



**A SEM STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT,
BURNOUT, AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG ENGLISH
INSTRUCTORS IN TURKEY**



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Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

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**A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING STUDY OF
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, BURNOUT, AND JOB
SATISFACTION AMONG ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS IN TURKEY**

(Doctoral Dissertation)

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ABSTRACT

In the modern world, similar to any other kind of organization, universities need to sustain their existence and be competitive; however, it is not possible to reach these aims without the contribution of individuals. Apparently, it is crucial to ensure the peace and happiness of the employees in a workplace since other sources of organizations can only be activated by human resources. In Turkish universities, the School/Department of Foreign Languages and the Turkish instructors of English (henceforth English instructors or Turkish EFL instructors) working at these schools have a significant mission which is preparing students for their future career and contributing their academic skills by teaching them English. In spite of their important mission, the professional identity, problems, and status of English instructors have been neglected in the literature. Thus, the current dissertation appeared in response to a niche for English instructors' job-related feelings. This study has a two-fold purpose. The first one is to report the English instructors' organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction levels at the tertiary level in the Turkish context in order to reflect the general situation in the country. The other one is to investigate the possible direct and indirect relationships among the main constructs by testing a hypothesized model through the use of structural equation modelling (SEM). The current dissertation employs

questionnaires as quantitative research techniques with the aim of reaching as many English instructors as possible. An e-mail which includes a link for the online questionnaires and an explanation for the participants was sent to the e-mail addresses of randomly chosen 4.400 English instructors from various universities. At the end of the data collection process, 426 English instructors from (at least) 98 different universities participated in the study. The data were analysed with SPSS 20 and LISREL programs. The overall results indicated that Turkish EFL instructors were slightly committed to their organizations and revealed some signs of burnout, but there was a lack of a severe case. In addition, English instructors felt slightly satisfied with the intrinsic factors, which involved the main elements of being a teacher but felt neutral about extrinsic (contextual) factors. As for the second purpose of this study, a two-step approach was adopted. Firstly, in order to ensure the validity of the questionnaires, a measurement model was specified, and then a structural model was specified to investigate interrelations among latent constructs spontaneously, including the measurement errors. The SEM analysis verified the hypothesized model and put forward that there is a strong, positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, yet there is a mediocre negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout. Finally, there is a negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction. Additionally, considering the R^2 values, it was found out that organizational commitment explains 22% variance of the burnout; organizational commitment and burnout explains 59% variance of job satisfaction; organizational commitment has a total effect of 0.74 on job satisfaction. Thus, the hypothesized relations were found to be significant, and organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction significantly affect each other at a considerable level. The implications were discussed.

Key Words: English instructors, organizational commitment, burnout, job satisfaction, structural equation modelling (SEM)

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**TÜRKİYE’DE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİM GÖREVLİLERİNİN
ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK, TÜKENMİŞLİK VE İŞ TATMİNLERİNE
İLİŞKİN BİR YAPISAL EŞİTLİK MODELLEMESİ ARAŞTIRMASI**

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ÖZ

Modern dünyada, diğer tüm organizasyonlar gibi üniversitelerin de amacı varlıklarını sürdürmek ve rekabetçi olmaktır ancak bireylerin katkısı olmadan bu amaçlara ulaşmak mümkün değildir. Görünen o ki, örgütlerin diğer kaynakları ancak insan kaynakları tarafından harekete geçirilebileceğinden, bir işyerinde çalışanların huzur ve mutluluğunun sağlanması çok önemlidir. Türk üniversitelerinde Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu/Bölümü ve bu okullarda görev yapan İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin öğrencileri gelecekteki kariyerlerine hazırlamak ve onlara İngilizce öğretmek akademik becerilerine katkıda bulunmak gibi önemli bir misyonu vardır. İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin bu önemli misyonlarına rağmen mesleki kimlikleri, sorunları ve statüleri literatürde ihmal edilmiştir. Bu nedenle, mevcut tez, İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin işle ilgili tutum ve duygularına yönelik bir boşluğu doldurmak amacıyla ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu çalışmanın iki yönlü bir amacı vardır. İlki, ülkedeki genel durumu yansıtmak için İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin örgütsel bağlılık, tükenmişlik ve iş tatmin düzeylerini Türkiye bağlamında raporlamaktır. Diğerisi ise, yapısal eşitlik modellemesi (YEM) kullanılarak oluşturulmuş bir modeli test ederek ana yapılar arasındaki olası doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri araştırmaktır. Mevcut tezde, mümkün olduğunca çok sayıda İngilizce öğretim görevlisine ulaşmak amacıyla nicel

araştırma tekniği olan anket kullanmaktadır. Çeşitli üniversitelerde görev yapmakta olan rastgele seçilmiş 4.400 İngilizce öğretim görevlisinin e-posta adreslerine çevrimiçi anket bağlantısı ve gerekli açıklamaları içeren bir e-posta gönderilmiştir. Veri toplama sürecinin sonunda, çalışmaya (en az) 98 farklı üniversiteden 426 İngilizce öğretim görevlisi katılmıştır. Veriler SPSS 20 ve LISREL programları ile analiz edilmiştir. Genel sonuçlar, Türk İngilizce öğretim görevlilerinin kuruluşlarına biraz bağlı olduklarını göstermiştir. Bahsi geçen öğretim görevlileri her ne kadar bazı tükenmişlik belirtileri göstermiş olsalar da ciddi bir tükenmişlik durumu yoktur. İngilizce öğretim görevlileri, öğretmen olmanın temel öğelerini içeren içsel faktörlerden biraz memnun, ancak bağlamsal faktörler konusunda kararsız hissetmektedirler. Bu çalışmanın ikinci amacı için iki aşamalı bir yaklaşım benimsenmiştir. İlk olarak anketlerin geçerliliğini sağlamak için bir ölçüm modeli belirlenmiş, ardından gizil yapılar arasındaki ilişkileri araştırmak için ölçüm hatalarını da içeren yapısal bir model belirlenmiştir. YEM analizi, oluşturulan modeli doğrulamış ve örgütsel bağlılık ile iş tatmini arasında güçlü, pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu, ancak örgütsel bağlılık ile tükenmişlik arasında orta düzeyde negatif bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Son olarak, tükenmişlik ile iş tatmini arasında negatif bir ilişki vardır. Ayrıca R^2 değerleri dikkate alındığında örgütsel bağlılığın tükenmişliğin %22'lik varyansını açıkladığı; örgütsel bağlılık ve tükenmişlik, iş tatminindeki varyansın %59'unu açıkladığı bulunmuştur. Bunun yanı sıra, örgütsel bağlılığın iş tatmini üzerinde toplam etkisi 0,74'tür. Böylece, varsayılan ilişkiler anlamlı bulunmuş ve örgütsel bağlılık, tükenmişlik ve iş tatmininin birbirlerini önemli ölçüde etkiledikleri ortaya konmuştur. Sonuçlarla ilgili öneriler detaylı olarak tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizce öğretim görevlileri, örgütsel bağlılık, tükenmişlik, iş tatmini, yapısal eşitlik modellemesi (YEM)

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EPI	English Proficiency Index
ESL	English as a Second Language
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
K12	Kindergarten through 12 th Grade
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
L2	Second Language
LISREL	Lineal Structural Relationships
ML	Maximum Likelihood
MBI-ES	Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
NNFI	Non-normed Fit Index
OCS	Organizational Commitment Scale

OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PhD.	Doctor of Philosophy
RMSEA	The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RML	Robust Maximum Likelihood
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TEPAV	The Economic Policy Foundation of Turkey
TUIK	Turkish Statistical Institute
YOK	Council of Higher Education
χ^2 / df	Normed Chi Square

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the research area and background of the study in order to provide a better understanding of the research. After the aim of the study is presented, the research questions and significance of the study are given. Finally, some limitations, assumptions, and definitions of key concepts are presented to make the study more comprehensible for any reader.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Educational organizations can be defined as one of the main constructs of society, and their effectiveness is related to several factors including satisfactory resources, consistent policies, qualified employees with healthy working conditions (Celep, 2000). According to Ulrich (1997), employees are expected to collaborate with others and commit to a high-quality of performance, thus employees engagement and health have become crucial in recent years. In educational organizations, human beings have a more crucial role than any other organizations as they participate at any position of the input-process-output circle of the educational organizations; in this process, “input” is students, “process” is the teacher and “output” is a qualified work (Celep, 2000, p. 1). Therefore, as the most valuable and most

costly aspect of education systems are the people who are teaching, it is crucial to maintain their well-being (Maslach & Leiter, 1999).

Since the goal of each organization is to protect and carry on their existence, the commitment of the individuals to the organization is necessary (Ulrich, 1997). Once the members of the organization are committed, it becomes more successful (Balcı, 2003; Gören & Yengin-Sarpkaya, 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Somech & Bogler, 2002). In other words, it is possible to say that organizational commitment is an important factor since mostly committed employees are willing to make considerable effort to achieve the goals of the organization (Dee, Henkin & Singleton, 2006; Nagar, 2012). In the field of education, committed teachers have been found to raise the quality of education, job performance, and students' success (Tsui & Cheng, 1999; Kett, 2014) due to their tendency to be diligent, loyal, and satisfied (Bogler & Nir, 2015; Celep, 1998; Nagar, 2012; Somech & Bogler, 2002). Compared with teachers with low commitment, teachers with high commitment work harder, show stronger attachment to schools, motivate their students to improve a positive attitude towards learning (Lawrence & Deepa, 2012).

As educational organizations, universities can be defined as the last step of education for young generations. Universities offer opportunities to gain academic skills or to discover and develop students' abilities in various subject areas so that they can make contribution to the social and economic well-being of their countries (Kırkgöz, 2013). One of the prominent abilities that students are expected to acquire is being able to communicate in a foreign language, which is mostly the English language in the Turkish case. Based on the report of the Education First English Proficiency Index (EF EPI, 2021), which attempts to rank countries by the average level of English language skills amongst adults, the English proficiency of Turkish people is defined as *low proficiency*, and Turkey is announced to be 70th in 112 countries (EF EPI, 2021). This fact reveals that although Turkish students have at least eight years of English education before higher education and occasionally two years of English education at university, they still have low proficiency levels. This situation and feeling of failure cause negative feelings towards language learning for both students and instructors. Especially in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) settings, such as Turkey, English teachers are being held responsible for the success or failure of their students, therefore, this situation and high expectation from English teachers make teaching English stressful (Akbari & Roudi, 2020; Atila, 2014; Atmaca, 2017; Güneş & Uysal, 2019; Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021).

A report published in 2015 by British Council and TEPAV related to language teaching in higher education suggests that students are not motivated to learn English when they first begin their university classes owing to the mismatch between their learning goals and the present curriculum (British Council & TEPAV, 2015). From language instructors' perspective, this mismatch increased the pressure and finally the feelings of stress and burnout. The findings of research studies reveal that every teacher can suffer from some amount of burnout (Atmaca, 2017; Güneş & Uysal, 2019; Maslach & Leiter, 1997, 1999, 2008; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, 2017b) as a result of constant stress. However, the situation can be more serious in EFL settings as the teacher is the main source of the target language, and students do not find learning a foreign language necessary since they cannot use it in their daily lives (British Council & TEPAV, 2013). Different from English as a Second Language setting (ESL), where students are exposed to the target language outside the classroom, EFL teachers need to spend too much time and energy to keep students' interest into the target language alive. Additionally, English teachers in EFL settings are under pressure of knowing everything related to English, and these demanding tasks make English teachers more stressed and anxious than other teacher groups (Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021). Accordingly, EFL teachers can be seen as one of the outstanding groups of employees who are subject to burnout due to the difficulty of language teaching in EFL settings.

