culture acts as a social glue within the organization and between the departments of the organization" (Alvesson and Berg 1992).

People with diverse values may adopt similar practices in an organization, but it depends on the structure and the managers. Organizational culture is based on learnt and shared practices at a person's job, according to various scholars. Again, some researches differ from what is used in the nation of origin of the companies in other countries. They claim to follow management culture's behaviors. Because management rules must be compatible with other aspects of people's lives in society, such as those outside of the workplace (for example, human resource management policies) (Fleury, 2009, p. 3).

The assumptions, ideas, and values adopted by the members of the organization are also included in Schein's (1992) definition of culture. Culture has two basic functions, according to Schein's concept. These are intended to ensure group cohesiveness in the internal environment as well as harmony in the external environment. The group's endeavor to stereotype and integration is shown in the construction of culture. Culture is

a group's collective learning; nevertheless, the content of this learning is difficult to articulate. At this time, each group is dealing with two major issues. These are 1) survival, growth, and adaptation to the external environment; 2) everyday work is carried out and adapted through internal integration. "Culture is the way a group learns when solving problems related to external cohesion and internal integration, which is well-founded and works well enough to prove its validity, thus providing new members with the correct ways of perceiving, thinking, and feeling about problems," according to Schein. It's a pattern of common fundamental assumptions" (Schein 1992, p.12).

The underlying assumptions shared, agreed, and approved by the members of the organization or group are highlighted in this description. Every organization with a fixed membership and a shared learning background will have established some degree of culture with this knowledge. Similarly, groups or organizations whose members and leaders change frequently and lack a shared history will lack shared assumptions. As a result, expecting every human community to generate culture is not a rational strategy. Human societies must have a similar past and have common assumptions to be considered a community (Schein, 1992, p. 15)

Organizational culture can be defined as a set of important values, beliefs, and understandings that all members share. Culture is a component that helps managers make decisions and arrange activities by providing better (or optimal) ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving. A strong culture is required for a successful organization to recruit, retain, and reward individuals to perform roles and achieve goals. Strong cultures, on the other hand, are defined by dedication and cooperation in the pursuit of common goals (Sun, 2008, p. 137).

3.2. Main Characteristics of Organizational Culture

The characteristics of organizational culture are revealed in different ways. According to Newstrom and Davis, organizational culture is distinctive. Organizational culture has a stable structure and has been accepted by the members of the organization. It is intelligible without being expressed, it is symbolic and integrative. It is a reflection of top management (Newstrom & Davis, 1993:59). According to Hampden Turner, organizational culture has ten basic features (Hampden-Turner, 1990, p. 12):

- Individuals integrate organizational culture.

- Organizational culture is a reward for excellence.
- Organizational culture is a set of approval processes.
- Cultural affirmations tend to be self-actualizing.
- Organizational culture provides unity of thought and meaning.
- Organizational culture provides identity and continuity to its members.
- Organizational culture is in balance with opposing values.
- Organizational culture is a cybernetic system.
- Organizational culture is a model that emerges over time.
- Organizational culture provides and facilitates organizational communication.

3.3. Elements of Organizational Culture

The characteristics of organizational culture can be characterized in a variety of ways because organization and culture have such various connotations. Values, conventions, and cultural patterns are some of the characteristics that are widely recognized (Klosowska 2007). The main elements listed below, however, are included in other sources (Schein 2010):

- Cultural values,
- Basic assumptions,
- Social and organizational norms,
- Ways of communication, stories, narratives, myths and metaphors,
- Organizational stereotypes,
- Rituals, symbols,
- Organization heroes,
- Taboo, cultural patterns
- Cultural artifacts,
- Subculture

The three primary factors covered within the scope of this study will be briefly examined in the following sections.

3.3.1. Organizational values

Values reflect the fact that key organizations have fundamental values that are essential. These values, according to Morgan, can serve as guiding principles for all members of the organization's behavior (1999).

Sulkowski (2012) defines the organization's basic principles as "creativity, humor, integrity, dedication, mutual respect, kindness, and contribution to society."

3.3.2. Organizational beliefs

Organizational culture might contain attitudes about the best approaches to attain certain goals, such as productivity and job motivation, according to Sherman (1989). An organization may believe that using comedy in the workplace is a good method to boost productivity and motivation.

3.3.3. Organizational norms

Norms in an organization indicate typical and accepted behavior. These norms might reflect the organization's ideals and views (Koskowska 2007). They can consider how particular jobs are anticipated to be completed in general, the work environment's characteristics, the typical methods individuals communicate in the organization, and the organization's typical leadership styles. A company's working environment can be described as easygoing, joyful, and enjoyable. (Source: Sukowski, 2012).

3.4. Models of Organizational Culture

It is known that there are many models developed for organizational culture in the literature. Some of these models are discussed below.

3.4.1. Deal and Kennedy's Organizational Culture Model

Deal and Kennedy argued that the environment has a great influence not only on organizational structure but also on organizational culture. As a result of their research, they considered organizations in four cultural dimensions. While making this classification, they focused on two criteria. The first criterion is the degree of

environmental uncertainty regarding the strategic decisions of the organization, and the second criterion is the rate of feedback obtained from the environment towards the success of the decisions taken by the organization (Daft, 1991, p. 79). The types of cultures that emerged depending on these criteria are as follows;

Tough Guy/Macho culture: This type of culture is seen in structures that take high risks and provide quick feedback, and where employees do not have much time to reason about the correctness of their decisions. The structure of police or military organizations are suitable examples for this culture. Because in military and police organizations, decisions are made by making choices between life and death. Decision-making bodies are quickly informed about the accuracy of their decisions, as the success or failure of the task is revealed at the end of the activity (Eren, 2010, p.153).

Work Hard, Play Hard culture: In this culture, the risk of the decisions taken is low, but the feedback rate is high. Being competitive depends on hard work and effort, as the risks involved are low. In this culture, inertia and monotony are the main dangers leading to failure. Therefore, these organizations must revive the excitement and competition motivation by including young talents among them. Mostly, this type of culture is seen in fashion, marketing, retail stores and companies selling computers (Goffee and Jones, 2000, p.58).

Bet-your-company culture: It is a culture with high environmental risk and low feedback rate. Some organizations operate in environments that require large investments of money and time, but it may take years to see if the investment has been successful. The petroleum industry, the aerospace industry including NASA, the pharmaceutical and chemical industries are also good examples of such cultures (Reitz, 1989, p.551).

Process Culture: It is the culture of organizations where the degree of uncertainty of the environment is low and the rate of feedback is slow. Results and gains are difficult to measure, so employees focus on how decisions are made and how work is done. Here, great importance is given to the procedures determined for how and in what way the managers will do the work, and these procedures are followed. Banks, public enterprises, insurance companies, pharmacy, financial service enterprises are such organizations (Daft, 1991, p. 80).

3.4.2 Harrison and Handy's Model of Organizational Culture

Handy (1993, p. 183), based on the work of Harrison, a psychologist, examined the different cultures of organizations in four basic groups: power culture, role culture, task culture, and person culture.

Power Culture: It is the type of organizational culture in which the hierarchy is valid and the power is concentrated in certain people. It is mostly seen in small organizations, family businesses and military organizations (Handy, 1993, p. 184). In power culture, power is concentrated in a single person or in individuals or groups who gain his trust. Power is distributed to experts in a controlled manner by the real owners of power, decisions are taken by the owners of power, and the opinions of others are not asked. Those who gain the trust of senior managers can act quite freely in their decisions and practices (Sönmez, 2006, p. 86).

Role Culture: It is the type of bureaucratic organizational culture in which rational rules are applied, all work is done based on logic, status is important and roles suitable for the status are defined, and the solutions to the conflicts and problems that may arise are predetermined in writing. It is common in government organizations and banks. In role culture, also known as bureaucracy, power is in positions, not individuals (Cole, 2004, p. 106).

Task Culture: It emerges in organizations that work on a project basis and can use flexible working styles. The way of working in such organizations is in the form of teamwork and autonomy is given to the employees. All attention is focused on talents, and the right people work in the right places to perform the given tasks in the best way possible. A culture of duty is a result-oriented way of working, so competition, creativity and speed are required. This culture has a feature that can be adapted to task-oriented groups and project teams. Daily checks are carried out in very few numbers, without violating cultural norms, with procedures and working methods (Handy, 1993, p. 187-188).

Person Culture: It is entirely focused on the employee and the employee's degree of expertise, and the purpose of the organization is to enable the employee to achieve his goals. The individual is the focus, and the structure exists to serve individuals. While employees in power, duty and role cultures work for the organization; In an individual culture, the organization works for its employees. This culture is individual-centered, and

individual studies and achievements have come to the fore. Individual culture is widely seen in law offices, medical sector, consulting firms and universities where professional employees work (Carter, 2011, p. 124).

3.4.3. Bill Schneider's model

Bill Schneider went beyond Harrison and Handy's research and established four categories of organizational culture (Terzi, 2000, pp. 80-81). Control, cooperation, capacity, and development culture are the species in concern (Bakan, 2004, p.95-96).

- **Control Culture:** In this culture, the focus is on "certainty". The existence of a control culture consists of ensuring predictability, reliability, precision and accuracy.
- **Collaboration Culture:** Schneider stated that a collaborative culture is about synergy. This culture aims to achieve one-to-one communication with customers, being together and full dedication to customers.
- **Talent Culture:** This culture is built on the ground of "discrimination". This culture aims to present goods and services that are not compatible with each other.
- **Development Culture:** Development culture is about "enrichment". This culture acts to ensure that customer potentials are completed, and customers are increased to the maximum extent.

3.4.4. Other organizational culture models

Schein Model: Edgar H. Schein's model is one of the most widely accepted studies in the literature. Examining organizational culture in three layers, Schein defines the outermost layer as indicators. A layer of tangible indicators; It includes buildings, office campus, technology, products, emotional behaviors, customs, ceremonies and stories (Schein, 1985). The most invisible deep layer is the layer of assumptions that the members of the organization unconsciously adhere to. Schein named the layer in between as the values layer and this layer informs what needs to be done (Livari & Huisman, 2007, p. 35) Based on this analysis, Schein suggested that there are four types of organizational culture:

Power Culture: According to this culture, employees work with a reward and punishment system. and there are two types of managers. The first type of ruler is strong,

tough and fair. Cultures with this type of manager are called good power cultures. The other type of manager has weak, fearful and fear-inducing features, and the culture with such managers is called the bad power culture.

Role Culture: In this type of organization, power is distributed in a balance between managers and bureaucratic units. Roles and rules have been set, and consulting alone will suffice to get things done. It is a type of culture that works well in less volatile environments.

Achievement Culture: In this type of organizations, motivation is at the forefront and employees work voluntarily for encouraging and exciting purposes. Participation and general opinion are more effective than discipline in doing the work.

Support Culture: The existing relations within the organization are shaped together with the members and the support is done voluntarily. Employees who participate in organizational activities in unity and solidarity have a high level of interest and trust towards each other and the work. As a result, motivation and self-sacrifice are high.

Miles and Snow's Model: The system, structure and values that organizations have had since the day they were founded help them to acquire certain traditions and habits. Miles and Snow gathered these characteristics of organizations according to traditions and habits in four different cultural groups and explained the characteristics of these cultures and their contribution to strategy formation as follows (Eren, 2008, pp. 156-157): A protective culture type organization has conservative beliefs and values. For this reason, a low-risk strategy is preferred, and managers pay attention to operate in safe markets (Tanova and Karadal, 2004, p. 125). Organizations dominated by the developer culture type are innovative. Organizations with this culture tend to produce new products, enter new markets, and therefore like to take risks. In organizations where the analytical culture type is common, two different aspects such as balance and change coexist. Balance is about creating formal structures and investigating the effectiveness of existing activities. Change, on the other hand, are cautious strategies developed by controlling the strategies and activities of competitors and taking into account their behavior and thoughts. In organizations where the reactive culture type is dominant, pressures for

change come from competitors and the environment, but managers lack the ability to respond effectively to these pressures (Eren, 2008, pp. 156-157).

Toyohiro Kono's Model: Toyohiro Kono looked at organizational culture from five different angles:

- *Dynamic Culture:* In a dynamic culture, individuals of the organization are receptive to new ideas. By carrying the spirituality of being a family, they share common ideals. Because the organization's goals are clear and understandable, employees know what their task will entail (Bakan, 2012, p. 103).
- *A Dynamic Culture and Following the Leader:* In this culture, most employees follow the firm founder and leader. There is complete faith in the leader's excellent characteristics, and upper-level commands are treated with great respect (Vural, 2012, p. 84).
- *Bureaucratic Culture:* Bureaucratic cultures contain a lot of rules and regulations. Employees' behavior is governed by these norms and standards (Vural, 2012, p. 84).
- *Sedentary Culture:* The repetition of behavioral patterns is the most prominent trait of civilizations with this feature. The organization is insensitive to environmental changes, and the organization's information-gathering capabilities are restricted (Bakan, 2012, p.104).
- *Strong Leader and Passive Culture:* In this culture, an autocratic top management approach is required. However, management decisions are frequently deemed incorrect, and individuals' responsibility to obey commands hinders their entrepreneurial aptitude. In a company with "leader-following and dynamic culture", if the top management stays in the same position for years, this company may switch to the "strong leader and inactive culture" type (Okay, 2002, p.217).

Byar's Model: The organizational culture model of Byars is divided into four elements (Vural, 2012, pp. 91-92).

- *Interacting Culture:* In interacting culture, the most significant emphasis is on providing the greatest service to current demands. To put it another way, the goal of this culture is to satisfy the demands of both employees and customers.

- *Integrated Culture*: Unlike the interactive culture, this form of culture focuses on changing and influencing staff and customer needs. They accomplish this through displaying innovative behaviors, providing a diverse range of goods and services, or influencing the external world in general.
- *Entrepreneurial Culture*: This culture attempts to bring new products and services to market. Another hallmark of these cultures is that there is no decision-making or participatory understanding, and employees are unable to participate actively in such processes.
- *Systematic Culture*: Systematic cultures have gravitated towards systems for the execution of strategies and policies. In this culture, the direction of the decision to be made is determined by the external environment interactions.

3.4.5. Denison Organizational Culture Model

Edger Schein defined organizational culture as 'the basic assumptions formed in a certain order that a group creates and develops to adapt to the external environment and solve its internal problems'. Denison defines organizational culture as 'rooted values, beliefs and assumptions deep within the organizational structure accepted by the members of the organization'. Denison sought to present an integrated approach that combined the functions and components of culture that Schein used to define culture. According to Denison (1990, p.15), Schein's external adaptation and internal integration functions are provided by the components of the culture with the content of balance/control and change/flexibility.

Denison and Mishra (1995) put forward two main axes for the concept of organizational culture to be measurable. The first main axis is the changing qualities, demands, technological applications and innovations of customers that are beyond the control of an organization. It is the degree of adaptability to environmental, that is, external conditions. The second main axis is the capacity of the organization to realize the necessary structural and functional changes within itself to adapt to the external environment. These two main axes were divided into two within themselves and 4 basic conceptual dimensions were formed for organizational culture (Denison, 1997, p. 2; Denison and Fey 2000, p.7). These four dimensions as can be seen in the table, involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission.

	Flexible	Stable
External Focus	Adaptability	Vision
Internal Focus	Involvement	Consistency

Figure 3.1. *Main Dimensions of Denison Model*

Depending on each of the four main conceptual dimensions proposed to measure organizational culture, three sub-conceptual dimensions were added. Each sub-conceptual dimension is made up of five elements. As a result, the Denison organizational culture scale has four basic dimensions, twelve sub-conceptual dimensions, and sixty elements.

Table 3.1. Dimensions and Subdimensions of Denison Model

Involvement	Empowerment
	Team Orientation
	Capability Development
Consistency	Core Values
	Agreement
	Coordination & Integration
Adaptability	Creating Change
	Customer Focus
	Organizational Learning
Mission	Strategic Direction & Intent
	Goals & Objectives
	Vision

Denison and Mishra (1995), Denison (1997), Ferguson (2003), Daft (2004), and Denison and Neale's explanations can be used to describe the content of the 4 basic dimensions and 12 sub-conceptual dimensions of the organizational culture measuring tool:

Involvement: This dimension is primarily concerned with the features that enable members to join the organization and facilitate the adaptation of newly recruited members to the organization. This culture dimension consists of road maps and methods that organizations should follow to provide high performance to their employees. Effective organizations are those that empower their employees, take care of their employees, encourage group work, and increase their employee's training capacity. People are responsible for self-management. Structure in organizations is based on informal control system. It creates a high level of participation, ownership and responsibility. Employees in such organizations become participatory, have a developed sense of belonging and become more productive.

- *Authorization:* Employees are empowered to make decisions about their work when they have authorization. Employees' sense of responsibility grows as a result of this component, which also has a beneficial impact on their integration with their work and their sense of loyalty to the organization they work for.
- *Teamwork:* One of the most significant aspects of modern management is bringing together personnel with certain capabilities and encouraging them to complete all responsibilities assigned in accordance with the organization's goals. Creating a form of synergy, resolving potential disputes with more effective approaches, and having an effective decision-making process, on the other hand, become more important.
- *Talent Development:* Employees will receive management support, training, and other benefits to help the company achieve its objectives. Employees who receive assistance in developing their abilities are better prepared for new opportunities.

Consistency: Internal balances and a stable environment are the focus of this dimension. The tactics and methods utilized by the organization in its activities are tied to this culture dimension. Organizations that follow a consistent business plan perform better. Internal models have emerged in organizations with consistent characteristics, and

coordination has increased. Develops and maintains internal integrity. Consistency refers to the degree to which ideals, ideas, acts, and behaviors are consistent. Because knowledge exchange and cooperation are at their peak in strong cultures with high socialization, efficiency increases. Consistency can be a two-edged sword. In circumstances where change is required, it might make adaption harder. As a result, there should be consistency between principles and behaviors, but this should not prevent people from responding to change.

- *Core values:* These are the fundamental and indispensable value judgments that disclose all of an organization's functional features, which were established by the founders and maintained by senior management, usually in the early days of the company's existence.
- *Compromise:* It means that the organization's personnel have a clear understanding of the organization's goals and the techniques for achieving them, as well as acting in unison.
- *Coordination:* It emphasizes the harmony of all decisions, working principles, and techniques to be taken between the organization's major and sub-departments in order to meet the organization's basic objectives.

Vision: Organizations that serve the outside world must keep up with rapid change. This dimension includes the employees' unified vision and mission. It has to do with the organization's strategic decisions. Successful organizations have clear goals and directions that define the organization's objectives. It assists them in aligning their current objectives with future advancements.

- *Strategic Management:* Having clearly defined business strategies to improve the attainability of organizational goals, as well as a consistent approach in this direction, has a significant impact on the organization's success.
- *Organizational Goals:* Defining the long-term goals that organizations will set will ensure that the contents of the vision and mission are decided, and strategic actions may be carried out with greater awareness. Today, having a clear and understood mission has a positive impact on employees' comprehension of the mission and how to achieve company goals.

- *Vision*: Organizational visions that are future-oriented but meaningful and clearly defined promote employee synergy and enable employees to be more creative and integrated with their job in line with the organization's primary goals and mission.

Adaptability: Adaptability dimension can be defined as paying strategic attention to client needs and external environment requirements. The significance of transition abilities enabling organizations to adjust quickly to external changes is highlighted in this culture dimension. Organizations must employ these change skills on a regular basis and build new norms and values. Environmentally conscious organizations are quick to identify market need, respond, and profit from it. They take chances, learn from their failures, and improve their ability to adapt to change fast. They are always adding value to the company's customers. The crucial relationship between flexibility and the organization's external emphasis is linked through adaptability.

- *Change*: Today's firms face a growing requirement to make creative changes to come up with more satisfying solutions for an external environment that is always changing and differentiating.
- *Customer Focus*: Regardless of an organization's sphere of activity, serving the wishes, needs, and expectations of present and potential consumers is a top focus for its success today.
- *Organizational Learning*: Continuously learning new technologies and processes that arise in today's fast changing environmental conditions is very vital and functional for an organization, taking into consideration the experiences gained.

The Denison organizational culture model's 12 sub-dimensions (Figure 3.2) are represented by 12 equal circles on a disc. The level of each sub-dimension is represented by criteria in various colors, and a profile of the organization's culture is formed.

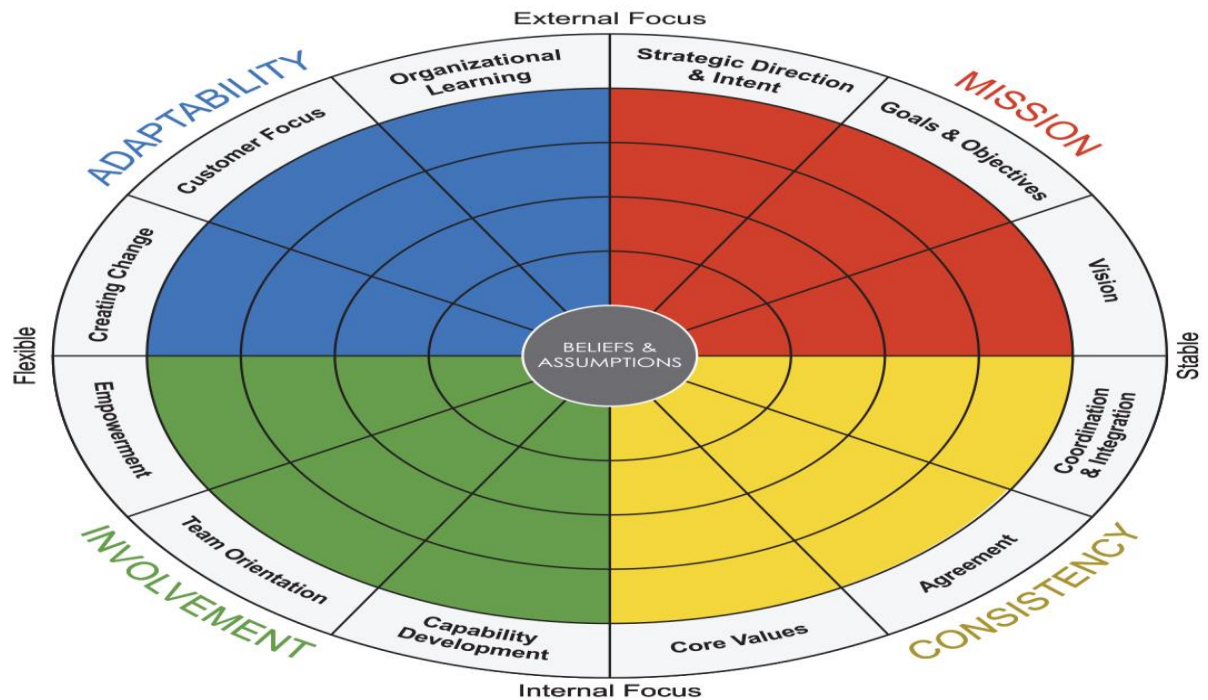


Figure 3.2. Schematic Illustration of the Denison Culture Model Measurement Tool (Denison Consulting Company)

Other organizational culture models, which are intended for higher-level study, often employ objective and observational methodologies to develop a conceptual framework. Although observational methods have proven to be useful in revealing numerous difficulties, they have not been used in a healthy manner by managers. Because most of the research were planned and created in an academic setting, no business terminology was employed, and the models remained psychological, and personality based. Because the link between the models and the business results is unclear, translation into business terminology and a significant amount of effort are required to analyze or make sense of the results in the business context.

The Denison organizational culture model is a behavior-based model that may answer the application-oriented needs of managers by providing a quantitative method that is directly related to practice and responsible. It is valid for research undertaken at all organizational levels. The business is planned and built into the concept. It is a model that is tied to business results and employs business language to analyze organizational-level issues, unlike other models. It is also a simple and quick-to-implement model.

In his study "organizational culture and effectiveness," which he conducted while developing the model, Denison argued that there should be a balance between

culture, strategy, and environment (Daft, 2004, pp. 323-324). Many organizational elements, as well as the power that organizations can wield, can be influenced by culture (Shahin and Wright, 2004: 499). The cultural context may influence the power sources of managers or leaders in the organization, both in the direction of the leader's behavior and in the perspective of the subordinates. The impact of culture on the manager's power resources is unavoidable.

According to certain studies in the subject of power supply, various cultures view power supplies differently. In one study on the subject, it was discovered that while position-based powers were viewed favorably in American society, individual-based powers were viewed favorably in Spanish culture (Munduate & Dorado, 1998, p. 163).

3.5. Concepts Complementing Organizational Culture

3.5.1. Organizational image and organizational culture

Organizations, being social systems, leave some impacts in their interactions with their surroundings, as well as some images as a result of these effects. This image, which is generated in the minds and characterized as an image, appears to be a substantial contributor to the organization's current struggle to achieve its objectives. The image is the component of the identity that is perceived. The method in which people outside the company judge organizational identity is referred to as image (Konuk, 2006, p. 27).

"The impact of corporate culture can be seen in the language, attitudes, and behaviors utilized in the workplace, as well as in interpersonal relationships." In all its interactions with the organization, the environment will notice how the organizational culture is reflected. As a result, organizational culture will have a considerable impact on judgments" (Konuk, 2006, p.28).

3.5.2. Communication and organizational culture

Because the formal structure of the organization influences the communication system of the organization, the communication system has an impact on the structure of the organization. The organization's formal structure gives rise to a formal communication system that follows specified official rules and regulations. Members of this system must act and speak in a planned and foreseen manner, rather than according to their particular preferences (Türk, 2003, p. 18). Although most communication inside

the business is formal, there are occasions when information is transmitted fast, bypassing the tight requirements of official communication to expedite operations. Here, it is referred to as a type of communication, sometimes under time pressure, by accelerating the work and increasing its effectiveness, and sometimes as a natural result of informal groups formed in the organization and not organized by an authorized person or unit in the business. informal communication (Şimşek, 2002, p. 203).

Informal routes of communication, also known as rumors or gossip, do not necessarily fulfill corporate goals. Employees might attain their personal aims by spreading rumors or gossip. The organization's informal communication system blends or separates organizational and personal aims. As a result, communication plays a critical role in the establishment of both positive and negative organizational cultures.

In terms of influencing and determining individual behavior, and hence communication inside the organization, organizational culture is tremendously significant. On the other hand, organizational communication plays a significant role in the establishment and spread of organizational culture. Individuals who will act in accordance with corporate goals should also have their behaviors directed. Individual behaviors cannot be directed without communication (Türk, 2003, p.19).

One of organizational communication's two cultural functions is to inform members of the organization about the organization's culture, while the other is to assist members of the organization in integrating with the culture. With the functioning of the communication process, organizational culture provides communication among members of the organization, other informal messages, stories told among employees, gossip, messages processed through official communication, slogans, organizational documents, group meetings, and public meetings gain meaning. Organizational identity develops in tandem with members' interpretations of the past, present, and future, as well as their perceptions of facts and stories linked to organizational life. The use of facts and stories as a theme aids the organization's future development and strengthens group collaboration. Organizational identity is gained by adopting and living the organizational culture (Türk, 2003, p. 19).

3.5.3. Organizational culture and organizational identity

Organizational culture and organizational identity are two ideas that are sometimes conflated. There are, however, distinctions between these concepts. Organizational identity is a purposeful established strategy that must take into account the dominant organizational culture, whereas organizational culture is made up of shared values and norms. Culture, on the other hand, can be generated subconsciously, as is well known. In the process of creating an image, the organization's identity emerges. In developing organizational goals, organizational culture emerges as a critical aspect. Organizational culture is primarily focused on the organization (Unutkan, 1995, p. 54).

"Identity is often synonymous with culture; the definition of culture is used to express the 'original identity of the business'. However, there are also differences in terms of organizational culture. We can see that the concept of identity encompasses the physical parts of the work that are in mutual communication with the culture, especially when we regard culture as a symbolic system. In this wide sense, organizational identity encompasses all of the characteristics that identify the organization, express its uniqueness, and set it apart from other enterprises; it is the point at which the company want to be and is permitted to be. Members can identify themselves with their organizations through organizational identity, which has both symbolic and real meanings." (Konuk 2006, p. 26).

"An organization's identity is made up of physical and cultural components. Physical aspects reflect the structural characteristics of the firm and are determined by the industry in which it operates, technology, legal structure of the organization, size, number of personnel, strategy, and the layout of sub-units. Myths, customs, heroes, and history make up the organization's cultural identity. While the general management creates the physical identity, the majority of employees in the company produce the moral and cultural identity, which is in some ways an informal identity" (Erdem, 1996: 54).

3.5.4. Organizational climate and organizational culture

The origin of organizational climate, which is sometimes confused with culture, is different. Climate is included in culture since it focuses on common views, values, and conventions among a group of people. The psychological environment for the climate is the emphasis of the enterprise's social climate, which is people's impressions of the organization (Erdem, 1996, p. 57).

Organizations cannot be separated from socioeconomic conditions because they are part of the overall management system. As a result, organizations develop their own personalities over time, and these personalities have an impact on their surroundings. Personalities, business needs, organizational structure, and goals all interact to create a climate that is significant for both the individual and the organization. To put it another way, the climate generated both provides the individual a distinct identity and influences their behavior (Ertekin, 1979, p. 2).

"Change is another topic that has come up in the research on the relationship between organizational culture and climate. Culture evolves slowly since it is founded on a long and well-known history. Climate is a dynamic expression of reality that reflects organizational realities" (Erdem, 1996, p. 57). "A key distinction between organizational culture and organizational environment is the amount of time they cover. Organizational climate, which is a subset of organizational culture, can change in a short period of time. Another distinction is that, while organizational climate research focuses on psychological issues such as perception and learning, organizational culture research focuses on cultural anthropology" (Unutkan, 1995, p. 53).

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this part of the study, the rationale for conducting the research and the management of the research will be discussed. The purpose of the research, the scope of the research, the universe and sample of the research, the data collection tools and techniques used in the research, the scales used in the research, the collection of the data used in the research and the analysis of these data will be explained in detail.

4.1. Research Design

As this study seeks to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment by considering the mediating role of an organizational culture, a descriptive survey method is adopted.