The findings of previous research have revealed that burned out teachers are no longer able to form student-teacher relation, tend to feel inefficacious (Burke, Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996), irritated, depressed, contemptuous (Kavanoz & Kırkgöz, 2020) because they are less sympathetic, have a lower tolerance for frustration and feel more anxious and exhausted (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Apparently, teacher burnout is not only a personal "tragedy" that causes intense personal pain (Graham, 1999), but also it is a problem with serious consequences for the learning outcomes of students (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Rudow (1999) emphasizes that the adverse effect of teacher burnout on the quality of teaching as teachers experiencing burnout perform less than the others regarding behaviours towards students or professional practices. Likewise, Shen et al. (2015) suggest that the burnout status of a teacher is significant owing to the possible consequences on students' motivation. Hence, protecting teachers from being burned out becomes important when the interpersonal nature of teaching, which involves emotional demands from a teacher, is taken into consideration (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015).

Another important factor that might affect the teachers' performance, and thus the success of both the organization, and students is job satisfaction of teachers (Aydin, Sarier & Uysal, 2013; Nagar, 2012). Teachers who are satisfied with their job are more likely to show higher levels of motivation and, as a result, lower levels of stress and burnout (Bogler & Nir, 2015; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca & Malone, 2006). The satisfaction of teachers and their tendency to behave in harmony with the organizational goals are determinant factors in the effectiveness of an organization (Aydin et al., 2013). In addition, satisfied teachers are more eager to spend time and energy in order to provide their students with better education (Demirel, 2014a; Nagar, 2012; Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006). Furthermore, job satisfaction is considered a factor which is related to turnover of teachers (leaving the profession), decreased commitment, absenteeism, lower productivity, reduced ability to meet student needs, psychological disorders, and burnout (Karavas, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017a; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Consequently, teacher job satisfaction is not only linked to teacher turnover, but also it promotes the well-being of teachers and students, overall school cohesion, and enhanced status of the teaching profession (Toropova, Myrberg & Johansson, 2021).

Universities are responsible for creating and cultivating knowledge for the sake of building a modern world, and academic staff are the key source within higher education (Stankovska, 2017). Accordingly, identifying and understanding factors enhancing the job satisfaction of academics is vital for recruiting and retaining high-quality academic staff and for improving the information to nurture a successful education system (Byrne, Chughtai, Flood & Willis, 2012). Additionally, it is necessary to ensure a high level of educator job satisfaction because lower job satisfaction levels may cause little commitment and high levels of stress (Karavas, 2010). However, previous studies in various countries reveal that compared to other professions, teachers suffer much more job-related stress and are less satisfied with their jobs (Maslach et al., 2001; Noori, Fameti & Najjari, 2014). In the literature, it has been reported that dissatisfied educators can lose their desire to teach, develop a cynical approach to students/teaching, become less motivated, become less committed, and develop burnout (Kett, 2014).

In conclusion, even though English instructors are viewed as one of the major factors in the language learning of students and success of the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages, English instructors' job-related feelings and the variables that might affect their performance at work are ignored (Baltacı, 2019; Tayfur-Ekmekci, Bayhan-Karapinar,

Metin-Camgoz, Ozsoy-Ozmen & Kumbul-Guler, 2021). Previous research has put forward that especially organizational factors are very influential on teachers' work-related feelings (Ardıç, 2002; Maslach, 1999; Maslach et al., 2001; Öztürk, 2013; Slegers, 1999) and associated with teaching quality (Perie & Baker, 1997). Based on the related literature and observations in the field, organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction are determined as prominent constructs that can affect English instructors' performance, well-being, and indirectly students' success and effectiveness of Foreign Languages Departments/Schools of universities. Consequently, focusing on direct and indirect relationships among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction of English instructors is the focus of this dissertation.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This study has two main aims. The first one is to report the English instructors' organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction levels at the tertiary level in the Turkish context in order to observe the general situation in the country. Another aim of this study is to investigate the relationship among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction of English instructors at preparatory schools of state/foundation universities in Turkey. The main area of investigation is defining the possible direct and indirect relationships among these constructs through the use of structural equation modelling. Therefore, the research questions of the present study are:

- 1) What is the organizational commitment level of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary level?
- 2) What is the burnout level of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary level?
- 3) What is the job satisfaction level of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary the level?
- 4) What is the nature of the relationship among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary level?

The hypotheses generated in this dissertation are as follows:

Research Hypothesis 1: There is a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout of English instructors.

Research Hypothesis 2: There is a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction of English instructors.

Research Hypothesis 3: There is a significant negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction of English instructors.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This dissertation is important in a number of ways. Administrators, teachers, and students, who can be defined as the permanent items in the learning/teaching process, are closely associated with the effectiveness of educational organizations (Celep, 2000). English instructors at the tertiary level are a very specific group who has their unique problems because of learners' age group, and their working conditions differ from both K-12 teachers and also the other academics at universities. In the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages, English instructors are part of a small system which has its own rules, concerns, students, and instructors like a small ecosystem. In the Turkish context, the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages have a significant mission which is preparing students for their future careers and contributing their academic skills by improving their English proficiency. English instructors working at these institutions constitute a significant part of overall academic staff; however, their professional identities, problems, and status have been neglected (Baltacı, 2019). Although there are approximately 5.000 English instructors working at foundation and state universities, there are only few studies which put emphasize on English instructors' job-related feelings and well-being.

Despite the fact that there are several studies that aim to report organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction separately, to the best of our knowledge, there are no studies investigating the tripartite relationship among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction in the field of ELT. All of the constructs above mentioned have been proved to affect the performance of the teacher and indirectly the success of students and also the organizations (Baluyos, Rivera & Baluyos, 2019; Cephe, 2010; Chang, 2009; Güner, 2015; Nagar, 2012; Rezaee, Khoshsima, Zare-Bahtash & Sarani, 2018; Safari, 2020; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017b; Toropova et al., 2021), which are universities in this case. Therefore, this current study, firstly, aims to draw the general picture of English instructors' level of organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction and then shed light on the relationship among these delicate constructs. Another importance of this study is the

representativeness of the sample group. The sample group of the majority of the previous studies involves only one university or a few state of foundation universities. However, this study aims to reach participants from almost all of the universities in Turkey; in other words, the study aims to report the general voice of English instructors working at both state and foundation universities as a whole.

Even though there are some studies that have earlier focused on the bivariate relations between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Arı, 2021; Arslan, 2019; Bogler & Nir, 2014; Chen, 2008; Farris, 2012; Kamaylar, 2018; Malik, Nawab, Naeem & Danish, 2010; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tezcan, 2010; Yücel & Bektaş, 2012), burnout and job satisfaction (Atila, 2014; Atmaca, 2017; Bilge, 2006; Koustelios and Tsigilis, 2005; Safari, 2020; Samadi, Bagheri, Sadighi & Yarmohammadi, 2020; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009, 2011) organizational commitment and burnout (Akdemir, 2019; Bohorquez, 2016; Güneş, Bayraktaroğlu & Kutanis, 2009; Palice, 2020; Tezcan, 2010) in various fields, there are not any research studies which aim to investigate the relationship among these three constructs in the field of ELT. The findings of this study will give insight into the field about the direct and indirect relations among these three constructs by using a Structural Equation Model (SEM). Thanks to SEM, a model is proposed, and based on that model, it is possible to see the direct and indirect relations between dependent and independent variables at the same time, including the measurement errors (Byrne, 2001). Moreover, the study may help researchers adopt the proposed model for different subject fields such as mathematics and music education.

Additionally, the study in hand may help the instructors, university administrators, policymakers, and researchers to better comprehend the relations among the important constructs of interest and to use this information to promote the well-being of instructors, the success of both learners and universities. Based on the information gathered from this study, the organizational factors that affect English instructors' organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction can be clarified in the Turkish context. Knowing these factors can contribute to the effectiveness of the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages, which are responsible for the language development of university students in Turkey. In conclusion, due to the scarcity of research on English instructors' organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction, the present study aims to contribute to the field by proposing a model by means of SEM.

1.4. Assumptions

It is assumed that all the participants in the study responded the questionnaire items willingly and frankly in a way representing their genuine ideas related to organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction. Moreover, it is believed that the sample of the study ($n=426$), who are affiliated to (at least) 98 different universities in Turkey, can represent the universe ($N=5000$). Another assumption about the participants was that as all the participants in the sample group are English instructors, they could clearly comprehend the questionnaires without translating their native language. Additionally, it was considered that three of the questionnaires were appropriate to gather data about the constructs of interest. Finally, it is believed that the relationship among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction is suitable to analyse by means of Structural Equation Modeling, and the determined research design and statistical procedures correspond to the aim of the study.

1.5. Limitations

In addition to the assumptions above, the current study has some limitations that could affect the results. The first limitation is related to the generalizability of the results for the other stages of education. As the participants were all English instructors working at Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages at universities in Turkey, the findings cannot be generalized for primary, secondary, or high school teachers. In order to get more reliable and generalizable results, the study may be replicated in different contexts or with larger sample groups.

To reach a larger group, data were collected via an online questionnaire, and this might have affected the quality of data as elder generations might have preferred to respond a paper-pen style questionnaire or some participants were not very familiar with online questionnaires. Another issue is the nature of organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction. As questionnaires are self-assessment tools and it was expected that participants evaluated their own level of organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction, it might have been difficult for them to differentiate whether their feelings were real, or it is just their perception. This would also constitute a limit to the results of this study.

1.6. Definitions of Key Terms

Organizational commitment: “a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 14).

Burnout: “a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressor on the job” (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001, p. 397).

Job satisfaction: “a pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or experiences.” (Locke, 1976, p. 1366).

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM): SEM refers to a family of related procedures for testing carefully delineated multivariate models based on hypotheses about how observed and unobserved variables are interrelated (Hoyle, 1995).

ELT: Abbreviation for English Language Teaching: the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/elt>).

Instructor/Lecturer (Öğretim Görevlisi/Okutman): Instructors at university who are assigned to teach common and compulsory lessons for the majority of the department including English, Turkish or History. Instructors are responsible for only giving lessons, not carrying out research studies. In the current study, the term “EFL instructors” was chosen to define the English instructors who are giving English lessons at a preparatory school or department of a university (YOK, 1981).

EFL (English as a Foreign Language): EFL situation means learning English in one’s native culture with only limited opportunities to use language within the environment of that culture (Brown, 2000).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

“Classrooms may be crowded yet schools can be lonely places.”

(De Heus & Diekstra, 1999, p.284)

This chapter, review of literature, is assigned to discuss major theories, key concepts of organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction, respectively. Prominent research studies related to concepts in educational contexts are presented with the aim of underlying the current situation in the field.

2.1. Organizational Commitment

The profound purpose of all systems is to sustain their existence and to accomplish that, they need to produce a product; however, it is not possible to reach this aim without the contribution of individuals (Celep, 2000). In today's world, employees from different professions are expected to collaborate with co-workers and commit high-quality performance by their organizations (Ulrich, 1997). Even though all the necessary organic, physical, and economic conditions exist for the effectiveness of an organization, the performance of the organization may not be favourable if individuals' attachment, needs, and expectations are not considered (Celep, 2000). Since organizational commitment has

important implications not only for employees and the organization but also for society (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), it has been an intriguing area for researchers (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Thus, researchers agree that there is a need to gain a deeper understanding of processes related to organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982; Powell & Meyer, 2004). The reason why commitment gets that much attention is the fact that commitment has been found to be an important indicator of work-related behaviours such as turnover, performance, tenure and, etc. (Meyer & Allen, 1991). What is more important is that committed employees go beyond the requirements of their job to make personal contributions to their organization (Mowday, et al., 1982).