Before choosing a research design, researchers said that the study objectives, data collection time, and nature of the analysis to be performed must all be considered. With these crucial considerations in mind, our study's research methodology is a cross-sectional descriptive survey research method. A cross-sectional survey is a means of

gathering primary data at a certain point in time, either online or in person. That is, for the entire data collection time, each participant answers only one questionnaire. The cross-sectional survey approach is the most widely used research strategy in social science studies because it allows researchers to collect data from a broad population at a low cost in order to test a hypothesis or answer a research question.

4.2. Aim of Research

The main purpose of this study can be expressed as examining the mediating role of organizational culture in the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. 21st century labor market dynamics prioritize employees who are committed to the organization they work for and who mobilize their potential as much as possible. In this context, employees who dedicate themselves to the organization with both talent and strong motivation have become a critical element for the efficiency of the organization. Undoubtedly, the current culture of the organization has the potential to have a decisive impact on the talented and dedicated employees. Culture can sometimes create effects that hinder the maximum performance of talented and internally motivated employees, and sometimes it can ensure that qualified personnel are retained, work with enthusiasm and increase productivity. For talented employees, how they are treated within the organization and what kind of opportunities they are equipped with is extremely important. The value attributed to them, as well as the opportunities offered to further develop their existing talents, can be decisive in terms of their performance.

4.3. Limitations

As in many survey-based studies, this study did not work with a sample that could reflect the main mass with all its characteristics due to time and cost constraints. Therefore, it is thought that the generalizability of the results obtained from the study is limited.

Another drawback stems from some people's refusal to engage in the study after learning about the research topic. When the data is evaluated, it becomes clear that the majority of the participants favor positive expressions on problems like organizational culture, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. However, integrating the unfavorable sentiments of people who refused to participate in the study could have provided a more complete picture of the process.

Another limitation of the study is related to the measurement tools. The majority of the scales used in the field of management and organization are obtained from developed countries and western cultures. Differentiation between cultures can also affect the phenomena, language, etc. of people living in different cultures. It causes them to comprehend, think and behave in different ways.

4.4. Significance of Research

Communication sector is one of the important fields in Azerbaijan. Therefore, it's essential to determine the association between concepts such as organizational culture, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results of earlier studies have suggested that these concepts may have an impact on an organization's success, which has sparked a lot of interest in these variables. (Lok and Crawford, 2001; Yousef, 2001 and Shurbagi and Zahari, 2012).

Furthermore, no research has been done in the communication industry to evaluate the link between these concepts and the impact of organizational culture on this relationship. As a result, this study is unique in that it will contribute to filling this gap in our knowledge of the link between these variables and the impact of organizational culture on this relationship.

4.5. Conceptual Model

The main goal of the research is to measure effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Also, another goal is to analyze the mediation role of organizational culture in relationship between job satisfaction and organizational culture. The conceptual model represents the main dimensions of the study. It also represents the nature of the relationships between these dimensions. The model consists of three main dimensions. The first dimension is the job satisfaction, which is the independent variable. The second dimension is the organizational commitment, which is the dependent variable and its subdimensions are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The third dimension is the organizational culture, which is the intermediate variable and its subdimensions are involvement, consistency, adaptability and vision. The conceptual model is shown in figure 4.1.

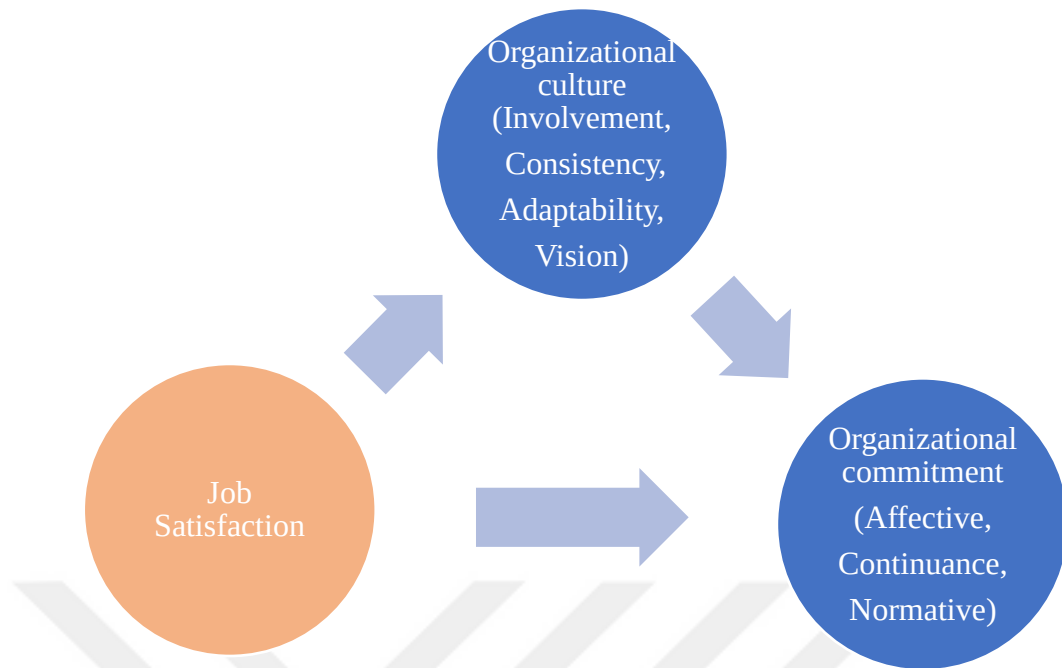


Figure 4.1. *Model of Research*

4.6. Hypotheses

4.6.1. Job Satisfaction – Organizational Commitment

H1. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

H2. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on continuance organizational commitment.

H3. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on normative organizational commitment.

4.6.2. Organizational Culture – Organizational Commitment

H4. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

H5. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on continuance organizational commitment.

H6. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on normative organizational commitment.

4.6.3. Job Satisfaction-Organizational culture

H7. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on involvement.

H8. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on consistency.

H9. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on adaptability.

H10. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on vision.

4.6.4. Mediating Role of Organizational Culture

H11. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H12. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H13. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

H14. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H15. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H16. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

H17. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H18. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H19. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

H20. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H21. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H22. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

4.7. The Population and the Sample of the Study

The study takes within its scope three widely and often separately considered organizational phenomena- job satisfaction, organizational culture, and organizational commitment. The study relies on the hypothesis that the organizational commitment of the members of the organization is influenced by the job satisfaction and there is also mediating effect of organizational culture. Subsequently, this study is intended to determine if culture plays any mediating role in the hypothesized relationship. The study also, within its scope, tries to find the direct relationship between satisfaction with both organizational culture and organizational commitment.

The population of the study is the employees working for companies from communication sector located in Baku, Azerbaijan. There are more than 15 companies in communication sector in Baku. 3 companies accepted the request for doing survey to gathering data about their perception of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational culture. Companies that accepted the request were “Netframe LLC”, “Izone MMC”, and “Flexnet MMC”. Total population that working in those companies was 328 employees. There are 201 questionnaires gathered from employees in total. 8 of questionnaires were useless since they were fulfilled in wrong way, which means total sample of the research is 193 questionnaires. 98 of the questionnaires gathered from the workers of Netframe, 44 from Izone and finally 41 from Flexnet.

4.8. Data Analysis Process

The data gathered were transferred to the SPSS version and AMOS version 26 which were the main programs used for the analysis in this study once the data collection process was completed. The demographic characteristics of the participants were evaluated using the frequency analysis and descriptive statistics included in the SPSS statistical data analysis tool. The validity and dependability of the acquired data were the next steps in the analytical procedure. In scale development and validation investigations, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is commonly used to verify the predetermined or created structure. SEM and CFA both use the same reasoning and computation techniques. The compliance of the factor structure of the data with the hypothesized model is tested or verified using CFA.

In contrast to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), in CFA, observable variables are only linked to preset latent variables, and association between some error words is possible (Blunch, 2012). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used with AMOS programs to see if the constructs created by the data match the model formulated for the study based on theory and empirical research. The Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to determine the relationship between the variables and to answer the research questions in the final stage of the analysis. SEM provides an opportunity to conduct analysis based on the hypothesized model, as well as a chance to repair the model's flaws before going on to determining the correlations between the model's elements (Weston and Gore Jr, 2006, p. 723).

The model was first drawn using the SEM methods indicated above to show the link between the observable variables and unobserved constructs. After that, a path map was drawn to depict the proposed relationship. After that, the created diagram was transformed into structural and measurement models. The model fit is determined in the following stage, which determines how closely the model depicts the data obtained. The model fit is defined by a set of indices that will be discussed in more detail in the next sections of this paper. SEM allows the user to fine-tune the hypothesized model until it fits the data. It is now time to test the hypothesis represented in the model after the appropriate modifications have been made and a satisfactory measure of fit has been attained. In this study, SEM was used to examine the relationship that exists between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The second aspect of the study looked at the mediating role, if any, of organizational culture on the aforementioned relationship.

4.9. Development and Application of Scales

The form consists of 4 parts. The first part includes questions about demographic information. The second part consists of 24 items and measures organizational commitment. The third part, consisting of 20 questions, is about the level of job satisfaction. The last part consists of 36 items about the organizational culture of the employees.

4.9.1. Job satisfaction Scale

Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire is selected for this research. Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lufquist created the Minnesota Satisfaction Scale. The extended version of

the scale has 100 items (5 items related to each of the 20 determined factors). The short version of the scale has 20 items, and the sum of the scores is used to determine overall satisfaction. The long version of the scale takes roughly 30 minutes to administer, whereas the short version

takes only 10 minutes. The Minnesota Satisfaction Scale provides comprehensive information regarding employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction, whereas the Job Description Index assesses employees' attitudes toward the five primary elements of their jobs from a broad viewpoint.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire allows for independent evaluation of attitudes on a variety of variables. In practice, people's answers to these many aspects are often positively connected, so that people who are content with their boss are also satisfied with their coworkers, and so on. (McCafee and Champagne, 1987:44)

The questions were based on a 5-point Likert type scale with 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 5 representing Strongly Agree.

Table 4.1. Reliability of Job Satisfaction scale
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.756	.766	20

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Satisfaction_1	70.65	68.811	.571	.557	.723
Satisfaction_2	71.50	72.949	.356	.430	.743
Satisfaction_3	70.75	75.323	.272	.263	.750
Satisfaction_4	71.76	72.206	.397	.456	.739
Satisfaction_5	70.12	74.880	.518	.603	.736
Satisfaction_6	70.05	77.951	.372	.396	.746
Satisfaction_7	69.92	81.868	.042	.311	.759
Satisfaction_8	70.28	70.653	.560	.451	.727
Satisfaction_9	70.62	75.361	.285	.437	.749
Satisfaction_10	71.76	70.123	.467	.613	.732
Satisfaction_11	70.91	83.012	-.093	.394	.781

Table 4.1.(continue). Reliability of Job Satisfaction scale

Satisfaction_12	70.10	78.093	.348	.362	.747
Satisfaction_13	70.56	69.653	.682	.671	.719
Satisfaction_14	70.65	83.707	-.120	.259	.778
Satisfaction_15	71.55	71.020	.487	.583	.732
Satisfaction_16	70.75	76.826	.201	.401	.755
Satisfaction_17	70.10	75.016	.493	.397	.737
Satisfaction_18	70.31	77.695	.228	.439	.752
Satisfaction_19	71.10	75.166	.297	.239	.747
Satisfaction_20	70.33	78.034	.223	.288	.752

The overall Cronbach's Alpha of the scale was 0.756 As shown in the table above. It is also shown of their means, variances and squared multiple correlations.

4.9.2. Organizational Commitment Scale

Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment scale were used in this research. To measure these aspects of commitment, Meyer and Allen created the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS), and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS). Many studies have utilized them to see how an employee's level of commitment affects things like quitting behavior, work performance, and absenteeism. There are 24 items in this scale and it is divided into 3 subdimensions as mentioned before.

The questions were based on a 5-point Likert type scale with 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 5 representing Strongly Agree.

Table 4.2. Reliability of Organizational Commitment Scale

Reliability Statistics					
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items			
.798	.802	24			
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted

Table 4.2.(continue). Reliability of Organizational Commitment Scale

Commitment_1	81.30	116.784	.558	.567	.782
Commitment_2	82.01	115.802	.453	.606	.785
Commitment_3	81.17	124.504	.198	.372	.797
Commitment_4	81.58	112.536	.600	.671	.777
Commitment_5	80.93	125.776	.165	.307	.798
Commitment_6	81.26	116.755	.582	.580	.781
Commitment_7	81.69	113.057	.572	.684	.778
Commitment_8	81.51	115.293	.477	.418	.783
Commitment_9	81.50	124.022	.174	.595	.799
Commitment_10	81.18	121.316	.324	.602	.792
Commitment_11	81.62	123.571	.156	.630	.801
Commitment_12	81.44	122.789	.225	.583	.796
Commitment_13	81.60	126.981	.026	.580	.808
Commitment_14	81.55	126.509	.041	.437	.807
Commitment_15	82.27	133.646	-.205	.528	.821
Commitment_16	81.15	118.535	.494	.672	.785
Commitment_17	81.80	122.266	.208	.332	.798
Commitment_18	82.27	126.159	.076	.316	.803
Commitment_19	82.97	118.843	.412	.539	.788
Commitment_20	81.79	111.342	.672	.694	.773
Commitment_21	82.42	111.995	.555	.657	.778
Commitment_22	81.98	111.656	.621	.688	.775
Commitment_23	82.13	116.957	.372	.410	.789
Commitment_24	81.72	115.476	.504	.600	.782

The overall Cronbach's Alpha of the scale was 0.798 As shown in the table above. All the items have the Cronbach's alpha above 0.50 and is still within the acceptable limits even without removing the items.

4.9.3. Organizational Culture Scale

Denison's organizational culture scale is used in this research. The organizational Culture scale has been operationalizing commercially by Denison Consulting Company. For avoiding survey fatigue, this study used a shorter version scale (Yahyagil, 2004) with 36 questions (each culture trait is measured by 4 sub-culture dimensions with total nine

questions. Yahyagil (2004) provided the construct validity and reliability of the 36-items Turkish version. In the study, overall reliability – Cronbach Alpha- was measured as 0,94 as shown in table 4.3. It includes 4 subdimensions: Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability and Vision. Each of these subdimensions consist of 9 questions.

Table 4.3. Reliability of Organizational Culture Scale
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items	
.940	.940	36	

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Culture_1	3.98	.895	193
Culture_2	4.10	.907	193
Culture_3	3.78	1.018	193
Culture_4	4.18	.874	193
Culture_5	3.68	1.145	193
Culture_6	4.17	.858	193
Culture_7	3.87	1.084	193
Culture_8	4.26	.807	193
Culture_9	4.09	.945	193
Culture_10	4.17	.898	193
Culture_11	3.77	1.062	193
Culture_12	4.05	.978	193
Culture_13	4.18	.850	193
Culture_14	4.11	.937	193
Culture_15	4.16	.878	193
Culture_16	4.06	.933	193
Culture_17	4.23	.854	193
Culture_18	4.12	.904	193
Culture_19	3.86	1.153	193
Culture_20	4.04	1.108	193
Culture_21	3.88	1.169	193
Culture_22	3.97	1.129	193
Culture_23	3.94	1.146	193
Culture_24	3.99	1.123	193
Culture_25	3.81	1.158	193

Table 4.3.(continue) *Reliability of Organizational Culture Scale*

Culture_26	3.79	1.258	193
Culture_27	3.87	1.204	193
Culture_28	3.98	1.031	193
Culture_29	3.95	1.079	193
Culture_30	4.14	.944	193
Culture_31	3.94	1.069	193
Culture_32	4.14	.922	193
Culture_33	4.01	1.063	193
Culture_34	4.02	1.000	193
Culture_35	4.00	1.051	193
Culture_36	4.15	.948	193

5. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Findings and evaluations from our research consist of three subsections. In the first part of the findings section, the findings regarding the demographic factors of the participants, the validity and reliability studies of the measurement tools we used in our research in the second section, and the findings related to the research hypotheses in the last section are presented.

5.1. Demographics of the Participants

We removed all missing values throughout the data validation procedure, and there were 193 valid samples out of 328 questionnaires sent, with a response rate of 58 percent. Gender, age, position in the business, experience, type of occupation, and level of education are among the participants' particular demographics. As described in Table 5.1, 60.6% of the overall 193 participants surveyed were males while only 30.4% were females.

10.9% of the participants are less than 25 years old, 21.2% of them are in the 25-30 age range, 20.7% are in the 31-36 age range, 21.8% are in the 36-40 age range, 12.4% are in the 41-45 range, 13% of them are 45 years old or older.

61.7% is married and 39.4% is single.

10.9% of them are high school graduates, 65.3% of them are university graduates and 23.9% of them are master graduates.

39.4% is less than 5 years, 38.3% worked 6-9 years, 21.2% worked 10-15 and only 1% worked more than 20 years.

40.9% works in the service, 50.3% in administrative works, 2.6% in management and 6.2% in other places.

Table 5.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
AGE	less than 25	21	10.9	10.9	10.9
	25-30	41	21.2	21.2	32.1
	31-36	40	20.7	20.7	52.8
	37-40	42	21.8	21.8	74.6
	41-45	24	12.4	12.4	87.0
	more than 45	25	13.0	13.0	100.0
	Total	193	100.0	100.0	
GENDER	male	117	60.6	60.6	60.6
	female	76	39.4	39.4	100.0
	Total	193	100.0	100.0	
MARITAL STATUS	married	119	61.7	61.7	61.7
	single	74	38.3	38.3	100.0
	Total	193	100.0	100.0	
EDUCATION	high school	21	10.9	10.9	10.9
	bachelor's degree	126	65.3	65.3	76.2
	master's degree	46	23.8	23.8	100.0
	Total	193	100.0	100.0	
EXPERIENCE	less than 5 years	76	39.4	39.4	39.4
	6-9 years	74	38.3	38.3	77.7
	10-15 years	41	21.2	21.2	99.0
	16-20 years	2	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	193	100.0	100.0	
JOB STATUS	top manager	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
	department manager	2	1.0	1.0	2.6
	technical staff	79	40.9	40.9	43.5
	administrative staff	97	50.3	50.3	93.8
	other	12	6.2	6.2	100.0
	Total	193	100.0	100.0	

5.2. Reliability Analysis

This study used the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) 26 statistical program to develop a structural equation model to analyse the data. In research where there are several relationships between dependent and independent variables, structural equation models are commonly used. The fundamental goal of structural equation models is to use the data to perform a statistical test of theoretically generated models and see how well theory and research findings match.

The first stage is to see if there are any differences between the model and the observed variables, or if there is a relationship between the observable and latent variables based on the model. The structural model is investigated in the second step, which reveals the links between distinct latent variables. Different indexes are used to assess if the models are compatible or not. In table 5.2. SEM fit indexes are shown:

Table 5.2. Structural Equation Model Fit Indices

Model Fit Index	Perfect Range	Acceptable Range
χ^2/sd	$0 < \chi^2/sd < 2$	$2 < \chi^2/sd < 5$
RMSEA	$0.00 < RMSEA < 0.05$	$0.05 < RMSEA < 0.10$
PGFI	$0.95 < PGFI < 1.00$	$0.50 < PGFI < 0.95$
PNFI	$0.95 < PNFI < 1.00$	$0.50 < PNFI < 0.95$
GFI	$0.90 < GFI < 1.00$	$0.85 < GFI < 0.90$
AGFI	$0.90 < AGFI < 1.00$	$0.85 < AGFI < 0.90$
CFI	$0.95 < CFI < 1.00$	$0.90 < CFI < 0.95$

The most relevant traditionalized values in the fit indices are CMIN and CMIN/DF. CMIN denotes the significance, and thus the point at which the null hypothesis is accepted or rejected (Barret, 2007, pp. 815-824; Hu and Bentler, 1998, pp. 424-453). The RMSEA, established by Steiger and Lind (1980), is the second most often used fit index. It is used to quantify the distance between the researcher's model and the perfect model. Other indices include Jöreskog and Sörbom's (1993) GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), which examines the models' covariance matrix. The Baseline indices, which include NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI, are the next most widely used indices.

5.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The link between observable variables and their corresponding latent components was specified using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) measurement methodology. Before validating our hypothesized model, we used CFA to establish that the study's measured variables (scale items) were created by the latent components.

It is vital to evaluate whether the model stated in the study fits well with the data obtained before beginning any analysis. Model validity is determined by two factors: construct validity and Goodness of Fit (GoF) indices. The extent to which a research instrument gives an outcome based on the ideas developed from each construct is known as construct validity (John and Benet-Martinez, 2000). Convergent and discriminant validity are used to determine construct validity. Convergent validity assures that the items load strongly under the components they are measuring, whereas discriminant validity determines whether the constructs are measuring separate dimensions. The examination of GoF indices is the second step in determining the model's validity.

5.2.1.1. Measurement model for Job Satisfaction scale

Table 5.3. Regression Weights of JS

			Estimate
Satisfaction_1	<---	JS.	.674
Satisfaction_2	<---	JS.	.475
Satisfaction_3	<---	JS.	.230
Satisfaction_4	<---	JS.	.496
Satisfaction_5	<---	JS.	.561
Satisfaction_6	<---	JS.	.472
Satisfaction_7	<---	JS.	-.029
Satisfaction_8	<---	JS.	.566
Satisfaction_9	<---	JS.	.236
Satisfaction_10	<---	JS.	.608
Satisfaction_11	<---	JS.	-.218
Satisfaction_12	<---	JS.	.447
Satisfaction_13	<---	JS.	.832
Satisfaction_14	<---	JS.	-.104
Satisfaction_15	<---	JS.	.625
Satisfaction_16	<---	JS.	.199
Satisfaction_17	<---	JS.	.561
Satisfaction_18	<---	JS.	.281
Satisfaction_19	<---	JS.	.429
Satisfaction_20	<---	JS.	.215

The original scale of Job Satisfaction scale consisting of 20 items was reduced to 12 variables with strong regression loadings (>0.50). The job satisfaction scale collects all the items under one factor leading to the measurement model shown in Figure 5.1 below.

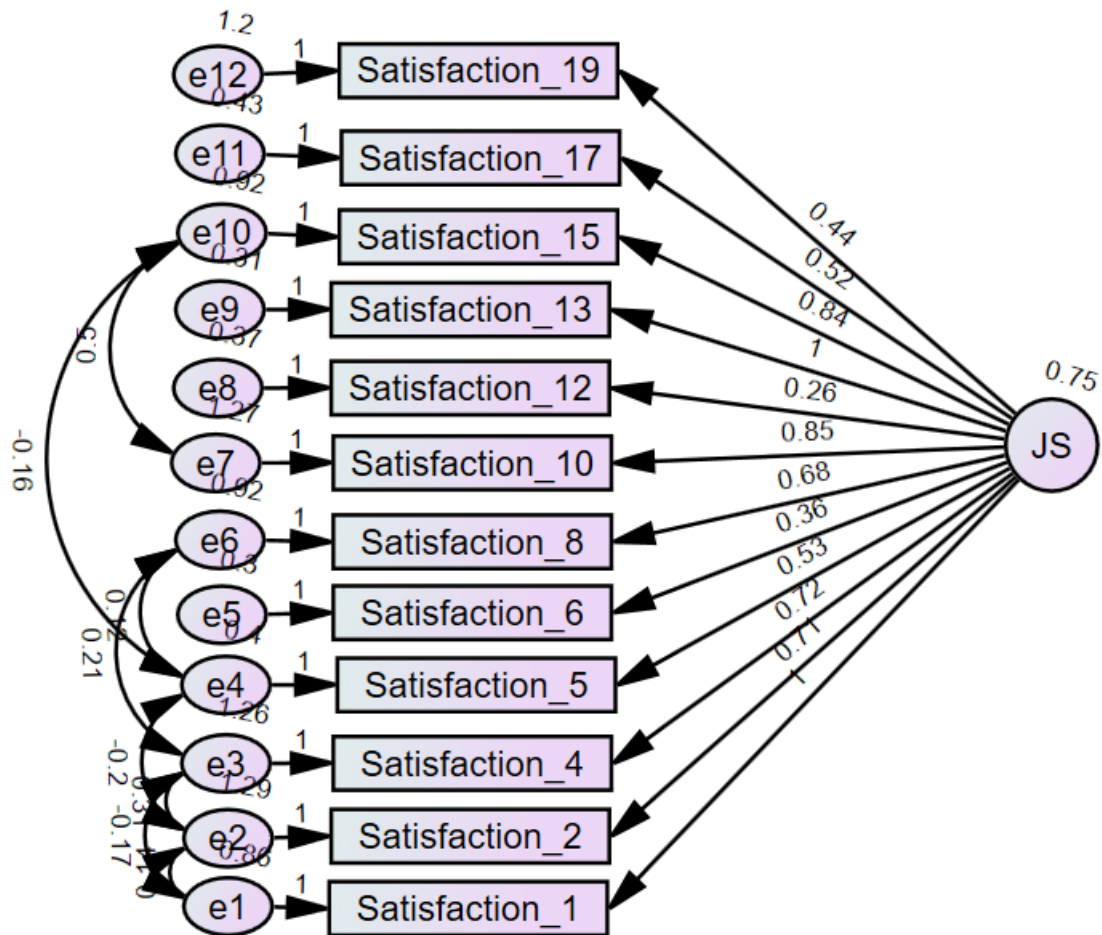


Figure 5.1. *The Modified CFA Measurement Model for the JS scale*

It's rare to get a model fit without employing modification indices (MI) when using SEM, especially in complicated models. As a result, a modification may be necessary to produce a well-fitting model. By advising adjustments to the model Bayrne, MI provides vital information on how to improve the model (2010). Therefore, the meaningful MI recommended by the AMOS output were establishing covariance between several residual errors: $e_{10} \leftrightarrow e_7$; $e_{10} \leftrightarrow e_4$; $e_6 \leftrightarrow e_4$; $e_6 \leftrightarrow e_3$; $e_4 \leftrightarrow e_2$; $e_3 \leftrightarrow e_2$; $e_2 \leftrightarrow e_1$.

Table 5.3 below shows the values for the goodness of fit obtained for the JS scale.

Table 5.4. *The Goodness of Fit Indices for the Modified JS Model*

FIT INDICES	VALUE	PERFECT RANGE	ACCEPTABLE RANGE
CMIN/DF	1.453	$0 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 3$	$3 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$
RMSEA	.049	$0 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,05$	$0.5 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,10$
PGFI	.916	$0.95 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$
PNFI	1	$0.95 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$
GFI	.916	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$
AGFI	.916	$0.90 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$
CFI	.950	$0.95 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$

Barbara (2010:94) argues that the absolute model fit measure of CMIN/DF is one of the fit statistics aimed to solve the p-constraint. value's The current CMIN/DF value found is 1.453, which meets the 3-threshold level, showing that the JS scale is well-modeled. GFI=0.916, the other absolute model fit measure, is higher than the criterion of 0.90. GFI should be >0.90, according to Gefen & Straub (2000), hence the GFI number is acceptable. RMSEA=0.049, which is lower than the acceptable level of 0.080. We may say that the absolute fit measure of this model is attained because the obtained value of RMSEA is greater than the minimum needed value. CFI=0.950 above the 0.90 threshold, suggesting an excellent model fit. The obtained CFI values are higher than the 0.90 minimum needed level of acceptance, indicating that the model fits the data as predicted.

5.2.1.2. Measurement model for organizational commitment scale.

Table 5.5. Regression Weights of OCO

			Estimate
Commitment_1	<---	AFF	.704
Commitment_2	<---	AFF	.689
Commitment_3	<---	AFF	.416
Commitment_4	<---	AFF	.793
Commitment_5	<---	AFF	.281
Commitment_6	<---	AFF	.754
Commitment_9	<---	CNTS	.702
Commitment_10	<---	CNTS	.690
Commitment_11	<---	CNTS	.679
Commitment_12	<---	CNTS	.795
Commitment_13	<---	CNTS	.633
Commitment_14	<---	CNTS	.530
Commitment_15	<---	CNTS	.458
Commitment_17	<---	NRM	.257
Commitment_18	<---	NRM	.128
Commitment_19	<---	NRM	.485
Commitment_20	<---	NRM	.826
Commitment_21	<---	NRM	.760
Commitment_7	<---	AFF	.818
Commitment_8	<---	AFF	.547
Commitment_16	<---	CNTS	.695
Commitment_22	<---	NRM	.821
Commitment_23	<---	NRM	.476
Commitment_24	<---	NRM	.692

In the original scale of organizational commitment there were 24 items loaded into 3 subdimensions respectively: Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment. Figure 5.2 shows the measurement model of the organizational commitment scale, which has 18 items. To improve the model fit of the innovative organizational commitment scale, the item with the lowest regression loadings has been removed and there was some suggestions of MI or errors to be covaried.