Starting from the 1960s, research has revealed that high levels of commitment are associated with low turnover and occasionally improving performance (Jaros, 2007; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). Commitment is "... a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function." (Scholl, 1981, p. 593). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), on the other hand, define organizational commitment as "a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (p. 301). Similarly, Salancik (1977), who highlights the necessity of "volition" for all kinds of commitment, proposes that commitment is "... a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement." (p. 62). From a normative perspective, Wiener (1982) puts forward that organizational commitment is "the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests" (p. 421). In the organizational commitment literature, there are several definitions and conceptual frameworks which can cause confusion and disagreement about what commitment is; however, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) emphasize that all the definitions share a common basis which is "stabilizing or obliging force" of commitment that "gives direction to behaviour" (p. 301). Accordingly, it is possible to view that commitment has "a core essence" regardless of the context in which it is studied (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 299). In order to comprehend the contemporary meaning and importance of organizational commitment, it is necessary to examine various conceptualizations developed by scholars from different subject areas. In the following section, some widespread definitions and the underlying foundations of organizational commitment will be presented in a historical timeline.

2.1.1. Theoretical Development of Organizational Commitment

Since the 1960s, organizational commitment has been a major focus of research and researchers have spent ample time developing theories related to its' definition, conceptualization, components, antecedents, and consequences. After years of research, numerous frameworks, and accumulated data, it is now accepted that commitment is a multidimensional concept and the consequences, antecedents and correlates of commitment differ in dimensions (Meyer et al., 2002). Wiener (1982) highlights the need for more coherent and systematically conceptualized frameworks that can meet three criteria: a) definitional precision, b) theoretical integration with related concepts, and c) predicting power. In the literature of organizational behaviour, commitment and psychology, diversity in the conceptualization and measurement of organizational commitment have increased the complexity of the term and made it difficult to compare the findings of research studies (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Besides, different terms have been used to define the same concepts which create a more complex situation (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Even though this diversity has caused different definitions and made it difficult to compare the findings of the studies, this lack of consensus in the definition of organizational commitment contributed a lot to its treatment as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Wasti, 2005). In other words, over the years, many researchers have defined and measured organizational commitment in various ways and these various perspectives enrich the organizational commitment as a construct (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The roots of organizational commitment are based on the side-bet theory of Becker (1960). Becker suggests that "commitments come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (1960, p. 32). According to Becker, the term "side-bets" refers to the accumulation of investments valued by the individual that would be lost if one were to leave the organization (Cohen, 2007). In other words, side bets increase one's tendency to stay with the organization and they can be in different forms such as generalized cultural expectations about responsible behaviour, self-presentation concerns, impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, and individual adjustments to social positions and non-work concerns (Powell & Meyer, 2004). At first, organizational commitment was regarded as a uni-dimensional and behaviourally focused concept that could be used to foresee employees' intent to leave the organization (Becker, 1960; Scholl, 1981). In simple terms, this theory posits that committed employees are committed as they

have hidden investments, “side-bets” (e.g., non-transferable pension), and these side-bets prevent them from leaving their organization (Cohen, 2007).

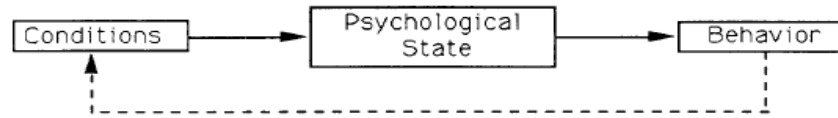
It has been more than five decades since Becker introduced his side-bet theory and it continues to be influential in the conceptualization of organizational commitment models (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Even though Becker’s theory was accepted as one of the initial concepts, it was criticized for the inconsistency due to the definition and measurement of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Powell and Meyer (2004) claim that measurement of side-bets has always caused problems because of their idiosyncratic nature. Even after years of research, various frameworks, and divergences in his theory, it is possible to see the footprints of Becker’s ideas related to the connection between commitment and turnover in the following models such as the concept of “continuance commitment” component of Three-Component Model developed by Meyer and Allen in 1991 (Cohen, 2007).

Starting from the 1970s, the tendency to perceive organizational commitment as side-bets disappeared and organizational commitment has begun to be considered a psychological attachment one had to the organization (Cohen, 2007). As the number of definitions and frameworks concerning organizational were increasing, Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974), Staw (1977), and Salancik (1977), underlined the necessity to differentiate commitment from organizational behaviourists’ perspective and social psychologists’ perspective as the term commitment was used by different researchers to explain different ideas. The researchers from organizational behaviourists’ view commitment as an employee attitude and this approach is referred to as attitudinal commitment by Staw (1977). This approach emphasizes the process by which individuals tend to think about their relationship with their employers (Scholl, 1981). Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) suggest that for the attitudinal commitment, the focus is on the consideration of the extent of congruence between employees’ own goals and values and those of the organization. On the other hand, Staw (1977), Salancik (1977) and others have suggested the notion of behavioural commitment (Mowday et al., 1982) based on the work of social psychologists. This school recognizes commitment as a force binding the individual to the organization. Behavioural commitment focuses on by which people come to bound to their organizations and how they managed this organizational attachment (Becker, 1960).

Scholl (1981) expresses that the concept of commitment is used to explain performance and membership from attitudinal school; on the other hand, behavioural school confines itself to

the employee membership decision. Mowday et al. (1982) propose that one of the approaches puts emphasis on the influence of commitment attitudes on behaviours, whereas the other one puts emphasis on the influence of committing behaviours on attitudes. Furthermore, they claim that there is a cyclical relationship between behavioural and attitudinal commitment and this relation strengthens the individual's commitment to the organization in the end. Attitudinal commitment mostly focuses on identifying the antecedents and their behavioural consequences, yet behavioural commitment research mainly interested in under which conditions a once exhibited behaviour is repeated and how this behaviour affects the attitude change (Modway et al., 1982). The previous researchers mostly based their models or approaches on behavioural commitment (Becker, 1960; Salancik, 1977); however, most subsequent researchers (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) have adopted an attitudinal approach while developing their models. Although various researchers have named the dimensions of organizational commitment differently, in fact, most of them overlap such as the similarity among Meyer et al.'s (1990) "affective commitment", Mowday and his associates' (1982) "involvement" dimension, and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) "identification" and "internationalization" dimensions (Sürücü & Maşlakçı, 2018). Two different approaches (attitudinal and behavioural) to organizational commitment are presented in Figure 2.1.

ATTITUDINAL PERSPECTIVE



BEHAVIORAL PERSPECTIVE

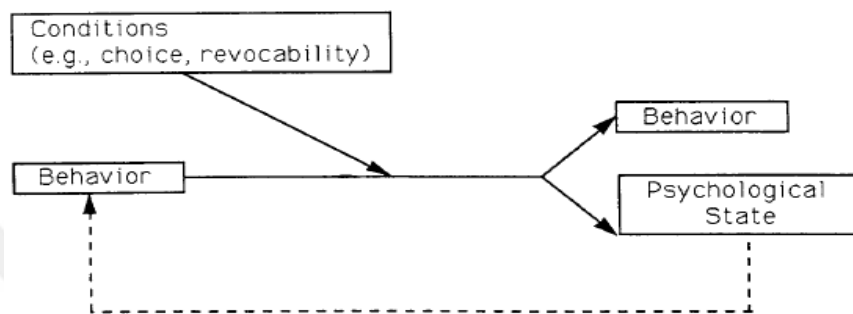


Figure 2.1. Attitudinal and behavioural perspectives on organizational commitment.

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

One of the most accepted definitions of commitment was proposed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) and they define the concept as “...the relative strength of an individual’s identification with involvement in a particular organization.” (p. 241). They characterize commitment in three related factors: belief in acceptance of organizational goals and values (identification), a willingness to exert effort on behalf of an organization (involvement), and strong desire to maintain membership (loyalty) (Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1974). In the light of this definition and characterization, they view commitment as a stable attitude that reflects a general affective response towards the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). In addition, Mowday (1998) claims that thanks to commitment, the life of an employee seems more meaningful; furthermore, from organizations’ perspective, committed employers increase performance, and diminish absenteeism and turnover. Mowday and his associates (1979) emphasize that organizational commitment is a significant factor in comprehending employees’ work behaviour, yet there is a lack of a reliable and valid tool to measure employees’ organizational commitment in previous studies (Cohen, 2007; Farris, 2012).

Porter et al. (1974) designed another tool, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), which can be considered a significant contribution to organizational commitment research. OCQ stems from the assumption that commitment happens when employees

extend effort towards organizational goals and values (Miroshnik, 2013). The tool followed a three-dimensional definition in the framework, yet, in many research studies, it has been mainly used to measure uni-dimensional attitudinal or affective commitment (Cohen, 2007). OCQ has 15 items which consisted of a section related to the psychological basis for attachment to the organization and two other sections focused on consequences of commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Cohen, 2007; Porter et al., 1974). It aimed to evaluate the acceptance of organizational values, willingness to exert effort and desire to maintain in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). However, OCQ was criticized as all the items focusing on turnover or performance intentions are more reflective behavioural intentions rather than attitudes (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

In the 1980s, multi-dimensional approaches which reconceptualize organizational commitment as collections of multiple commitments to groups inside and outside the organization (Reichers, 1985) began to appear (Randall, 1987). One of the innovative approaches was proposed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). They define organizational commitment as “the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization.” (p. 493). For organizational commitment, they proposed a multidimensional framework which consisted of compliance, identification, and internalization dimensions. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest that organizational commitment is a psychological attachment that can be foreseen by the assistance of three dimensions (Washington, 2017). The first dimension, compliance, takes place when attitudes are adopted to gain rewards; the second dimension, identification, occurs when one accepts influence to establish a relationship to the organization; the final dimension, internalization, happens when influence is accepted as the attitudes of an individual is being encouraged to adopt are consistent with existing values (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed a measure consistent with their model, but they were criticized as the dimensions of identification and internalization correlated highly; therefore, O'Reilly and his colleagues came up with a new term, normative commitment, by combining identification and internalization items (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Later, the compliance dimension started to be referred as instrumental commitment. Briefly, it is possible to say that their framework of organizational commitment was able to make a clear distinction between two processes of commitment: the instrumental exchange one and the psychological attachment one (Cohen, 2007).

As a result of conflicts between the supporters of attitudinal dimensional (Penley & Gould, 1988) or behavioural (Becker, 1960) commitment and uni-dimensional (Mowday et al., 1979) or multi-dimensional approaches (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), the relevant literature has become confusing (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991) reconceptualized organizational commitment as a psychological state by using a multi-dimensional approach and developed a measurement tool which contributed to the commitment literature a lot. To date, their model and measurement tool, Organizational Commitment Scale, have dominated the organizational study. As Three-Component Model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) has been accepted as one of the most comprehensive models that synthesizes the existing research, it was chosen as the theoretical framework to define and measure the organizational commitment of English instructors in this current dissertation. The Three-Component Model and its dimensions will be discussed in detail in the following section.