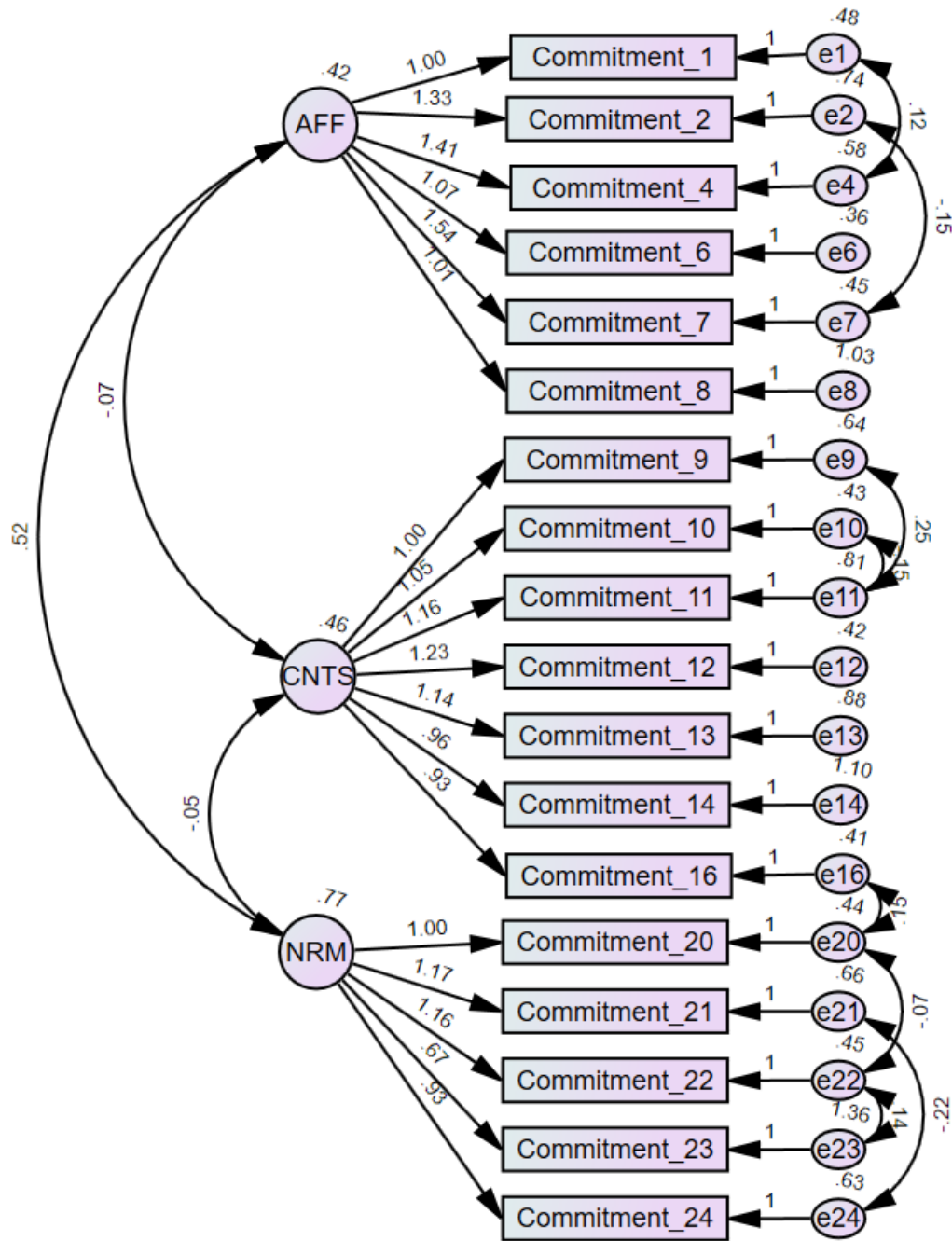


Figure 5.2. *The Modified CFA Measurement Model for the OCO scale*

Therefore, the meaningful MI recommended by the AMOS output were establishing covariance between several residual errors: e1<-->e4; e<-->e7; e9<-->e11; e10<-->e11; e16<-->e20; e20<-->e22; e21<-->e24; e22<-->e23

After doing necessary modifications, goodness of fit indices of the model also meets the required levels as shown in the table 5.4.

Table 5.6. *The Goodness of Fit Indices for the Modified OCO Model*

FIT INDICES	VALUE	PERFECT RANGE	ACCEPTABLE RANGE
CMIN/DF	2.136	$0 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 3$	$3 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$
RMSEA	0.77	$0 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,05$	$0.5 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,10$
PGFI	0.745	$0.95 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$
PNFI	0.705	$0.95 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$
GFI	0.912	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$
AGFI	0.874	$0.90 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$
CFI	0.919	$0.95 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$

As can be seen above, the indices have undergone significant alterations as a result of the revisions. The standardized factor loadings of the observed variable and the total explained variances confirm construct validity, according to the results of the measurement model evaluated. The values indicate that the measurement model has been validated, indicating that the model fits perfectly.

5.2.1.3. Measurement model for organizational culture scale

Table 5.7. Regression Weights of OC

			Estimate
Culture_1	<---	Inv	.042
Culture_2	<---	Inv	.852
Culture_3	<---	Inv	.587
Culture_4	<---	Inv	.880
Culture_5	<---	Inv	.630
Culture_6	<---	Inv	.874
Culture_7	<---	Inv	.713
Culture_8	<---	Inv	.679
Culture_9	<---	Inv	.771
Culture_10	<---	Cnst	.820
Culture_11	<---	Cnst	.560
Culture_12	<---	Cnst	.746
Culture_13	<---	Cnst	.835
Culture_14	<---	Cnst	.899
Culture_15	<---	Cnst	.804
Culture_16	<---	Cnst	.864
Culture_17	<---	Cnst	.706
Culture_18	<---	Cnst	.880
Culture_19	<---	Adpt	.917
Culture_20	<---	Adpt	.689
Culture_21	<---	Adpt	.895
Culture_22	<---	Adpt	.949
Culture_23	<---	Adpt	.819
Culture_24	<---	Adpt	.973
Culture_25	<---	Adpt	.588
Culture_26	<---	Adpt	.637
Culture_27	<---	Adpt	.694
Culture_28	<---	Vision.	.533
Culture_29	<---	Vision.	.958
Culture_30	<---	Vision.	.669
Culture_31	<---	Vision.	.809
Culture_32	<---	Vision.	.583
Culture_33	<---	Vision.	.950
Culture_34	<---	Vision.	.777
Culture_35	<---	Vision.	.746
Culture_36	<---	Vision.	.604

In the measurement model for the OC scale, the items are collected under four factors corresponding to the four culture subdimensions: Involvement, Consistency, Adaptability and Vision. The scale had 36 items as initially conceived. However, as

shown in Figure 5.3, 8 of the items which failed to reach minimum level of factor loadings (>0.50) were deleted to achieve model fit.

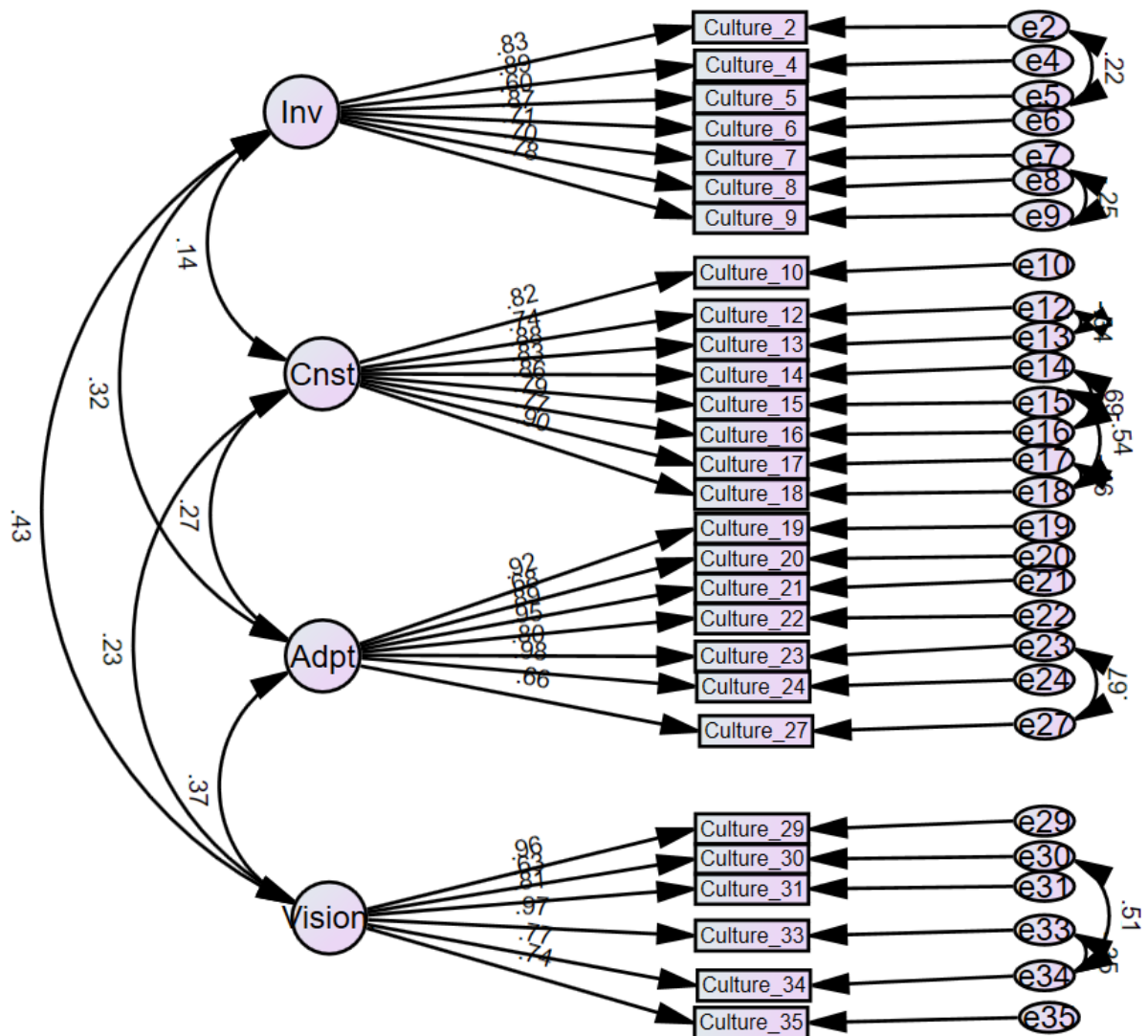


Figure 5.3. *The Modified CFA Measurement Model for the OC scale*

To improve the model fit of the innovative organizational commitment scale, the item with the lowest regression loadings has been removed and there was some suggestions of MI or errors to be covaried.

Therefore, the meaningful MI recommended by the AMOS output were establishing covariance between several residual errors: e2<-->e5; e8<-->e9; e12<-->e13; e14<-->e16; e15<-->e18; e17<-->e18; e23<-->e27; e30<-->e34; e33<-->e34.

Table 5.5 below shows the goodness of fit values for the OC measurement model. The values in the two tables indicate that all the validity issues have been satisfied.

Table 5.8. *The Goodness of Fit Indices for the Modified OC Model*

FIT INDICES	VALUE	PERFECT RANGE	ACCEPTABLE RANGE
CMIN/DF	2.235	$0 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 3$	$3 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$
RMSEA	0.80	$0 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,05$	$0.5 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,10$
PGFI	0.763	$0.95 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$
PNFI	0.769	$0.95 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$
GFI	0.891	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$
AGFI	0.851	$0.90 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$
CFI	0.921	$0.95 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$

5.2.1.4. Full SEM evaluation of the study variables

The 8 latent factors of the measurement model were combined, and its CFA diagram is shown in Figure 5.4. The overall measurement scale had 64 items measuring Job Satisfaction (12 items), Involvement (7 items), Consistency (8 items), Adaptability (7 items), Vision (6 items), Affective Commitment (6 items), Continuance Commitment (7 items), and Normative Commitment (5 items).

On the other hand, the goodness of fit statistics of the full SEM measurement model indicated an acceptable model fit. For instance, the result of $\chi^2=2.208$, RMSEA=0.079, CFI=0.907, AGFI=0.843, and PNFI=0.746. All values are greater than or equal to the suggested upper limit. Despite the fact that NFI (0.810) and GFI (0.862) were lower than the needed values of 0.90, the model can still be regarded a satisfactory model fit to the data due to the intricacy of the model and the number of interactions involved (Bayrne, 2010). As shown in Figure 5.4, the R² value of the model, which represents the percentage of variation explained by the collective set of predictors, exhibited a high level of accuracy in predicting dependent components.

Table 5.9. *The Goodness of Fit Statistics of SEM of the Study Variables*

FIT INDICES	VALUE	PERFECT RANGE	ACCEPTABLE RANGE
CMIN/DF	2.208	$0 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 3$	$3 \leq \text{CMIN/DF} \leq 5$
RMSEA	0.079	$0 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,05$	$0.5 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0,10$
PGFI	0.810	$0.95 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PGFI} \leq 1$
PNFI	0.746	$0.95 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$	$0.50 \leq \text{PNFI} \leq 1$
GFI	0.862	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$
AGFI	0.843	$0.90 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$
CFI	0.907	$0.95 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	$0.90 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$

5.2.2. Reliability Analysis of the Full SEM

Composite reliability (C.R) which is used to measure the level of consistency of latent constructs was calculated. All the constructs obtained a CR value greater than the threshold of 0.70 as shown in Table 5.7. In addition, convergent validity measures the extent to which two variables predicting different factors are highly correlated. This value is obtained by computing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for all constructs and its values should not be less than 0.50 in order to achieve valid convergent validity. Both composite and Average Variance Extracted are used to measure the convergent validity of the data.

Bogazzi and Yi (2012) recommended focusing on CR rather than Average Variance Extracted as a measure of reliability (AVE). Furthermore, Fornell and Larcker (1981:46) claimed that even if more than half (50%) of the variation is due to error, the convergent validity of a construct is still acceptable. Table 5.7 shows that the standardized factor loadings of all the variables studied were significant at the P 0.001 level, ranging from 0.429 to 0.981. Because the alpha coefficient, the Standardized Regression Weight (SRW), Goodness of Fit Indices, and measurement model validity demonstrated considerable excellent model fit with the limitation of low AVE, we can conclude that

the whole measurement model has been approved. Table 5.7 summarizes the validity and reliability analyses performed.

Table 5.10. *Reliability and Validity of SEM of Research*

Factor	Variable	Standard Weight Regression	A.V.E	C.R
Job Satisfaction	JS1	.683		
	JS2	.476		
	JS4	.486		
	JS5	.587		
	JS6	.495		
	JS8	.523		
	JS10	.547		
	JS12	.447		
	JS13	.841		
	JS15	.604		
	JS17	.566		
	JS19	.429	0.554	.873
Affective Commitment	OCO1	.683		
	OCO2	.708		
	OCO4	.769		
	OCO6	.757		
	OCO7	.831		
	OCO8	.544	0.520	0.865

Table 5.10.(continue). Reliability and Validity of SEM of Research				
Continuance Commitment	OCO9	.649		
	OCO10	.739		
	OCO11	.659		
	OCO12	.792		
	OCO13	.636		
	OCO14	.526		
	OCO16	.700	0.457	.853
Normative Commitment	OCO20	.798		
	OCO21	.785		
	OCO22	.833		
	OCO23	.450		
	OCO24	.719	0.533	0.846
Involvement	OC2	.832		
	OC4	.894		
	OC5	.596		
	OC6	.873		
	OC7	.709		
	OC8	.701		
	OC9	.785	.603	.913

Table 5.10.(continue). Reliability and Validity of SEM of Research

Consistency	OC10	.820		
	OC12	.744		
	OC13	.880		
	OC14	.834		
	OC15	.863		
	OC16	.786		
	OC17	.768		
	OC18	.905	0.683	0.945
Adaptability	OC19	.916		
	OC20	.685		
	OC21	.890		
	OC22	.954		
	OC23	.797		
	OC24	.981		
	OC27	.660	.721	.946
Vision	OC29	.959		
	OC30	.629		
	OC31	.807		
	OC33	.967		
	OC34	.769		
	OC35	.744	0.674	.924

5.3. Structural Equation Model and Hypotheses Testing

Following the validation of the measurement models using the measures of fit, a structural model may be built to discover the link between the latent variables by calculating the path coefficient between them.

5.3.1. Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

H1. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

H2. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on continuance organizational commitment.

H3. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on normative organizational commitment.

The first test of the study was conducted to determine the potential impact of Job Satisfaction as an organizational phenomenon on organizational commitment's dimensions.