2.1.1.1. Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of organizational commitment can be regarded as a synthesis and reconceptualization of previous definitions and models. While improving their framework, like O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Meyer and Allen adopt a multi-dimensional approach which based on the idea that employees are exposed to more than one commitment at a time and that is the reason why their behaviours are affected by several commitments (Cohen, 2003). Meyer and Allen (1991) opined that commitment is a psychological state that describes an employee's relationship with the organization, and it affects an employee's decision to stay with the organization or leave it. In this sense, commitment to an organization is "a bond or linking of the individual to the organization" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 170). In their seminal work, while reconceptualizing organizational commitment by using the Three-Component Model, Meyer and Allen (1991) have two main aims: the first one is to facilitate the interpretation of existing literature and the second one is to create a framework for the future research (p. 61). Initially, Meyer and Allen (1984) put forward a distinction between affective and continuance commitment based on the study of Porter and his associates (1974) and side-bets theory of Becker (1960). Later, they add another component, normative commitment, which based on the previous work of

Weiner and Vardi in the 1980s. Thus, their model consists of three components: affective commitment (emotional attachment to organization), continuance commitment (awareness of the cost of leaving organization) and normative commitment (feeling of obligation) (See Figure 2.2) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Among these components, continuance and normative commitment can be viewed as behaviour patterns; nonetheless, affective commitment binds the personal values of the employee to the values of the organization seems to be mostly attitudinal (Miroshnik, 2013).

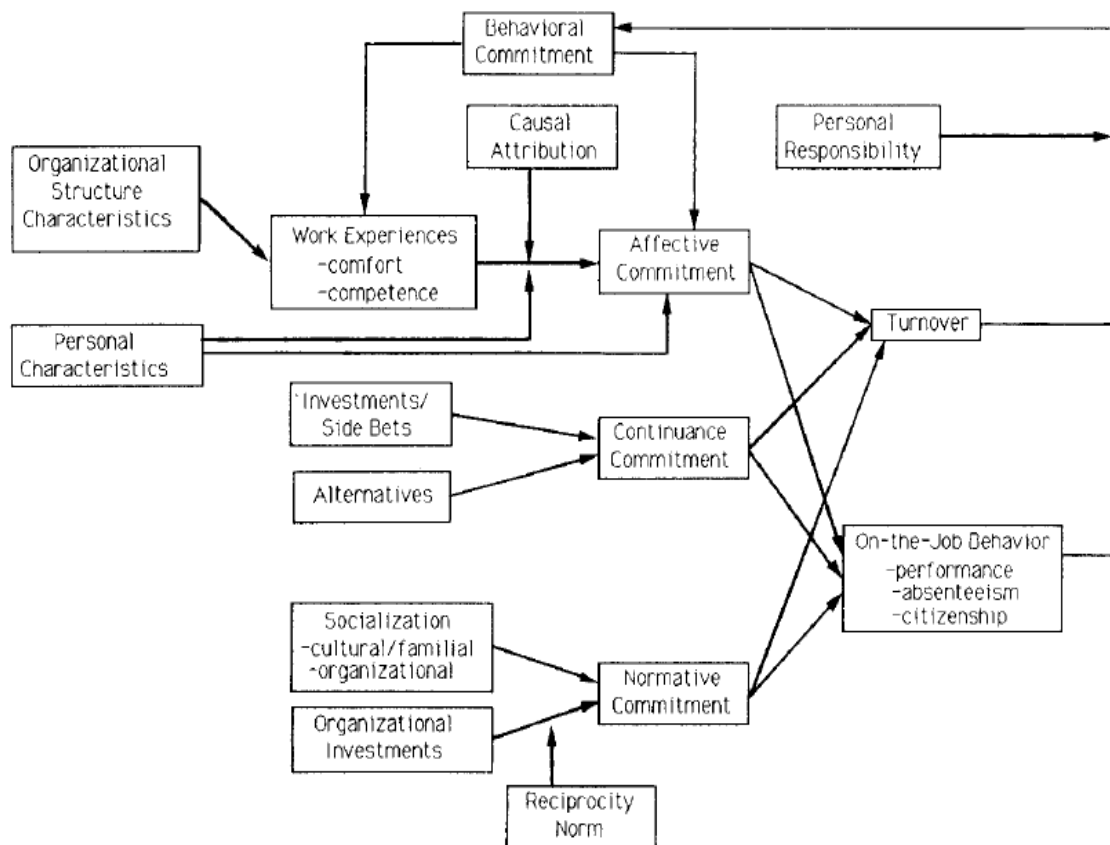


Figure 2.2. Three-Component model of organizational commitment. Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61-89.

Affective commitment is defined as an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization; therefore, if employees have strong affective commitment, they continue with the same organization because they “want to” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Antecedents of affective commitment can be categorized under three general headings: personal characteristics (age, tenure, sex, etc.), organizational structure (employee-supervisor relations, feelings of personal importance, etc.), and work experiences (organizational support, opportunity for self-expression, etc.) (Allen & Meyer, 1991;

Mowday et al., 1982). Furthermore, affective commitment results in a situation in which employees want to carry on their relationship with the organization (Dawley, Stephens & Stephens, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1997). When affective commitment occurs in employees, they become emotionally attached to the organization and match their own goals with the goals of the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). If employees are emotionally attached to the central values of organization, their commitment increases and thus the performance of the organization develops (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). In the literature, affective commitment is found to be the most researched component and also Meyer and Allen (1997) allege that among the components of the organizational commitment, it is the best to have highest level of affective commitment, followed by normative and continuance commitment. In the literature, due to its prominent role in employees' behaviours and performance, affective commitment has been studied more than the other components of commitment (Brown, 2003).

Continuance commitment refers to employees' awareness of costs; in other words, what they are going to lose associated with leaving the organization. Employees who mainly have continuance commitment stay in the organization because they “*need to*” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). The root of continuance commitment stems from Becker's side-bet approach and it aims to comprehend the extent to which employees feel committed to their organizations by virtue of cost that they feel are associated with leaving (Cohen, 2007). The most studied antecedents of continuance commitment are investments (side bets) and availability of alternatives; however, it is difficult to detect antecedents of this kind of commitment as side bets can take many forms such as losing attractive benefits (Becker, 1960). Similarly, Allen and Meyer (1990) propose that there might be several antecedents of continuance commitment including skills, education, relocation, self-investment, pension, community, and alternatives (p. 18). Despite the possibility of a decrease in turnover rate, research has revealed that continuance is the least desirable component of organizational commitment when compared with affective and normative commitment because employees who are staying in the organization not to lose side bets may not really contribute (Powell & Meyer, 2004). As a result of studies, the unity of the Continuance Commitment Scale was questioned in the literature and found to be a two-dimensional concept (McGee & Ford, 1987). Thus, the items of OCS were revised by Meyer et al. (1993) under two dimensions: Low Alternatives and High Sacrifice (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003).

Normative commitment refers to a feeling of obligation to stay in the organization and employees with this kind of commitment feel that they “*should*” remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Normative commitment revolves around employees’ feelings of obligation or loyalty to an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997) and it is affected by socialization and culture prior to entry into an organization (Dawley et al., 2005). Wiener (1982) claims that normative commitment is a result of one’s experiences both prior to work (familial and cultural socialization) and after s/he begins to work (organizational socialization). Normative commitment of employees may be fostered through providing them professional development opportunities. There is a strong positive relationship between normative and affective commitment owing to the age and tenure variables which can cause both emotional attachment and the feeling of indebted to an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that the antecedent of normative commitment is organization commitment norm which reflects the extent to which employees feel that the organization expects their loyalty (p. 9). The consequences of normative commitment have not been certainly identified and it is the least researched component of the model (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 2002).

Meyer and Allen (1991) remind that affective, continuance and normative commitment should be viewed as components rather than types of commitment as they are psychological states that are mutually exclusive. Unlike uni-dimensional models, components of the Three-Component Model will develop as functions of different antecedents and have different implications for work-relevant behaviour (See Figure 2.2). The three-Component Model aims to broaden the notion of organizational commitment by combining not only attitudinal but also behavioural aspects of commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). In other words, Meyer and his associates claim that their model of commitment has both affective and cognitive elements. Jaros (2007) puts forward that in the Three-Component Model, the cognitive elements are the behavioural terms and the basis of the commitment and the affective elements comprise whatever feelings a specific mindset invoke.

Different from previous commitment theorists such as Becker (1960), Allen and Meyer (1996) allege that employees with high levels of components of organizational commitment tend to stay with the organization and increase its effectiveness. The findings of previous research have revealed that high level of organizational commitment is linked to lower

turnover or absenteeism, and enhanced job performance (Chen, 2008; Jaros, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Having employees with higher commitment is crucial for organizations to be competitive as committed employees are willing to do more for their organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Although three components of organizational commitment differ primarily in terms the mind-set that binds the individual to the organization, the primary consequence of all three mind-sets is the same and that is continuation to the employment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In order to comprehend the organizational commitment of an individual, all three components should be evaluated together because an individual can simultaneously reveal different levels of commitments for each component (Meyer et al., 1993).

In accordance with their Three-Component Model, Meyer and Allen (1984, 1997) developed a survey, Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), which consists of 18 items and three well-validated scales: The Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS). Each of the scales is composed of Likert scale items which reflect feelings of individuals related to their organization and scales can be used separately to identify “commitment profile” of the employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Even though their model dominates the literature of organization commitment, there have been some criticisms concerning the measurement tool, OCS. Meyer et al. (1993) revised the items in the CCS owing to unity issues and later they developed an alternative CCS which consists of two sub-scales: the first one is “Perceived Cost” associated with leaving the organization and the second one is “Lack of Alternatives”. Additionally, as some researchers have suggested, items of normative and affective correlated highly; therefore, Meyer, Allen and Smith revised the items in 1993. As a whole, three different scales are distinctive elements of attitudinal commitment in which employees can experience all types of commitments at different degrees (Meyer et al., 1990; Washington, 2017). For the current study, the revised version of OCS developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) was utilized and more details about the data collection instruments will be given in the methodology chapter.

2.1.2. Consequences of Organizational Commitment

In terms of the consequences of organizational commitment, it is expected to reach different consequences for employees with different levels of commitment. In the literature, potential

positive and negative consequences of organizational commitment have been discussed (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Randall, 1987). Organizational commitment reveals the strongest relationship with the behavioural consequences including job satisfaction, motivation, desire to stay with the organization (positively), turnover and absenteeism (negatively). What is more important is the overall effect of organizational commitment in society. When it is considered in an individual degree, level of commitment assists employees to be more qualified as a result of extrinsic (pay) and psychological (job satisfaction) rewards associated with being part of that organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Regarding organizations, it is desirable to have committed employees who will avoid withdrawal behaviours (e.g., turnover). Furthermore, committed employees have a tendency to show greater effort to do more than what is necessary to do, and this helps the organization be more competitive (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Randall (1987) suggests that the positive and negative consequences of three different commitment levels (low, moderate, and high) from individuals and organizations' point of view.

Low level of commitment can have positive effects on individuals' creativity and innovativeness as they are not totally under the restrictive power of organizations. Moreover, minimally committed individuals are continuously looking for a job where they can fit better without making any kind of sacrifices (Mowday et al., 1982). Consequently, this effort may mean more effective use of human resources. However, low levels of commitment can cause problems in individuals' careers including slower career advancement and promotion as managers mostly prefer the ones who are more committed and trustable (Randall, 1987). From the perspective of organizations, it is possible to see low level of commitment as an advantage because of their objective evaluation of the productivity and mistakes of the organization, minimally commitment employees leave the organization (Randall, 1987). Therefore, the potential damage that may be caused by minimally committed individuals can be limited and also attitudes of other employees can improve themselves when the minimally committed individuals are absent (Mowday et al., 1982). This situation is also beneficial to an organization due to the fact that new employees replaced with the ones with low commitment levels will bring new skills to the organization (Blau & Boal, 1987). On the other hand, there is a close relationship between low level of commitment and turnover, absenteeism, low quality of work and disloyalty to a firm (Randall, 1987). Especially, if the manager of an organization is minimally committed, there is a risk of damage for the whole organization (Mowday et al., 1982).

In *moderate level of commitment*, individuals feel loyalty, belonging, security and also, they accept the values of the organization, but they still preserve their own personal values (Randall, 1987). As they do not totally internalize the values of the organization, this attitude of employees protects them from the stress which might stem from mistakes, conflicts, or productivity issues. However, a moderate level of commitment may not always be optimal for the individual as it will be difficult for them to overcome problems that rose from the conflict between responsibilities to society and loyalty to the organization (Katz & Khan, 1978). For organizations, as the level of organizational commitment rises, there might be longer employee tenure and an increase in job satisfaction. Moreover, the tendency of turnover and intention to leave increase (Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1984); thus, organizations can retake investments they make for the employees including in-service training and professional development opportunities. Yet, moderate commitment has negative results for the organization. As a result of the conflict between feeling responsible to the public or being loyal to the firm, employees may ignore the organization in order not to give up their own purposes and expectations (Randall, 1987).

High level of organizational commitment can have positive consequences on individuals such as a feeling of success and fulfilling salary. In response to individuals' loyalty, this behaviour is rewarded by the organization by giving power and providing career advancement (Randall, 1987). When employees' and organizations' values overlap, employees feel more satisfied and motivated (Mowday et al., 1982). Nonetheless, being highly committed limits the individuals' mobility and creativity (Randall, 1987). In addition, devoting too much time to work may cause low family involvement and tension in other relations. Moreover, employees with high level of commitment are the ones who are influenced most by problems (conflicts, economic instability, etc.) (Mowday et al., 1982). From the viewpoint of organization, highly committed individual can be regarded as secure and stable workforce (Steers, 1977). More importantly, as a result of high commitment, the organization will have high levels of task completion and performance. Despite the fact that organizations may benefit from the high levels of commitment, it also has negative consequences. For instance, too much commitment may reduce organization's flexibility and it can result in too much trust in past procedures and policies which can cause a lack of innovation (Salancik, 1977).

Apart from Randall's (1987) framework of consequences of organizational commitment, a substantial body of research revealed that higher level of organizational commitment has a great number of advantages. Some of the constructs which have been proven to increase the effectiveness and have a positive relationship with organizational commitment including job satisfaction (Nagar, 2012; Karakus, Ustuner & Toprak, 2014; Kamaylar et al., 2018; Yılmaz, 2009), performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002), motivation (Mowday et al., 1979; Rashed, 2017), desire to remain in the organization (Tsui, Egan & O'Reilly, 1992), attendance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In addition, based on the findings of previous studies, it is possible to list the disadvantages of low organizational commitment. A considerable amount of evidence indicated that organizational commitment is the predictor of work-related behaviours including turnover, absenteeism, and burnout (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dee et al., 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Nagar, 2012). In addition to studies in various fields, organizational commitment has attracted the interest of numerous researchers and found itself a significant place in the educational field.

2.1.3. Organizational Commitment in Educational Context

Meyer and Allen (1997) underline that the importance of organizational commitment is magnified when one realizes that “even a small change in employee performance can have a significant impact on the organization's bottom line and, as such, can help or hinder the organization's efforts to gain a competitive edge”. In a similar vein, Mowday and his associates (1982) allege that developing a deeper understanding of the processes related to organizational commitment has implications for individuals, organizations, and society. In this sense, organizational commitment is beneficial not only to the employee or organization but also the society as a whole since organizational commitment can reduce withdrawal behaviours such as turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and increase the dedication to attain the organizational goals, which brings organizational effectiveness in the end (Dee et al., 2006). The level of effectiveness of an organization depends on adequate sources, consistent policies based on scientific and technological improvements, qualified employees, and healthy working conditions (Celep, 1998). Not very different from other organizations which aim to profit from the productivity of their employees, schools, and universities or simply all educational organizations aim to reach the academic achievement of students. However, very different from other organizations, teachers cannot be regarded as any kind of worker

or employee but should be one of the most respected sections of the society in order to reach the goals of education (Lawrence & Deepa, 2012).

In the field of education, teacher organizational commitment (or teacher commitment) is accepted as an aspect of organizational commitment (Sun, 2015) and it is a narrowly searched area (Washington, 2017). Coldaraci (1992) defined teacher commitment as the “degree of psychological attachment to the teaching profession” (p. 326). Similarly, based on Mowday and his associates’ (1982) definition, Tsui and Cheng (1999) explain teacher organizational commitment as the strength of teachers’ involvement in a particular school and they characterize it by three factors: a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the school’s goals and values, b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the school, and c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the school. Similarly, based on the same definition, Somech and Bogler (2002) suggest that committed teachers are expected to engage in behaviours that assist the organization to reach its goals, and teachers will show considerable effort to do well and stay with the organization. Firestone and Pennell (1993) highlight that schools are ‘loosely coupled organizations’ because of the difficulty in reaching an agreement in the outcomes and inspecting and controlling the work and that is why voluntary the commitment of teachers is crucial. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), in order for the educational organizations, which aim to train and change people, to work effectively, teachers must be ready to do more than their task definition.

The findings of previous studies have depicted that highly committed teachers are likely to be more satisfied, responsible, loyal, and zealous and these factors create some positive consequences including increased student achievement, job performance and reduced turnover rate (Bogler & Nir, 2015; Celep, 1998; Nagar, 2012; Sun, 2015; Tsui & Cheng, 1999). However, to date, teaching in schools is not an easy task as teachers have to overcome numerous difficulties including continuous changes in pedagogy, curriculum, educational policies, and higher demand of knowledge to deal with students from diverse backgrounds, abilities, and motivation levels (Louis & Smith, 1990; Thien, Razak & Ramayah, 2014). According to Day (2004) teachers’ commitment to organizations can be affected by factors such as national education policies, administrative support, relations with colleagues, parental demands, and student behaviour. In a similar vein, Lawrence and Deepa (2012) assert some threats for teacher commitment may include lack of self-motivation,

monotonous way of teaching, lack of encouragement from management, insufficient salary, lack of incentives and commercialization of education.

In the USA, every year, 13% of public-school teachers leave the profession, yet that is not the case in the Turkish educational context as a result of lack of alternatives and high unemployment rate in the country. Based on the recent report prepared by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK), in the first seven months of 2020, the unemployment rate in Turkey is 12%, which means almost four million Turkish people are unemployed at the moment (TUIK, 2021). There are several reasons that hinder teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The first reason is the scarcity of external rewards such as salary and incentives and other reasons are lack of opportunity to get a promotion and have a higher status owing to the nature of the teaching profession (Celep, 1998). As a result, lack of teacher organizational commitment in school reduces student achievement and effectiveness of school (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Additionally, it is not possible to comprehend the problems caused by low committed teachers in a short term since education is a long-time process and it may take years to observe the negative attitudes of students (Celep, 2000). In Turkish schools, communication between teachers and students, interaction among colleagues, the quality of procedures has an influence on organizational commitment and the national educational system needs to find out ways to overcome low organizational commitment (Celep, 2000). Thus, there is a need for studies to comprehend the factors that enhance motivation, performance, and organizational commitment of teachers in this context.

Compared with teachers with low commitment teachers with high commitment, work harder, show stronger attachment to schools, motivate their students to improve a positive attitude towards learning, and are more motivated to achieve the goals of teaching than teachers with low commitment (Lawrence & Deepa, 2012). As a solution to lack of teacher organizational commitment, Firestone and Pennell (1993) offer to provide fair and adequate payment, professional development opportunities, incentives including guiding and supporting programs. Lawrence and Deepa (2012) come up with several strategies to improve teachers' organizational commitment: realizing the responsibility, developing self-esteem, being interested and interesting, choosing a mentor, making teaching meaningful, controlling and caring, developing cultural sensitivity, finding time for being alone, determining core values,

and providing meaningful challenges. Lawrence and Deepa (2012) claim that when these strategies are used, most of the teachers will become “passionately committed” (p. 4).

2.1.3.1. Studies Related to Organizational Commitment in Higher Education

In this current dissertation, the organization and teachers that put under the scope are universities and academics (EFL instructors). Like teachers in schools, in every organization, there is a need to have satisfied teachers to lead the organization in achieving the long-term goals and improving students’ performance (Kamaylar et al., 2018). Universities are regarded as important educational organizations because academics create new knowledge, share information, and use organizational knowledge to solve problems (Balay, 2012). Especially, the organizational commitment of academics is crucial as they are giving education to young people who will have a role in professional life and society in the future (Boylu, Pelit & Güçer, 2007). In the following paragraphs of this section, some of the prominent studies concerning organizational commitment in higher educational contexts are presented to create a general understanding of previous findings.

The organizational commitment levels of academics and demographical variables that might affect academics’ commitment have been investigated in the field. For instance, Boylu et al. (2007) searched for the organizational commitment of 366 academics to their departments and to their university. Data were gathered through e-mails by utilizing Meyer and Allen’s (1984, 1997) Organizational Commitment Scale. They found that academics were highly committed to both their university and their departments and among three components of the organizational commitment, academics revealed the highest scores in affective commitment followed by normative and continuance commitment, respectively. This finding is consistent with the literature because affective commitment is the most desirable kind of commitment and it is expected to be followed by normative and continuance commitment in an ideal situation in terms of the effectiveness of the organization (Brown, 2003). Among the demographic variables, sex was not found to be a significant factor; however, other demographic variables (e.g., age, tenure, title, etc.) showed various relations with the three components of organizational commitment. Researchers underline that in order for universities to benefit their main source most, which is the “human capital”, universities

should show considerable effort to enhance academics' organizational commitment, job satisfaction and motivation.

Another study which aimed to report the organizational commitment level of Turkish academicians was conducted by Bozkurt and Yurt (2013). The participants were 212 academics in a state university which was founded recently. The Turkish version of the Organizational Commitment Scale was used as a data collection tool. The analysis revealed that organizational commitment scores of academics were within the range of "Agree" for affective and normative commitment, "Neither Agree Nor Disagree" for continuance commitment. The researchers suggested that academics tended to stay with their organization, accept the goals and values in their organizations and show great effort for the sake of their university since they believe it was a moral responsibility. Bozkurt and Yurt (2013) claimed that thanks to organizational commitment it will be possible to benefit from the human capital which is necessary to sustain the existence of an organization because organizational commitment is the issue that makes the difference between problem-maker individuals and problem-solver individuals.

Töremen and Erol (2015) conducted a descriptive correlational study which aimed to pinpoint the relationship between the decision-making process of university management and organizational commitment of academic staff. 152 randomly chosen academic staff working at a state university participated in the study. Ethical Leadership Questionnaire and Turkish version of Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale were utilized, and correlation and regression analyses were carried out. The findings indicated that academic staff had high level perceptions related to ethical behaviours of managers and moderate level of organizational commitment. The commitment scores of academic staff were within the range of "Agree" for affective commitment, "Partly Agree" for continuance and normative commitment. In addition, the perception of academics on ethical leadership levels of their managers was a meaningful predictor of organizational commitment level. Accordingly, academic staff influenced by the ethical behaviours of their managers. Töremen and Erol (2015) suggested that to increase the organizational commitment level of academics, managers should incorporate the employees in decision-making process and should give value to employees without any exception and increase social activities.

In a very different cultural setting, Joiner and Bakalis (2006) investigated the antecedents of organizational commitment among academics at the tertiary level in Australia. Meyer and

Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale was used as a measure and 72 academics correctly completed the survey. The results of the study indicated that all personal (e.g., marital status), job-related (e.g., supervisor support) and job involvement characteristics (e.g., tenure) had an influence on organizational commitment. Moreover, higher education level and marital status were related to lower continuance commitment and all job-related factors were associated with higher affective commitment. Post-graduate study opportunities were related to higher education and affective commitment. On the other hand, longer tenure was associated with lower continuance and affective commitment. Joiner and Bakalis (2006) suggested that cultural values have an important influence on the factors affecting organizational commitment of academics, therefore the findings of organizational commitment studies should be handled insightfully by regarding the cultural values of countries.