These hypotheses were tested using Structural Equation Model (SEM) through establishing a direct relationship between the factors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The result was significantly positive for both dependent variables as shown below. In the figure, job satisfaction is seen to have a positive effect on affective commitment with R2 of 0.51. The path analysis result presented in Figure 5.5 shows that the relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment is strong and positive ($\beta=0.711$, $P<0.01$). Hypothesis (H1) is therefore accepted.

The second hypothesis is about the effect of JS on continuance organizational commitment. We can see that there is no positive relationship between them as the beta data is negative ($\beta=-310$). Therefore, this hypothesis is not accepted

The third hypothesis is about the effect of JS on normative organizational commitment. The results reveal that Job Satisfaction ($\beta = 710$, $p<0.001$, $R^2 = 0.50$) had a significant positive effect on normative organizational commitment. Hypothesis is accepted.

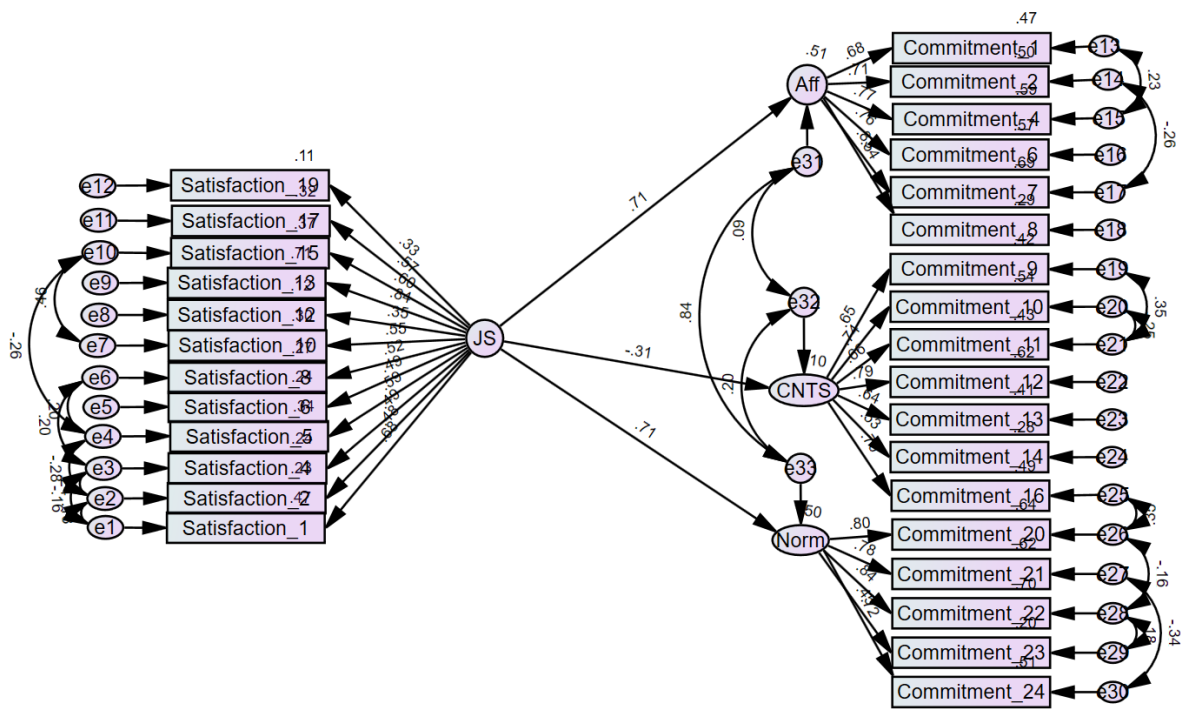


Figure 5.5. Direct effect of JS on OCO

The regression coefficient of the model also showed a significant Critical Ratio. A C.R is arrived by dividing the regression weight estimates over its Standard Error (S.E) and only a C.R above an absolute value of 1.96 is considered to be significant. Table 5.8 shows the data of effects.

Table 5.11. Impact of JS on OCO

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	R2
Affective Commitment	<---	JS	.711	.048	11.105	***	0.51
Continuance Commitment	<---	JS	-.310	.063	-3.876	***	0.10
Normative Commitment	<---	JS	.710	.064	11.223	***	0.50

5.3.2. Relationship between Organizational Culture and Organizational Commitment

H4. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

H5. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on continuance organizational commitment.

H6. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on normative organizational commitment.

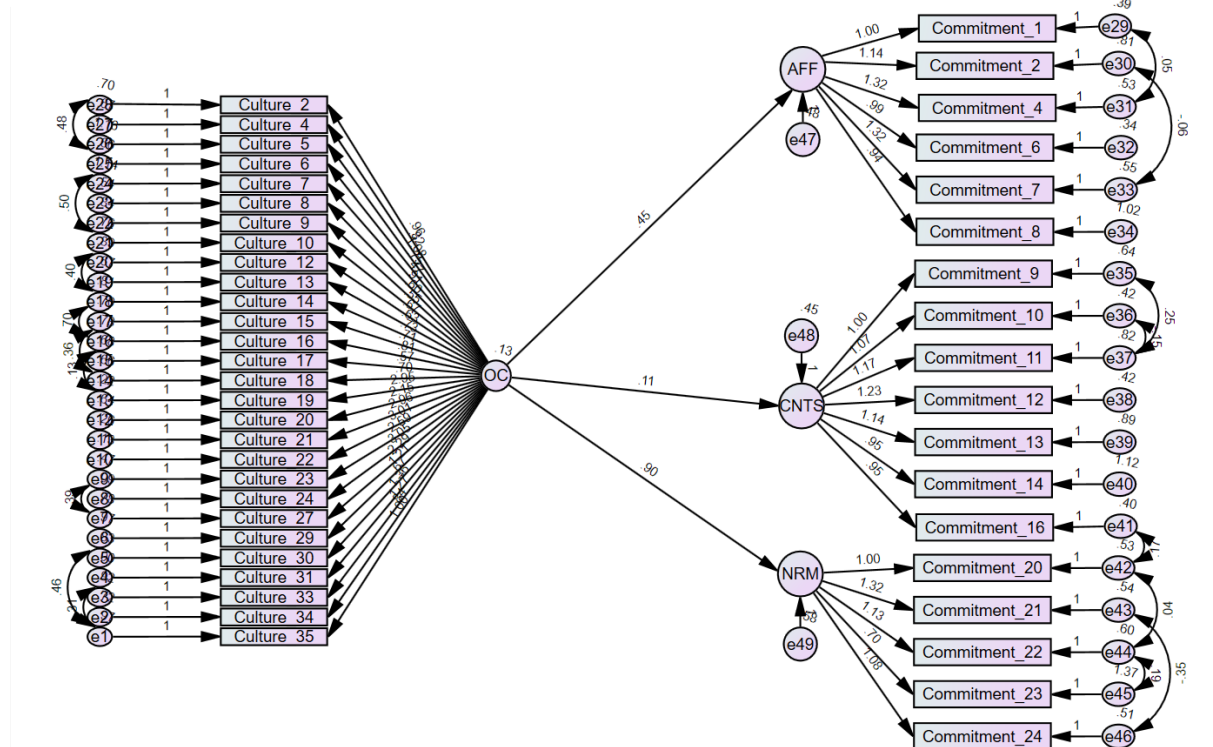


Figure 5.6. Direct effect of OC on OCO

In order to test this hypothesis, a direct relationship between the organizational culture and factors of organizational commitment was established by utilizing the SEM model as shown in Figure 5.6. The result indicates that organizational culture has a significant positive effect on affective commitment ($\beta=0.453$; $P<0.01$) and normative commitment ($\beta=0.896$; $P<0.01$). On the other hand, there is no significant effect of organizational culture on continuance organizational commitment. Other values such as C.R and R² are also acceptable as shown in table 5.9.

Table 5.12. *Effect Values of OC on OCO*

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	R2
Affective Commitment	<---	OC	.453	.182	2.494	***	0.48
Continuance Commitment	<---	OC	.112	.151	.741	.459	0.45
Normative Commitment	<---	OC	.896	.258	3.469	***	0.58

From these values it can be said that hypothesis 4 and 6 is accepted on the other hand hypothesis 5 is not accepted.

5.3.3. Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Culture

H7. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on involvement.

H8. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on consistency.

H9. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on adaptability.

H10. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on vision.

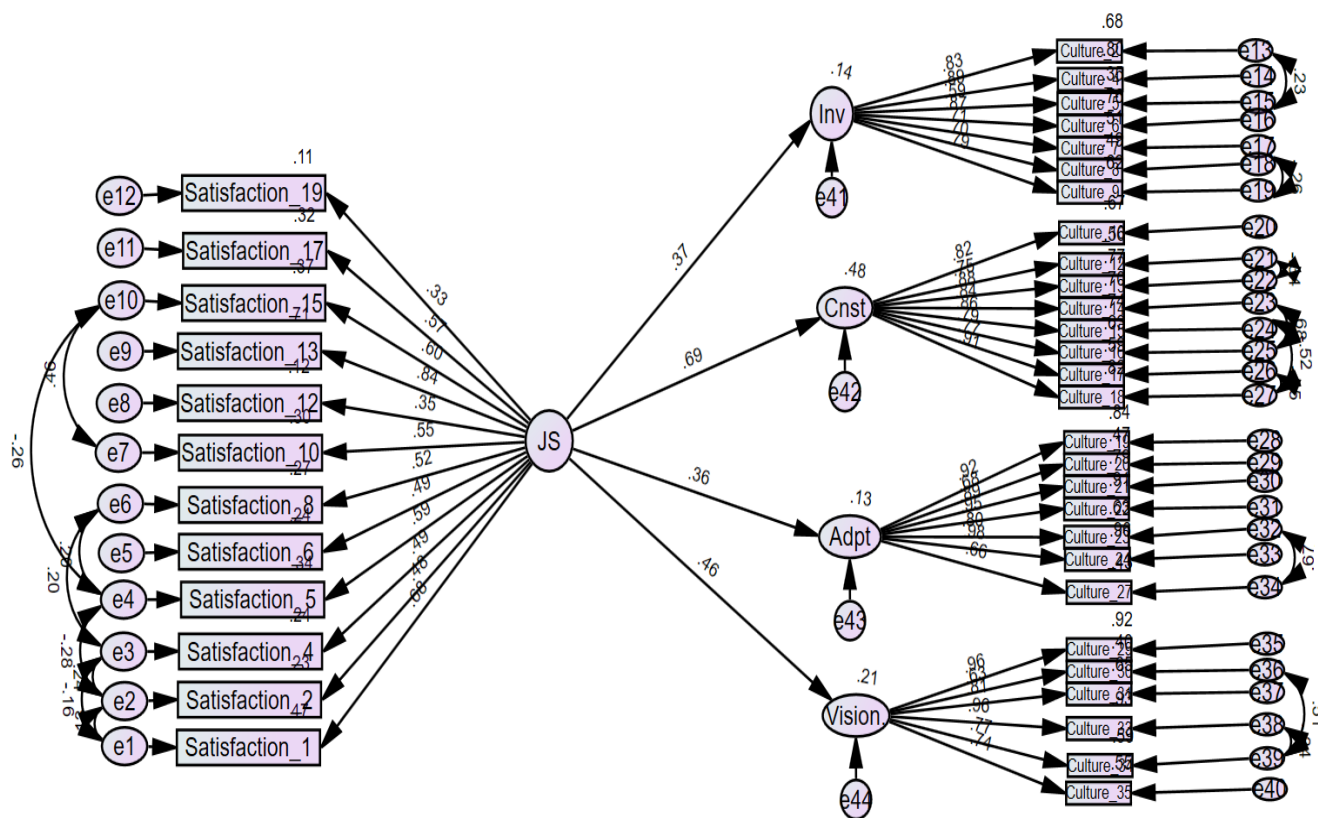


Figure 5.7. Effect of JS on OC

To test this hypothesis, the SEM model was used to demonstrate a direct association between job satisfaction and organizational culture components (see Figure 5.7). The result indicates that job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on involvement ($\beta=0.375$; $P<0.01$), consistency ($\beta=0.691$; $P<0.01$), adaptability ($\beta=0.362$; $P<0.01$) and vision ($\beta=0.463$; $P<0.01$). The Critical Ratio and R2 values are also indicates a significant relationship as its C.R value is higher than the minimum threshold of ± 1.96 and R2 values are acceptable as shown in table 5.10

Table 5.13. Effect Values of JS on OC

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	R2
Involvement	<---	JS	.375	.068	4.963	***	0.14
Consistency	<---	JS	.691	.059	9.973	***	0.48
Adaptability	<---	JS	.362	.090	4.921	***	0.13
Vision	<---	JS	.463	.084	6.545	***	0.21

As all values meets the requirements, it can be said that all four hypotheses about the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational culture are acceptable.

5.3.4. Mediating role of organizational culture over the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment

H11. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H12. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H13. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

H14. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H15. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H16. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

H17. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H18. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H19. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

H20. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.

H21. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.

H22. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.

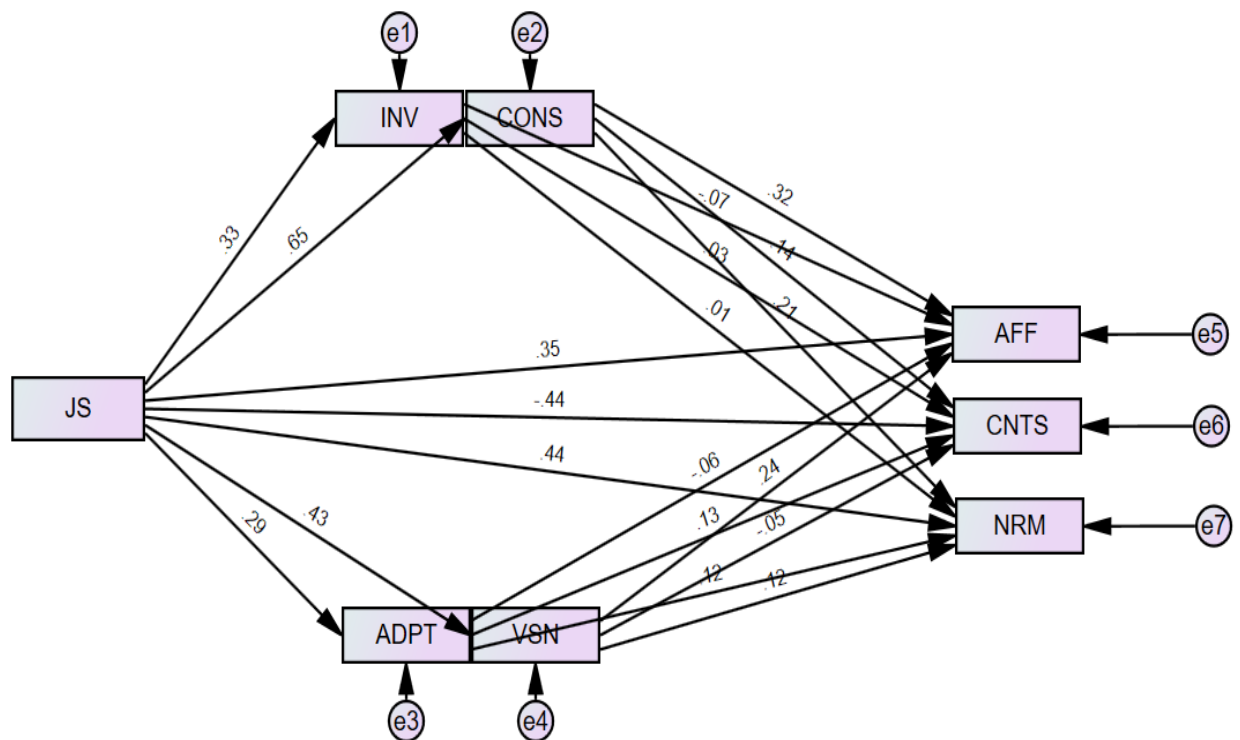


Figure 5.8. Mediation effect of OC between JS and OCO

After checking the direct effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables, the study also checked the mediating effect of the leadership type on the relationship between the variables. According to Baron and Kenny's (1986, p. 1176) model, mediation can only be determined when there is already a significant direct influence between the variables in question (dependent and independent). The mediator variable should be influenced by the independent variable. The presence of an indirect effect is next examined once the mediator is introduced. When the direct effect link between the variables is no longer significant after the mediator variable is included, we expect to have a full mediation. Following the Baron and Kenny's approach frequently results in the exclusion of relationships that could be improved through mediation from further investigation. As such, this study adopts the approach presented by Zhao et al. in which the possibility of mediation is examined in five patterns. The first is complementary mediation, in which the variables have both a direct and a mediated influence, both of which are in the same direction. Both effects occur in a competitive mediation, but they point in opposite ways. When there is only an indirect influence but no direct effect between the variables, it is called indirect only mediation. This means that

only in the presence of the mediating factor does a link arise between the variables. Based on Baron and Kenny's methodology, this is one of the impacts that is never evaluated. The direct-only mediation is the opposite of this, describing the presence of a direct effect but no indirect influence. When there is no influence between the variables, we refer to this as no-effect non-mediation.