The relation between organizational commitment and other constructs has also been subjected to several research studies. For example, Malik et al. (2010) conducted a survey-based descriptive research in order to determine the effect of faculty members' satisfaction with job dimensions on organizational commitment in state universities in Pakistan. For assessing the organizational commitment level, the data were collected from 331 faculty members from two different public universities. As a result of descriptive statistics and stepwise multiple regression analysis, it was found out that faculty members had high levels of commitment and satisfaction with work itself, supervision, salary, co-workers and opportunities for promotion. Additionally, researchers put forward that the satisfaction with work-itself, quality of supervision and pay satisfaction had a significant positive influence on organizational commitment of faculty members. They emphasized the importance of faculty members in the education system and suggested that more attention should be given to keep faculty members satisfied and committed.

In a Far East context, Wang (2010), similarly, emphasized the important role of university teachers in the success of university as only first-class academics can increase level of education in a knowledge-based society. In her research study, she tried to uncover the factors that can affect the performance of university teachers. With this aim, a survey, which consisted of four components (organizational commitment, job stress, mental health and achievement motivation), was successfully conducted to 494 university teachers. The structural equation modelling analysis revealed that the sustained commitment had a

negative, but the emotional commitment had a positive effect on work performance. Furthermore, emotional commitment was found to be the intermediary variable of the sustained commitment to job performance. Finally, the model indicated that more work pressure caused more tendencies to mental health problems, thereby affecting university teachers' performance. Thus, it is possible to say that organizational commitment and stress were identified as important factors in university teachers' performance.

In South America, Bohorquez (2016) conducted a quantitative correlational study which aimed to unveil the direct and indirect effects of deans' leadership, organizational commitment, and burnout on Colombian faculty members. 192 faculty members from three universities completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X), the Organizational Commitment Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory. The overall results of the study displayed that leadership style of deans had direct effect on both organizational commitment and burnout levels of faculty members. Laissez-faire leadership style found to have medium positive effect on organizational commitment and negative effect on burnout levels of faculty members. In terms of the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout, the findings revealed that organizational commitment reduced the burnout syndrome of faculty members. In her study, Bohorquez (2016) emphasized that the harm that high level of burnout and low level of organizational commitment may give to universities and tried to offer ways to solve these problems.

Likewise, Palice (2020) recently investigated the effects of demographic variables and organizational commitment on academicians' burnout level in Turkish foundation university. The data were gathered from 142 academics from various faculties by using Maslach Burnout Inventory and Organizational Commitment Scale. The results of the study indicated that regarding burnout, the academics' emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores were low but personal accomplishment points were high. In terms of organizational commitment, academics showed high scores in affective commitment, average scores in normative and continuance commitment. This means academics do not feel exhausted, they are not seriously affected by stress sources in their working environment, and their communication with others are not destructive. Moreover, having high personal accomplishment scores can be interpreted as academic feel successful at work. Regarding the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout, it was found out that affective commitment negatively affect burnout, which means as affective commitment of

academics increase, their professional burnout level decrease. Palice (2020) suggests that apart from individual ways of coping with burnout, there is a need to benefit from organizational strategies to overcome burnout problem in academia.

In Turkish EFL context, few studies were carried out to comprehend the organizational commitment level of English instructors at the tertiary level and the relationship among commitment and some other constructs. For instance, Gıçı (2011) searched for the effects of some variables (e.g., age, sex, tenure, salary and, etc.) on organizational commitment level of 200 English instructors from ten different foundation universities in Turkey. Data were collected through Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Celep (1996). The findings indicated that the overall organizational commitment of English instructors was “most of the time” level. Concerning the sub-levels, organizational commitment of English instructors was found to be at “sometimes” level for school commitment and commitment to working group and at “most of the time” level for commitment to educational affairs and commitment to the teaching profession. In terms of variables, significant difference was found between organizational level of instructors and having a child, having a degree and the amount of salary. However, age, gender, marital status, professional seniority, tenure and the graduated department did not show any significant difference in instructors’ organizational commitment. Gıçı (2011) highlights some precautions can be taken to ensure the organizational commitment of English instructors. First, as salary found to be an important factor, the salary rise should be based on some qualifications including tenure and education level. Moreover, there needs to be a mentoring system to support the instructors who has just begun their career. Finally, directors should be more supportive in terms of professional development.

In another study, Al (2007) investigated the organizational commitment levels of English instructors and competency of managers in foreign languages schools and finally the relationship between these two constructs. Data were collected by means of Turkish version of Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer et al., 1993) and Managerial Competency Scale developed by the researcher. Four-hundred and one English instructors from eight state and six foundation universities participated in the study. The findings of the study depicted that the overall organizational commitment level of all participants was found to be medium. Yet, the instructors at foundation universities were more emotionally attached to their organization. Regarding the managerial competency level of the principals at state

universities was found to be “medium”, while that of their colleagues at foundation universities was “good”. Based on the collected data, it is possible to say that principals in foundation universities were found to be more competent in showing interest to deal with professional development needs, being open to change and improvement, being able to balance the organizational goals and instructors’ needs, being an inspirational sample, and providing modern technologies. With regard to the relationship between organizational commitment of English instructors and the managerial competency of principals, there was a positive relationship. Therefore, the researcher suggested that in order to increase organizational commitment level of English instructors, a more participative management style should be adopted, and also in order English instructors to feel valued, they should be involved into the decision-making process.

A more descriptive study, which aimed to explore whether organizational commitment and job satisfaction of English instructors changed according to some variables (e.g., age, professional development), was conducted by Tezcan (2010). Data were collected from 144 English instructors from two state and two foundation universities through Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and Organizational Commitment Scale. According to the findings, marital status, seniority and support from colleagues were to be significant factors in instructors’ job satisfaction. As for the organizational commitment, age, marital status, seniority and support from colleagues were significant variables. When the organizational commitment and job satisfaction were analysed according to university types, it was observed that English instructors working at foundation universities are more satisfied than those working at public universities. On the other hand, in terms of continuance commitment, instructors at public universities were more committed to their organizations than academics in faculties. The researcher recommended creating and enjoyable and satisfactory working environment for English instructors which would foster their organizational commitment.

To sum up, most of the research studies adopted a descriptive perspective and tried to unravel the demographic features that might affect the organizational commitment of academics. Although the findings of previous research studies contributed a lot to understand the concept of organizational commitment, there is a need to explore more complicated relationships with other constructs, especially in higher education. Chen (2008) reports in his structural equation model that organizational commitment directly influences job

satisfaction in a positive way. On the other hand, Karakus et al. (2014) underline that the relationship between burnout and organizational commitment in faculty is still unclear. Additionally, Felfe, Yan and Six (2008), put forward that culture has an influence on commitment as culture entails the basic values which are also relevant in the organizational context. Therefore, this current study, first, aims to provide the general situation of Turkish EFL instructors' organizational commitment and later focuses on the complex relations between organizational commitment and other constructs including burnout and job satisfaction to comprehend the elements that have a role in English instructors well-being and job-related feelings.

2.2. Burnout

In the last quarter of the past century, a swift and major transformation from an industrial society into a service economy led to tremendous social, economic, and cultural developments, which caused the roots of the burnout concept to emerge (Schaufeli, Leiter & Maslach, 2009). The majority of today's workforce must deal with a combination of rising expectations and demands on not only the job but also the demands of family life and also find a work-life balance (Schwartzhoffer, 2009). To illustrate, employees are expected to be reachable by their employers and check their e-mails day and night even during the holidays (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). Leiter (2005) emphasizes that work environments have tremendous effects on the emotional well-being and identity of humans as adults spend the majority of their waking hours on pursuing their desires and interacting with people at work. Simply, Maslach and Leiter (2004) described burnout as "a fundamental disconnect between the worker and the workplace" (p. 91).

Leiter and Maslach (2005) underline that burnout is the substantial occupational hazard of the twenty-first century that has been increasing everywhere like a virus and poisoning the people in the world of work. Maslach (2017) highlights that since the 1970s numerous research studies have revealed that burnout had serious costs, including personal, social, organizational, and economical. The consequences of burnout may be devastating both for the individual and for the organization including exhaustion, insomnia, headache, ulcer, family conflicts, sick leave, absenteeism, anxiety, sleep depression (Leiter & Maslach, 2000; Maslach, 1976), increased use of alcohol and drugs, high blood pressure, chronic fatigue

(Freudenberger, 1974; Maslach & Leiter, 1997), diminished work performance and organizational commitment (Schwartzhoffer, 2009). Additionally, another danger of burnout is its contagious nature since employees suffering from burnout can negatively affect their colleagues by creating personal conflict or by disturbing job tasks (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

According to Schaufeli et al. (2009), the energy draining in burnout is similar to extinguishing of a candle which cannot continue to burn if there are not sufficient resources that keep being replenished. In time, people suffering from burnout begin to lose their capacity to make a contribution, and if they keep on working, the result is more like “smouldering” than “burning” (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Additionally, Schaufeli (2003) claims that burnout was “in the air” as it gained momentum in the USA almost immediately after its discovery. The phenomenon of burnout, first, appeared as a social problem not a scholarly construct (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993); however, currently, it is a well-established academic topic on which over 6,000 books, chapters, dissertations and journal articles have been published (Schaufeli et al., 2009). These numbers were more than a decade ago, and today, the number is substantially higher as burnout carries on attracting researchers’ attention (Hallsten, 2005; McCormack & Cotter, 2013). After the birth of the burnout concept, it went through various phases and evolved in time. In the next section, this transformation is presented by dividing these improvements into decades.

2.2.1. Theoretical Development of Burnout

The ideal way of developing a theoretical model is generally grounding it other related theories, whereas that was not the case for the concept of burnout as it has evolved empirically rather than theoretically (Byrne, 1999). Long before it took its place on the scientific scene, burnout appeared in Graham Greene’s novel “A Burnt-Out Case” in 1961 (Maslach et al., 2001). The novel tells the story of an architect who leaves his work and withdraws into the Africa jungle since he finds his previous success meaningless and feels empty and numbed (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). It was one of the first examples of extreme fatigue, loss of idealism and passion for one’s job and proof that the phenomenon of burnout was a social problem before the researchers systematically defined it (Maslach et al., 2001).

It was not until 1974, a psychiatrist, Freudenberger, used the term *burnout* to refer to the negative situation he observed among the volunteer counsellors and therapists working in a free drug addiction clinic in New York (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). Although these volunteers, including himself, began working enthusiastically, they experienced emotional depletion, loss of motivation and reduced commitment in time (Maslach et al., 2001). In the *Journal of Social Issues*, Freudenberger (1974) described these volunteers' transformation from enthusiastic and motivated to drained physically and mentally. Based on his observations, Freudenberger labelled this unpleasant situation as *burnout* which had been used colloquially to refer to the devastating effects of chronic drug use (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Freudenberger (1974) adopted a clinical perspective and defined burnout as "to fail, to wear out, or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources" (p. 159). In Freudenberger's clinical perspective, the focus was mostly on symptoms of burnout and issues of mental health (Maslach et al., 2001). According to Freudenberger (1974), people who are more dedicated and committed are more prone to burnout since they are more willing to make sacrifices and work excessively.

In the 1970s, considered the pioneer phase of burnout, researchers mostly strove to define burnout; thus, the research studies were naturally descriptive and mostly utilized qualitative techniques such as observations and interviews (Maslach et al., 2001). Simultaneously with Freudenberger but independently, a social psychological researcher, Maslach was searching the strategies of human service workers benefitted during their emotional arousal (Schaufeli, 2003). While Maslach (1976) and her colleagues were interviewing the human service officers in California, they found out that these workers frequently felt exhausted, had negative feelings about their clients/patients and experienced problems about their professional competence due to emotional turmoil they plunged into. These practitioners referred this phenomenon as "burnout" (Schaufeli et al., 2009). As a result of her research, the conceptualization of burnout emerged as "a psychological syndrome in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job" (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 397). Maslach (1978) argues that burnout emerges when employees experience "gradual loss of caring about people they work with and over time, they find that they simply cannot sustain the kind of personal care and commitment required in the encounters that are the essence of their job" (p. 56). Maslach adopted a social psychological perspective when studying burnout and her focus was on the relationship between the provider and the recipient in the context of service occupations (Maslach et al., 2001).

However, this first phase of burnout (pioneer phase) was not without problems. After the initial articles of Freudenberger (1974) and Maslach (1976), the concept of burnout got a lot of attention and became very popular in the magazines, editorials, and self-report cases studies (Maslach, Leiter & Schaufeli, 2009). The reason for this popularity was probably the fact that burnout was a social problem and people had been experiencing it before it became a focus of scientific research (Maslach et al., 2001). Even the word “burnout” (or “burn-out”) is “language of people” and signifies that the concept belongs to the complex lived realities of the workplace (Maslach et al., 2009). Initially, many researchers did not pay any attention to burnout as the concept sounded more like a “pop psychology” rather than a legitimate scientific concept (Maslach, 1999). In fact, burnout was in some sense a taboo topic at first as people working in human-services and caregiving occupations might seem “unprofessional” admitting that they suffered from burnout (Maslach, 2017). Once burnout was recognized as a well-defined construct, it began to attract more attention from various researchers (Maslach, 1993; Leiter & Maslach, 2004).

Apparently, the most prominent problem about burnout was the “slippery” definition of it, in other words, definitional fuzziness (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). As there was not a well-established or widely accepted definition, different researchers made use of the term burnout to refer to several different things and discussed different concepts instead of the same one (Maslach et al., 2001). This lack of consensus on burnout’s definition was due to researchers’ various perspectives and definitions which were all based on experiential descriptions, not on any theoretical models (Maslach et al., 2009). Additionally, using the existing theoretical frameworks to define burnout was challenging. Researchers with social perspective benefitted from concepts involving interpersonal relationships (e.g., detached concern, dehumanization in self-defence, etc.), motivation and emotions; on the other hand, researchers from a clinical perspective focused mostly on emotions in terms of psychological disorders (such as depression) and subsequent researchers from industrial-organizational psychology emphasized work attitudes and behaviours (Maslach & Leiter, 2017).

Obviously, Maslach and Freudenberger were not the only researchers who focused on burnout. To exemplify, Cherniss (1980), from an organizational perspective, proposed a process model that focused on stress (Schwazer & Greenglass, 1999) and defined burnout as a collapse of professional mystique which stems from human service workers’ unrealistic expectations as a result of their training or cultural background (Leiter, 1999). According to

Cherniss' model (1980), there are three stages of burnout: workers first experience disparity between demands and available sources, then this disparity causes some emotional reactions, and in the end, workers begin to display negative attitudes towards their work such as disengagement (Kazimlar & Dollar, 2015). Different from Maslach's commonly accepted conceptualization, Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker and Schaufeli (2001) suggest that burnout represents a dichotomous, not a continuous trait and in jobs with both high demands and lack of resources, burnout appears since the employees develop exhaustion and disengagement.

Even though the majority of research related to workplace adopts a top-down approach which stems from a scholarly theory, burnout research initially benefitted from a bottom-up or "grass-roots" approach (Maslach et al., 2001). In other words, burnout was grounded in the realities of individuals' experiences not scholarly theories (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998). Consequently, this definitional fuzziness and researchers' initial attitude towards burnout caused some inconsistencies in theoretical coherence but also contributed to the rich diversity of theoretical perspectives and methodological techniques, which provided burnout research to adopt an eclectic and problem-oriented approach (Maslach & Jackson, 1984). The roots of burnout stem from caregiving and service occupations in which the focus of the job was the relationship between provider and recipient (Maslach et al., 2009), whereas during this decade, most of the research focused on industrial workers. The white-collar groups in human service including nurses, teachers and social workers were ignored (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005). The initial research on burnout was mostly conducted in the USA and it took about two decades to cross the USA boundaries (Griffiths & Sönmez, 2020).

In the 1980s, accepted as the empirical phase of burnout, the concept of burnout became more solid as a consequence of numerous and more systematic research studies (Maslach, 1993). In this phase, quantitative studies utilizing questionnaires and surveys made it possible for researchers to reach a high number of participants and more generalizable results (Maslach et al., 2009). Given these methodological improvements, the definition of burnout evolved. Freudenberger (1980 as cited in McCormack & Cotter, 2013, p.13) redefined burnout as "a state of fatigue, frustration brought by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward". Moreover, having conducted extensive surveys, interviews, and field observations Maslach and Jackson (1986) also refined their definition and specified burnout as "a psychological syndrome of emotional

exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced achievement that can occur among individuals who do “people work of some kind” (p. 1). Since then, Maslach’s definition turned into the most popular definition of burnout (Kristensen et al., 2005). What is meant by “people work” or “people-oriented profession” is the involvement of lots of face-to-face contacts (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Maslach underlines (1993) the definition of burnout did not derive from an existing theory but emerged as a result of extensive exploratory research including interviews, surveys, field observations of employees of people-oriented professions. Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek (1993) suggest that the distinctness of “people work” is the use of professionals’ own social skills, attitudes and personality characteristics while they are building a relationship with the recipient. This demanding relationship, which can be consuming, is a vehicle and source of success or failure (Schaufeli et al., 1993).

In this empirical phase, there was a need to develop a theoretical framework and a standard measure of burnout which were necessary to improve burnout research field (Maslach, Leiter & Jackson, 2012). Based on three hypothesized dimensions of burnout that emerged from their earlier research, Maslach and Jackson (1981) developed a multidimensional model of burnout which was recalled as the Three-Component model (or sometimes briefly Maslach Model) since then. Having conducted interviews with employees from various people-oriented professions, Maslach decided to investigate the emerging ideas by using another source of data (Maslach, 1993); therefore, Maslach and Jackson developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). In other words, the MBI was created to assess emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout that emerged as a result of a comprehensive program of psychometric and qualitative research (Maslach, 2017). As the original version of the MBI (now known as MBI-Human Service Survey or MBI-HSS) stemmed from early definition of burnout, in this version burnout was viewed as a phenomenon that can occur only among people who do some kind of “people work” (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008; Maslach, 1998).

Rapidly, the use of the MBI became very common and it has dominated burnout research since then (Demerouti et al., 2001). Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) reported that 93% of the research studies benefitted from the MBI; thus, MBI has even been identified as the “gold standard” of burnout research (Schaufeli et al., 2009). From the first day it was developed, MBI influenced the subsequent theorizing and research (Maslach, 1993). As a result of high level of interest in burnout in the educational field, Maslach, Jackson and Schwab revised

the original MBI and developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) in 1996 in order to use for educational occupations (Maslach et al., 2001). The MBI-ES has the same three burnout components: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and low personal accomplishment. The findings of research studies utilizing the MBI-ES emphasized the importance of organizational factors in educators' burnout such as role conflict, participation in decision-making, autonomy, social support networks (Maslach, 1999).

In addition to the theoretical improvements and development of the MBI in the 1980s, industrial-organizational psychology enriched burnout research by viewing burnout as a form of job stress (Maslach et al., 2001). Thanks to the industrial-organizational approach, some important concepts including organizational commitment and job satisfaction, could be linked to burnout. Therefore, the works of the clinical approach, social psychology and industrial-organizational approaches created a rich diversity of perspectives on burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Until the 1980s, research studies on burnout were conducted only in the USA. Yet, starting from the early 1980s, burnout drew more attention initially in English-speaking countries such as Canada and Great Britain and subsequently many European countries (Maslach, 1999). During this decade, articles, books and research measures were translated into many languages and the first cross-national studies on burnout were conducted (Maslach, 1999).

In the 1990s, with the growing body of research, the empirical phase of burnout carried on and researchers reached a consensus on the operational definition of burnout in order to speak a common language (Schaufeli et al., 1993). As a result of more sophisticated methodology and solid statistical tools including structural models, the relationship between organizational factors and burnout stood out (Maslach et al., 2001). Research studies revealed that job factors (job satisfaction, role conflict, etc.) are more likely to be related to burnout rather than personal factors or demographic variables (Maslach, 1999). Although the majority of the research studies still focused on people-oriented occupations, burnout was not limited to human services and educational occupations anymore (Demerouti et al., 2001; Maslach et al., 2001). In fact, the concept of burnout extended and consequently zoomed in other types of occupations such as military and managers. Even nonoccupational areas of life including business world and family life were included in burnout research (Maslach, 1999). During this decade, the majority of the studies were correlational and

consequently had some limitations such as the use of self-report measurement tools, an artifact of reliance on a single method, low response rates (Maslach et al., 2001).

Towards the end of the 1990s, as burnout broke the chain of “people work” idea, Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach and Jackson (1996) developed a more generic version of MBI (Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey or MBI-GS) which included more general and nonsocial items and consisted of three subscales: exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy (Demerouti et al., 2001). The appearance of new versions of the original MBI represented the evolution of burnout. Burnout was first considered a phenomenon relevant to those who were working directly with other people yet it expanded and involved non-human service occupations (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). Moreover, researchers began to broaden their understanding of burnout by focusing on the positive antithesis of burnout, which is *engagement* (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Leiter and Maslach (2000) suggest that engagement is the opposite of burnout and consists of a state of high energy, strong involvement and a sense of efficacy. As Ulrich (1997) suggests organizations expect their employees to collaborate with others and commit to high-quality of performance and that is why employees engagement and health have become crucial. In order for organizations to thrive, prevention of burnout is not enough, but there is a need to foster work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Maslach and Leiter (2016) view the psychological relationships to work as a continuum between burnout and engagement, burnout representing the negative endpoint and engagement representing the positive end point in terms of individuals’ experience with their work. Thus, in the 2000s, engagement started to draw more attention and involved in burnout research. (Leiter & Maslach, 2005a).

To date, researchers have intended to develop new measurement tools for burnout, yet none of them has managed to change the monopoly status of the MBI (Kristensen et al., 2005). As an alternative measurement tool of burnout, Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI), developed by Kristensen et al. (2005), involves three subscales measuring: personal burnout, work-related burnout, and client-related burnout. Unlike the MBI, the CBI aims to measure fatigue and exhaustion as indicators of burnout (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). According to Kristensen et al. (2005), the CBI is a useful tool for the organization since it can be utilized to predict future sickness, absence, intention to quit and etc. As a response to criticisms related to the wording of the MBI and its limitation to individuals doing “people work”, another measurement tool, the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI), was developed by

Demerouti. The OLBI aims to measure exhaustion and disengagement from work in different types of workers and it was found to be a valid tool for people in human services and also in other occupational settings (Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker & Ebbinghaus, 2002).