Mediation hypotheses state that organizational culture mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment). To assess the claimed mediation effect, we used a bootstrapped confidence interval of 95 percent with a generated sample size of 500 (Bollen and Stine, 1990) and the mediation approach described by Baron and Kenny (1986).

In figure 5.8 the mediation model above, we look at the indirect impact of job satisfaction on organizational commitment components through organizational culture. The study seeks to find if the inclusion of organizational culture will alter the nature of the relationship that exists between JS and OCO by rendering it insignificant or just by changing the degree of impact or direction of the impact. To determine the indirect effects of the model, the study used special plugins (Gaskin and Lim, 2018) in AMOS which automatically estimates all the indirect effects as shown in the table below.

Table 5.14. *Indirect Effects between the variables*

Indirect Path	Standardized Estimate	Lower	Upper	P-Value
JS --> INV --> AFF	-0.022	-0.089	0.015	0.303
JS --> INV --> CNTS	0.011	-0.032	0.072	0.629
JS --> INV --> NRM	0.004	-0.041	0.051	0.830
JS --> CONS --> AFF	0.205***	0.175	0.404	0.000
JS --> CONS --> CNTS	0.093	-0.015	0.249	0.145
JS --> CONS --> NRM	0.137**	0.098	0.309	0.005
JS --> ADPT --> NRM	0.034*	0.016	0.098	0.021
JS --> ADPT --> CNTS	0.032*	0.001	0.122	0.018
JS --> ADPT --> AFF	-0.018	-0.085	0.010	0.233
JS --> VSN --> NRM	0.043*	0.011	0.143	0.027
JS --> VSN --> CNTS	-0.020	-0.127	0.074	0.677
JS --> VSN --> AFF	0.104**	0.076	0.209	0.002

Note: Significance of Estimates:

*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.010$, * $p < 0.050$, † $p < 0.100$

The table shows the mediated relationships between JS and OCO through organizational culture components. Consistency was found to mediate the relationship between JS and affective organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.205$, $p < 0.001$), also between JS and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.137$, $p < 0.010$). Adaptability was found to mediate the relationship between JS and continuous organizational commitment. ($\beta = 0.032$, $p < 0.050$) also between JS and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.034$, $p < 0.050$). Vision was found to mediate the relationship between JS and affective organizational commitment. ($\beta = 0.104$, $p < 0.010$) and normative organizational commitment ($\beta = 0.043$, $p < 0.050$). On the other hand, rest of the other hypotheses didn't match the minimum required values and therefore they are not accepted. In table 5.12 shown the results of all hypotheses in this study.

Table 5.15. Results of Hypotheses

HYPOTHESIS	Accept/Reject
H1. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment.	Accepted
H2. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on continuance organizational commitment.	Rejected
H3. Job Satisfaction has a positive effect on normative organizational commitment.	Accepted
H4. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment.	Accepted
H5. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on continuance organizational commitment.	Rejected
H6. Organizational culture perceived by employees has a positive effect on normative organizational commitment.	Accepted
H7. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on involvement.	Accepted
H8. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on consistency.	Accepted

Table 5.15.(continue). Results of Hypotheses

H9. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on adaptability.	Accepted
H10. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on vision.	Accepted
H11. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.	Rejected
H12. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.	Rejected
H13. Involvement perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.	Rejected
H14. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.	Accepted
H15. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.	Rejected
H16. Consistency perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.	Accepted
H17. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.	Rejected
H18. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.	Accepted
H19. Adaptability perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.	Accepted
H20. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on affective organizational commitment.	Accepted
H21. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on continuance organizational commitment.	Rejected
H22. Vision perceived by employees has a mediating role in the effect of job satisfaction on normative organizational commitment.	Accepted

6. DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The final chapter of the thesis includes the discussion of the results. In this section, the results obtained from the analysis are evaluated and discussed alongside others in the literature to determine areas of similarity and conflict.

6.1. Discussion

Although previous studies have investigated the influence of job satisfaction (JS) and organizational culture (OC) on organizational commitment (OCO), the mediating effect of organizational culture have not been investigated. It is important to have an empirical study that combines all these relationships in a single framework. Therefore, this study aimed to develop a research model to investigate the influence of JS on OCO and the mediating role of OC especially in Azerbaijani Companies. It is believed that defining their dimensions and understanding their interconnections improves the effectiveness of establishing strategies for transforming an organization's structure, culture, and decision-making processes, hence boosting the organization's potential to innovate.

Hypotheses are established and a conceptual research model is developed and evaluated based on the literature review and the proposed research questions. Data was collected and processed for this aim in order to determine the associations between variables. Hypothesis testing and a cross-sectional study design were used to conduct quantitative research. The study model was put to the test using the statistical software SPSS and AMOS. A total of 193 professionals from three different companies in communication sector in Baku, Azerbaijan took part in the study.

The statistical analyses of the study started with clarifying the factorial constructs of the variables of the study. After that the reliability of these structures were tested.

The first factor analysis was made on job satisfaction scale. The 20 item-scale of job satisfaction was uni-dimensional scale that was firstly established by Minnesota University. The original scale of Job Satisfaction scale consisting of 20 items was reduced to 12 variables with strong regression loadings, because through the reliability analysis it was seen that extracting the item increased the reliability of the scale. The job satisfaction scale collects all the items under one factor.

The second factor analysis was made on organizational commitment. The 24 item-scale of commitment that established by Allen and Meyer consist of 3 subdimensions: Affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment. So, they loaded into 3 factors

while applying confirmatory factorial analysis. After doing confirmatory factorial analysis items with low regression weights were deleted from the model and 18 items kept after doing analysis.

Organizational culture on other hand were tested with the third factorial analysis. The 36 item-scale organizational culture established by Denison has 4 dimensions: Involvement, consistency, adaptability, and vision. They were loaded into 4 factors during confirmatory factorial analysis. After the analysis the item number reduced to 28.

6.1.1. Evaluations of job satisfaction and organizational commitment

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction affect the attitudes and behaviors of individuals within the organization. Studies on organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) show that commitment influences the role performance of the individual. In addition, commitment also precedes the extra role behavior of individuals (Scholl, 1981; Wiener, 1982; Chen & Francesco, 2003). Similarly, one of the essential structures in organizational behavior is work satisfaction, which occurs when the characteristics of an individual's job carry and fill the traits that are significant to him (Heller et al., 2002). It has an impact on individual job performance, just like job satisfaction and organizational dedication (Lund, 2003).

In their study of employees at the Tangerang Regency Education Office Technical Practice Unit, Yanti and Dahlan (2017) looked at the effects of organizational culture, leadership behavior, and job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Organizational culture, leadership conduct, and job satisfaction all have a direct impact on organizational commitment, according to the findings of the study.

There is agreement on the direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, according to management literature. Because, while job satisfaction can lead to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer et al., 2001; Organ, 1988), it is also conceivable for individuals with a high level of organizational commitment to be satisfied in their jobs (Meyer et al., 2001; Organ, 1988). The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is studied in this study, and it is discovered that job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment. When the sub-dimensions of commitment are studied, it is

clear that the dimension of affective and normative commitment has the strongest association with job satisfaction. This situation can be explained by the fact that job satisfaction is a concept with an emotional aspect (Luthans, 1995: 3).

When the hypotheses of the research were evaluated, the hypothesis that job satisfaction had an effect on affective organizational commitment, (H1), and the hypothesis that job satisfaction had an effect on organizational commitment (H3) was accepted.

6.1.2. Evaluations of organizational culture and organizational commitment

Organizational commitment appears to be predicted by organizational culture. These findings corroborate those of prior studies. These studies include the impact of organizational justice perception on commitment (Lambert, 2007; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Roch & Shanock, 2006), and the impact of organizational power on commitment (Lambert, 2007; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Roch & Shanock, 2006). (Bar-Haim, 2007; Munduate & Dorado, 1998; Rahim & Psenicka, 1996). as well as the influence of organizational culture (Chiang & Jang, 2007; Lok & Crawford, 1999, Rosette, 2006; Wells, 2007).

Miti (2016) investigated the impact of organizational culture on organizational commitment (Future Orientation, Power Distance, Human Orientation, and Performance Orientation). Organizational culture, particularly future orientation and performance orientation, has an impact on organizational commitment, according to the findings.

In his study of public service employees in Bayelsa State, Agwu (2013) investigated the relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment, and as a result of the study, it was determined that there was an important relationship between organizational culture and employee commitment. Furthermore, it was discovered that organizational commitment varies by gender, age, and duration of service.

In his study, Aregu (2017) looked at the relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment, finding both positive and negative interactions between the sub-dimensions.

Another finding, which differs from previous studies, is that organizational culture has an indirect effect on commitment. Because organizational culture is shared by members, such as a common language, attitude, symbols, high product quality, high productivity, and low absenteeism, it allows individuals to develop a sense of identity while maintaining organizational integrity and encouraging participation in organizational goals, resulting in the formation of organizational commitment or It is an organizational phenomenon that supports the strengthening of it. This can be explained by the fact that in an organization where hierarchy, authority, chain of command, roles, and positions are emphasized, people accept power as natural and regard it as fair. (Daft, 2004; DeCotiis ve Summers, 1987; Luthans, 1995).

Considering other organizational culture trends, the following conclusions can be drawn. The commitment is reduced when the importance of the results is increased. Commitment grows as management treats employees like family, addresses personal issues, prioritizes relationships, and encourages cooperative behavior in studies. This conclusion is supported by the fact that interpersonal fairness has a favorable effect on commitment. Because the presence of some organizational values in the organizational culture can have a beneficial impact on commitment, and the presence of justice in the organizational culture can raise the level of organizational commitment among its personnel (Lambert et al., 2005).

When the hypotheses of the research were evaluated, the hypothesis that organizational culture had an effect on affective organizational commitment, (H4), and the hypothesis that organizational culture had an effect on normative organizational commitment (H6) was accepted.

6.1.3. Evaluations of job satisfaction and organizational culture

It has been determined that organizational culture perception and job satisfaction level are higher in white-collar workers than blue-collar workers, and it has been observed that there is a high, positive and statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational culture perceptions of the employees participating in the survey. Accordingly, it can be interpreted that as job satisfaction increases, organizational culture perception also increases. (Karabıyık, 2019).

In this study it is also observed that when job satisfaction increases, all of the organizational culture dimensions also increases. So, we can say that job satisfaction has an impact on organizational culture. All of four hypotheses (H7, H8, H9, H10) are accepted.

6.1.4. Evaluations of the mediating role of organizational culture.

This study supported that organizational culture, and its dimensions of involvement, adaptability, consistency, and mission has a mediating role over the effect of job satisfaction on the organizational commitment and its dimensions of affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment. Consistency was found to mediate the relationship between JS and affective organizational commitment(H14), also between JS and normative organizational commitment (H16). Adaptability was found to mediate the relationship between JS and continuous organizational commitment, (H18) also between JS and normative organizational commitment(H19). Vision was found to mediate the relationship between JS and affective organizational commitment(H20) and normative organizational commitment(H22). The only dimension that did not have the mediating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment components was involvement.

6.2. Conclusions

Organizational culture encompasses all of an organization's accepted beliefs, values, conventions, symbols, and practices, and symbolizes the organization's overall culture. Organizational culture is formed by beliefs and assumptions about "work done" and "people performing the job," the two core parts of organizations. Assumptions about the job done concern the nature of the task and how it should be done to the best of one's ability, whereas assumptions about the employees concern the structural qualities and behaviors of the workers.

Organizational culture is shaped in line with the goals, policies and strategies of the organization and it is tried to be carried out with managers. In this ongoing process, people who spend most of their daily lives at work, have an important role in their

harmony with their social environment, their commitment to their jobs and their satisfaction with their jobs, in addition to their economic income.

In this study, the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment and the mediating role of organizational culture on this effect were investigated. The research covers companies in the communication sector located in the city of Baku. According to the results of the survey study conducted with the participant group consisting of the employees of these companies, it was seen that the level of organizational culture had a mediating effect on the effect of job satisfaction on job organizational commitment.

According to this study conducted in the city of Baku, job satisfaction of employees in the communication sector has positive effects on organizational culture and organizational commitment.

According to this result, as employees' perceptions and opinions about organizational culture get stronger, their perceptions and opinions about job satisfaction and organizational commitment also get stronger. Because the better an employee's perception of organizational culture and the more she adopts her job, the higher her job satisfaction and commitment.

As a result, it is concluded that 3 of the 4 dimensions defined as the sub-dimensions of organizational culture (consistency, adaptability and vision) significantly explain the effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. Therefore, it can be said that the model of study is successful.

Since no research has been done on these variables in the communication sector before, it can be said that this study can fill the gap in the literature.

6.3. Suggestions

Organizational culture, which generally consists of abstract concepts, makes it difficult to digitize in its analysis. For this reason, using observations in such studies may yield healthier results.

In this study, organizational culture, organizational commitment and job satisfaction were tried to be explained with the help of quantitative data collected with a

limited tool in terms of some shared core values and organizational practices. In future studies, adding variables such as organizational trust, material and moral rewards will ensure that the results of the research are healthier.

Regarding data collection, this study was carried out with the survey method. The inclusion of qualitative techniques as well as quantitative techniques in future studies will enable the definition of variables that are not included in the study model and a more detailed examination of the relationships.

It is thought that future studies will obtain more reliable results both in choosing the scale and by making long-term comparisons, taking into account the issues stated in the research limitations. In the long term, examining the organizational culture, organizational commitment and job satisfaction perceptions of the employees will enable the definition of the variables that may come to the fore in the perception process, which is a dynamic process. Because the organizational culture of the employees, organizational commitment and job satisfaction can differ in situations such as the redistribution of resources. In addition, the inclusion of objective criteria in the research will also eliminate the limitation of constructing the research on subjective perceptions.

Conducting such research will contribute to the development of organizational knowledge and will also guide managers and practitioners. The results obtained in the study are important for managers and practitioners as well as organizational aspects.

Considering that the employees enter the business life for a predetermined wage in order to meet their financial needs and continue their lives, the company management is expected to meet this prerequisite first. Today, in a society where unemployment is increasing and competition is gaining momentum, the wage element should not be used as a threat. The biggest duty of the company management in this regard is to determine the wage policy by conducting market research carefully and not to include arbitrariness in these practices.

It's worth noting that "organizational commitment" does not imply "organizational dependence." This condition, which is more common among employees in their forties and fifties, is caused by a desire for the job and a personal sense of impotence. An employee who feels "dependence" rather than "commitment" will be unproductive for both himself and the organization. The most obvious reason for this is

that someone who works without expecting anything from the company likewise works without expecting anything from themselves. It is recommended that corporate management get to know its employees well, that people be assigned to units that are a good fit for their abilities and capabilities, and that rotation be used to avoid feelings of dependency. This situation will both eliminate standardization and monotony and lead to the continuation of the learning and training process.

Making improvements in the wages and fringe benefits of company employees will positively affect both their job satisfaction and organizational commitment.



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Appendices

APPENDIX 1

The Research Survey Questionnaires

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

Değerli Katılımcı

Bu çalışmada Azerbaycan, Bakü şehrinde bulunan ve iletişim sektöründe yer alan şirket çalışanları tarafından algılanan örgüt kültürünün, onların iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkide aracılık rolü araştırılmaktadır.

Cevaplayacağınız bu form 4 bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölüm, demografik bilgilerinize yönelik sorular içermektedir. İkinci bölüm 24 maddeden ibaret olup, örgütsel bağlılığı ölçmek için düzenlenmiştir. 20 sorudan ibaret 3cü bölüm, iş tatmini düzeyine yöneliktir. Son bölüm ise çalışanların örgüt kültürüne yönelik 36 ölçek maddelerinden oluşmaktadır.

Formun cevaplama süresi ortalama 10 dakikadır.

Ölçeklere vereceğiniz yanıtlarda SİZE EN UYGUN GELEN SEÇENEĞİ SEÇİNİZ VE HİÇBİR MADDEYİ ATLAMADAN YANITLAMAYINIZ.

Araştırmamıza gönüllü olarak katıldığınız ve içtenlikle yanıtladığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

PROF.DR.İBRAHİM CEMİL ULUKAN

Tez Danışmanı

RASHİD KHALİLOV

Tez Öğrencisi

Yaşınız: 1()25'den az 2()25-30 3()31-35 4()36-40 5()41-45 6()45'den fazla
Cinsiyetiniz: 1()Kadın ()Erkek Medeni durumunuz: 1()Bekar 2()Evli
Eğitiminiz: 1()İlköğretim 2()Lise/dengi 3()Önlisans 4()Lisans 5()Yüksek Lisans 6()Doktora
Çalışma yaşamında geçirdiğiniz süre: 1()5 yıldan az 2()6-9 yıl 3()10-15 yıl 4()16-20 yıl
Bu işyerindeki çalışma süreniz 1()5 yıldan az 2()6-9 yıl 3()10-15 yıl 4()16-20 yıl 5()20 yıldan fazla
Hizmet sınıfınız 1()Üst yönetici 2()Bölüm Yöneticisi 3()Teknik Personel 4()İdari Personel 5()Diğer.....

Aşağıdaki her bir ifade için size en çok uyan seçeneğe “X” işareti koyunuz.

1= Hiç Katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3= Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum
4=Katılıyorum 5=Tamamen Katılıyorum

Örgütsel Bağlılık					
Duygusal bağlılık					
1. İş hayatımın bundan sonraki bölümünü bu işyerinde geçirmekten mutlu olurum	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşyerimi burada çalışmayan insanlarla konuşmaktan hoşlanırım	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşyerimdeki sorunları kendi sorunlarım gibi hissedirim	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu işyerinde duyduğum bağlılığı, bir başka işyerine de kolayca duyabileceğimi sanıyorum [R]	1	2	3	4	5
5. İşyerimde kendimi “alenin bir parçası” gibi hissetmiyorum. [R]	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu işyeriyle aramda duygusal bir bağ hissetmiyorum [R]	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu işyerinin benim için çok önemli kişisel bir anlamı var	1	2	3	4	5
8. İşyerime karşı güçlü bir ait olma duygusu hissetmiyorum [R]	1	2	3	4	5
Devam bağlılık					
9. Başka bir iş bulmadan şu anki işimden ayrılırsam, ortaya çıkacak sorunlar beni korkutmaz [R]	1	2	3	4	5
10. İşyerimden ayrılmayı istiyor olsam bile, hemen şimdi ayrılmak benim için çok zor olur	1	2	3	4	5
11. Şimdi işimi bırakmaya karar verirsem hayatımda pek çok şey aksar	1	2	3	4	5
12. Şu anda işimi bırakmak bana çok pahalıya mal olmaz [R]	1	2	3	4	5
13. Bu işyerinde çalışmaya devam etmeyi hem istiyorum hem de buna mecburum	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bu işyerinden ayrılmayı düşünebilmek için mevcut seçeneklerin çok sınırlı olduğu kanısındayım	1	2	3	4	5
15. Bu işyerinden ayrılmayı göze almamamın en ciddi nedenlerinden biri uygun seçeneklerin olmamasıdır	1	2	3	4	5
16. Başka bir iş yeri burada sahip olduğum olanakların tamamını sağlamayacağından buradan ayrılmak önemli fedakârlıkları gerektirecektir	1	2	3	4	5
Normatif bağlılık					
17. Günümüzde insanların çok sık iş değiştirdiklerini düşünüyorum	1	2	3	4	5
18. Bir insanın çalıştığı işyerine daima sadık kalması gerektiğine inanmıyorum [R]	1	2	3	4	5
19. Sürekli işyeri değiştirmek bana hiç de ahlak dışı görünmüyor [R]	1	2	3	4	5
20. Bu işyerinde çalışmaya devam etmemin temel nedenlerinden biri, sadakatim ve ahlaki bir sorumluluk duymamdır	1	2	3	4	5
21. Başka bir işyerinden daha iyi bir iş teklifi alsam bile buradan ayrılmamın doğru olmayacağını düşünüyorum	1	2	3	4	5
22. Bana bir işyerine sadık kalmanın önemli olduğu öğretilmiştir	1	2	3	4	5
23. İnsanların çalışma yaşamlarının büyük bir bölümünü aynı işyerinde geçirdikleri günlerde her şey daha iyiydi	1	2	3	4	5
24. Bir işyerine aşırı bağlı olmanın artık anlamlı olduğunu sanmıyorum [R]	1	2	3	4	5

Şu anda bulunduğum işle ilgili düşüncelerim ...

	Hic Tatmin Olmuyorum	Tatmin Olmuyorum	Kararsız	Tatmin Oluyorum	Çok Tatmi Oluyor
1- Her zaman meşgulüm (aktivite).....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2- İşimde yalnız çalışma şansı	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3- Zaman zaman değişik şeyler yapma şansı	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4- Toplumda “birey” olma şansı	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5- Üstümün çalışanlarını ele alış şekli.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6- Karar verirken üstlerimin yeterliliği.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7- Vicdanıma aykırı işler yapmama	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8- İşimin süreklilik arz etmesi.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9- Başkaları için birşeyler yapabilme şansı.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10- İnsanlara ne yapabileceklerini söyleyebilme şansı	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11- Yeteneklerimi kullanarak birşeyler yapabilme şansı..	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12- Hükümet politikalarının uygulanma şekli.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13- Ücret ve yaptığım iş.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14- İşimde ilerleme şansı.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15- Kendi yargılarımı kullanma şansı	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16- İş yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi kullanma şansı	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17- Çalışma koşulları	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18- Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan birbiriyle anlaşma tarzı.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19- İyi bir iş başardıktan sonra aldığım övgü.....	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20- İşimden aldığım başarı hissi	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Aşağıdaki her bir ifade için size en çok uyan seçeneğe “X” işareti koyunuz.

1= Hiç Katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3= Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum 4=Katılıyorum
5=Tamamen Katılıyorum

Çalışanların Örgüt Kültürü					
Katılım					
1. Çalışanların çoğu yaptıkları işle bütünleşmişlerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çalışanlar arasında yeterli ölçüde bilgi paylaşımı olduğundan, gerektiğinde herkes istenilen bilgiye ulaşabilmektedir	1	2	3	4	5
3. İş planları yapılırken, tüm çalışanlar karar verme sürecine belli ölçüde dâhil edilir	1	2	3	4	5
4. Farklı bölümler arasında iş birliği yapılamamaktadır [R]	1	2	3	4	5
5. Takım çalışması yapılması, bütün iş faaliyetlerinde esas alınmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Tüm çalışanlar kendi görevleri ile işletmenin amaçları arasındaki ilişkiyi kavrar	1	2	3	4	5
7. Çalışanlara kendi işlerini planlamaları için gerekli yetki verilmektedir	1	2	3	4	5
8. Çalışanların iş kapasiteleri sürekli gelişim göstermektedir	1	2	3	4	5
9. Çalışanların iş görme becerilerin artırmak için gerekenler yapılmaktadır	1	2	3	4	5
Uzlaşma					
10. Yöneticiler söylediklerini uygulamamaktadır	1	2	3	4	5
11. İş görme yöntemlerimize yol gösteren tutarlı bir değerler sistemimiz vardır	1	2	3	4	5
12. İşlerin yürütülmesinde davranışlarımızı yönlendirecek doğru ile yanlışın ayırt edilmesini sağlayan değerler yoktur [R]	1	2	3	4	5
13. İş faaliyetlerinde bir anlaşmazlık meydana geldiğinde, her bir çalışan tatmin edici bir çözüm bulmak için çok gayret göstermektedir	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bu iş yerinde güçlü bir işletme kültürü vardır	1	2	3	4	5
15. Problemler konusunda dahi kolayca bir görüş birliği sağlanabilmektedir	1	2	3	4	5
16. Çalışanlarımız işletmenin farklı bölümlerinde de olsalar iş faaliyetleri açısından ortak bir bakış açısını paylaşabilmektedirler	1	2	3	4	5
17. İşletmenin farklı bölümleri tarafından yürütülen faaliyetler kolayca koordine edilir	1	2	3	4	5
18. Başka bölümden biriyle çalışmak, farklı bir işletmeden biriyle çalışmak gibidir	1	2	3	4	5
Uyum yeteneği					
19. Esnek iş görme tarzımız değişime açıktır [R]	1	2	3	4	5
20. Rakip firmaların faaliyetleri ve iş alanındaki değişimlere bağlı olarak yönetim, uygun stratejiler geliştirebilmektedir	1	2	3	4	5

21. Yöneticilerimiz tarafından izlenen gelişmeler işletmemizde uygulanmaktadır	1	2	3	4	5
22. Müşteri talepleri, iş faaliyetlerinde değişiklikler yapılmasına yol açabilmektedir	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tüm çalışanlar, müşteri taleplerini anlamaya özen göstermektedir	1	2	3	4	5
24. Müşteri talepleri iş faaliyetlerimizde genellikle dikkate alınmamaktadır [R]	1	2	3	4	5
25. Herhangi bir başarısızlıkla karşılaşıldığında bu durum, yönetim tarafından, gelişim ve öğrenme için bir fırsat olarak değerlendirilir	1	2	3	4	5
26. Çalışanların inisiyatif alması yönetim tarafından teşvik edilmektedir	1	2	3	4	5
27. Çalışanların işleriyle ilgili olarak yeni bilgiler edinmesi önemli bir amaçtır	1	2	3	4	5

Vizyon					
28. Uzun dönemli bir iş programına dayalı belirli bir gelişim planımız mevcuttur	1	2	3	4	5
29. Çalışanların yaptıkları işlere yön verebilecek açık bir işletme misyonumuz vardır	1	2	3	4	5
30. İşletmenin geleceğine yönelik olarak belirlenmiş stratejik bir iş planı yoktur [R]	1	2	3	4	5
31. İşletmenin faaliyet amaçlarına ilişkin olarak çalışanlar arasında tam bir uzlaşısı vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Yöneticiler, işletmemizin temel hedefleri doğrultusunda hareket eder	1	2	3	4	5
33. Çalışanlar, uzun dönemde işletmenin başarı için yapılması gerekenleri bilirler	1	2	3	4	5
34. Çalışanlar, geleceğe yönelik olarak belirlenmiş olan işletme vizyonunu paylaşmaz [R]	1	2	3	4	5
35. Yöneticilerimiz uzun dönemli bir bakış açısına sahiptirler	1	2	3	4	5
36. Kısa dönemli iş talepleri, vizyonumuzdan ödün vermeden karşılanabilmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 2

CURRICULUM VITAE (CV)

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Rashid Khalilov



Sex Male | Date of birth | Nationality

JOB APPLIED FOR
POSITION
PREFERRED JOB
STUDIES APPLIED FOR
PERSONAL STATEMENT

Replace with job applied for / position / preferred job / studies applied for / personal statement (delete non relevant headings in left column)

WORK EXPERIENCE

15 Feb 2019 – 30 May 2019

International Center for Social and Marketing Research(ICSMR) -
Project Manager

- Performed tasks central to program progressing including, scheduling and resource management
- Analyzed and then effectively strategized in regard to deadlines, budgets, needed resources and team member coordination
- Communicated with, coordinated project employees
- Clearly communicated problems and progress to upper management via engaging in presentations
- Consistently met deadlines with employees

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

15 Sep 2015- 1 June 2019

Degree In Sociology

Replace with EQF
(or other) level if
relevant

Baku State University (Azerbaijan)

PERSONAL SKILLS

Mother tongue(s) Azerbaijani

Other language(s)

	UNDERSTANDING		SPEAKING		WRITING
	Listening	Reading	Spoken interaction	Spoken production	
English	B2	C1	B2	B1	B2
Replace with name of language certificate. Enter level if known.					
Turkish	C2	C2	C2	C2	C2
Replace with name of language certificate. Enter level if known.					

Levels: A1/A2: Basic user - B1/B2: Independent user - C1/C2 Proficient user
[Common European Framework of Reference for Languages](#)

Communication skills

- Good communication skills gained through my education as I studied sociology. There is a need to communicate with many people to clarify situations in Sociology. So, this helped me to develop my skills.

Organisational / managerial skills

- Acquired general understanding about management. I have a little experience in this sphere as I worked as Project Manager in a little period of time

Job-related skills

- Good command of quality control processes
- Documentation
- Microsoft Office
- Problem Solving
- Organization