In spite of the dominance in the field, the MBI and its versions were criticized due to an important shortcoming. All the items in each subscale were framed in the same direction. In other words, all the items in the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales were worded negatively; on the other hand, all the items in the reduced personal accomplishment were worded positively (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008). However, what makes the MBI superior to other measurement tools is its multi-dimensional structure. This feature of the MBI is compatible with regression-based statistical methods and current statistical developments including structural equation modeling (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Additionally, the cut-off points, which are used to interpret the burnout scores as “high”, “average”, or “low”, allow the transformation of the MBI into a dichotomy and this might be benefitted by the reserachers to diagnose burnout (Schaufeli, Bakker, Schaap, Kladler & Hoogduin, 2001). Finally, the major contribution of the MBI to the burnout literature was its role in the acceptance of burnout as a scientific concept by providing a solid definition and fostering systematic research articles published in journals (Maslach, 1999).

In the 1970s and 1980s, burnout was viewed as a hazard for young, idealistic service professional who was became exhausted, cynical and insensitive to clients. Yet, it was long ago and it is recently possible to observe how burnout has become more globalized especially in economically developing countries (Schaufeli et al., 2009). From the mid-1990s, burnout began to be studied in Europe, Asia, Latin America, Middle East (Schaufeli et al., 2009) and especially, countries with booming economies (e.g., China and India) showed great interest in burnout because swift changes happen in the modern working life including the need to adopt new types of work, time pressure, hectic jobs, and increasing demands of leraning new skills (Kulkarni, 2006, as cited in Schaufeli et al., 2009). Recent longitudinal studies put forward that burnout causes several personal, social, organizational, and economic costs including health problems, poor job performance, absenteeism, low morale, etc. (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). From the beginning of the 2000s, it has been possible to find out burnout research in every corner of the world since major work of burnout was translated to many languages and this increased the number of new research studies (Maslach & Goldbberg,

1998). Based on the improvements, it can be foreseen that burnout will continue to be relevant in the future owing to the sociocultural and socioeconomic developments (Schaufeli et al., 1993). As for the future of burnout research, Schaufeli et al. (2009) predict that finding out the underlying factors producing burnout and work engagement will be a challenging task for the researchers.

In the first phases of burnout research, burnout was mostly seen as a personal problem rather than an organizational one and there is a tendency to fix people rather than fixing the job environment (Maslach, 2017). However, as research developed, burnout scholars realized that social and organizational conditions correlate in burnout especially in six domains of job-person mismatch: work overload, lack of control, insufficient reward, breakdown of community, absence of fairness and value of conflict (Maslach et al., 2012). By using these six domains Leiter and Maslach (2004) developed Areas-of-worklife Model (AW) in order to assess the full continuum job-person fit to misfit (Maslach et al., 2012). Maslach and Leiter (2016) emphasize that the greater the mismatch between the person and the job is, the greater the likelihood of burnout occurs. In summary, burnout research carries on broadening, yet the roots and its dimensions are still valid. Therefore, the next section focuses on Three-Component Model and its dimensions and also the Areas-of-work-life Model.

2.2.1.1. Three-Component Model of Burnout and Areas-of-work-life (AW) Model

It is not possible to describe the historical evolution of burnout without mentioning the Three-Component Model developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981. In the development process of the Three-Component Model, at first, intensive interviews, on-site field observations two dimensions of burnout emerged: exhaustion and depersonalization (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Having conducted extensive psychometric research and collected systematic data from hundreds of employees, Maslach and Jackson confirmed the first two dimensions but also put forward another dimension of burnout: personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1998). Both the model itself and especially, the measurement instrument, the MBI, had a tremendous contribution to burnout literature by providing a solid description of the construct (Schaufeli, Enzmann & Girault, 1993). In this model, burnout is

a syndrome that can be considered as a result of long-term stress encounter (Schwazer & Greenglass, 1999). Maslach and Goldberg (1998) emphasize that burnout is a tragic endpoint for professionals who began working enthusiastically, with positive expectations and a desire to help people. Moreover, it is not a state but a trait because it has become stable in one's career (Schwazer & Greenglass, 1999). That is to say, burnout is a prolonged response to a chronic interpersonal stressor at work (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). As a stress-related problem, burnout mostly occurs in people work in interpersonally oriented jobs (Maslach & Leiter, 1999).

Maslach and Jackson's (1981) research with human service professionals demonstrated three basic dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion (stress component), depersonalization (other-evaluation component) and reduced personal accomplishment (self-evaluation component). Maslach and Jackson (1996) suggest that burnout as "a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity" (p. 4). In this theory, "burnout is an individual experience embedded in a context of complex social relationships, and it involves the person's conception of both self and others" (Maslach, 1998, p. 69). Maslach (1993) suggests that burnout is a complex concept and it cannot be explained as single unitary concepts like people have it or do not have it. It has been known that employees suffering from burnout are overwhelmed, unmotivated, show negative behaviours and low performance (Maslach, 2017). According to this theory, as mentioned in the definition of burnout, the phenomenon of burnout consists of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment.

Emotional exhaustion is accepted as the core dimension of burnout and it represents feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted. Maslach (1999) defines emotional exhaustion as "feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's emotional resources" (p. 216) and also describes it as "having worn out; lost energy, become depleted, debilitated, and fatigued" (Maslach, 2017, p. 143). Of the three aspects of burnout, exhaustion is mostly the widely researched one and a necessary criterion for burnout; however, it is not sufficient alone (Maslach et al., 2001). Some researchers (e.g., Freudemberger) claimed that emotional exhaustion is sufficient to define burnout yet Maslach (1993) suggests that to restrict burnout to emotional exhaustion is to reduce it to experienced stress and this means nothing new has been learned from all burnout research

(Maslach et al., 2009). This dimension represents the basic individual stress aspect and work overload and personal conflict at work are the main sources of emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1998). Exhaustion occurs most probably in order to overcome the work overload that stems from the emotional demands of the work, especially in human service professions (Maslach et al., 2001). For the emotional exhaustion subscale of the MBI, a higher score corresponds to higher degrees of experienced burnout (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996).

Depersonalization (or cynicism) refers to “negative, callous, or excessively detached response to other people, who are usually the recipients of one’s service or care” (Maslach & Leiter, 1999, p. 295) and it is also described as “negative or inappropriate attitudes toward recipients, loss of idealism and irritability” (Maslach, 1999, p. 216). This dimension, which is also a novel idea in job stress, aims to cover interpersonal relations (Maslach et al., 1996). Even though emotional exhaustion reflects the individual stress dimension of burnout, it is not enough to explain the relationship people have with their work (Maslach, 1998). As a result of excess emotional exhaustion, individuals’ first response is to protect themselves by using detachment strategy; however, there is a risk of turning detachment into dehumanization (Maslach, 1998). In fact, excessive detachment causes the individuals to behave clients in negative, callous and dehumanized ways. In human services, depersonalization is an attempt to put distance between oneself and the service recipient and in other professions individuals use cognitive distancing by developing an indifference or cynical attitude when they are exhausted (Maslach et al., 2001). For depersonalization subscale of the MBI, a higher score corresponds to higher degrees of experienced burnout (Maslach et al., 1996).

The last component, *reduced personal accomplishment (or inefficacy)*, refers to “a decline in one’s feelings of competence and successful achievement in one’s work” (Maslach, 1999, p. 216) and it is also described as “reduced productivity or capability, low morale, withdrawal, and inability to cope” (Maslach, 2017, p. 143). Employees who are suffering from reduced personal accomplishment reveal general unhappiness and dissatisfaction with themselves, their professional abilities, effectiveness and lose their confidence (Maslach et al., 2001). This dimension reflects self-evaluation (Maslach, et al., 1996) and seems to develop parallel with the other two dimensions rather than sequentially (Maslach, 1998). Employees begin to feel inadequate about their performance at work and develop a “self-imposed verdict of failure” (Maslach, 1998, p. 69). Unlike other dimensions of burnout,

reduced personal accomplishment mostly occurs when there is a lack of resources, but exhaustion and depersonalization emerge from work overload and social conflict (Maslach et al., 2001). The personal accomplishment subscale of the MBI assesses feelings of competence and achievement in one's work with people. Different from the other two dimensions of burnout, for the personal accomplishment subscale of the MBI, lower mean scores correspond to higher degrees of experienced burnout (Maslach et al., 1996).

In the literature, the Three-Component Model is found to be superior than other unidimensional models due to its ability to distinguish between work-related burnout and independent exhaustion which might not be related to work (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Different from other stress-related problems, the heart of burnout is the centrality of relationships at work (e.g., with colleagues, clients or superiors) and if one tries to examine burnout out of context, it will not be possible to understand the phenomenon (Maslach, 1998). Briefly, a unidimensional model of burnout cannot differentiate whether an individual is experiencing exhaustion as a result of work-related problems or non-work-related problems. Another advantage of the Three-Component Model is the context-relation conceptualization of burnout. For instance, a retired person can suffer from exhaustion, feeling cynical or inefficacious yet what makes a person burnout is experiencing three dimensions as a result of work-context (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

According to Maslach and Leiter (2016), there have been different conceptual models which describe the sequential stages in burnout: First, exhaustion developed in response to high demands, and then this will cause detachment and negative behaviors toward people and job and if these negative behaviours continue, finally the feelings of inadequacy and failure appear. However, this might change based on the type and features of the work; for instance, in some occupations, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization might appear in sequential order, but personal accomplishment develops separately as it is more related to different factors in the working context (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Occupational differences in the definition of job roles may change the factors that affect (Maslach, 1999). To exemplify, supervisory support does not seem to be an important factor in teacher burnout; on the contrary, it is found to be an important factor in nurse burnout (Byrne, 1999). Therefore, Maslach (1999) underlines that factors that might affect burnout may not be as generic as it was assumed in the previous theories yet may be restricted by the relevant job context.

Maslach also investigated whether burnout is a distinctively different phenomenon than other constructs. At first, many questions were raised in terms of how burnout is distinguished from other psychological constructs including stress and depression (Maslach, 1998). The main problem was comprehending whether it is truly a distinct concept or an old phenomenon in a new label (Maslach, 1999). The most prominent distinction between burnout and depression is the context-free nature of depression which makes it possible to arise from problems in any domains of life; in contrast, burnout is specific to the social and organizational context of job setting (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). In addition, different from acute stress that develops as a reaction to specific events, burnout is accepted as a long-term process and a cumulative reaction to ongoing occupational stressors (Leiter & Maslach, 2004; Maslach, 1999). In other words, chronic and long-term stress tend to cause burnout in time (McCormack & Cotter, 2013).

Since burnout was accepted as an individual and organizational problem in the 1970s, there have been repeated attempts to find ways to overcome burnout. Many researchers have questioned the source of burnout and searched whether the individual should be fixed, or the job itself needed to be fixed (Maslach, 2017). Previously, burnout was viewed as a problem of an individual; however, Maslach and Leiter (1997) kept on defending their idea that burnout in individual employees gave more information about the conditions of job rather than the individuals themselves. Each employee experiences burnout in a unique way yet more or less themes are the same: “an erosion of engagement with the job, an erosion of emotions, a problem of the fit between the person and the job” (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p. 23).

Influenced by industrial-organizational psychology and occupational health, much attention has been focused on *job stress* which aims to explain how external job demands (stressors) affect the worker’s internal experience (stress response) (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). In the literature, the problematic relationship between the person and the environment has been described in terms of imbalance, misalignment or misfit (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). The conventional idea of burnout suggests if the individual is experiencing burnout, this situation is a result of the flaws in their character, behaviour, or productivity; thus, the best way to solve this problem is to change or get rid of these individuals (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Nonetheless, Maslach and Leiter (1997) argue that is not the case and burnout is in fact a problem of the social environment in which people work. In order to comprehend the reasons

for burnout and investigate possible ways to deal with it, Maslach and Leiter (1997) proposed a model of job-person fit which is called the Areas-of-work-life Model (AW). The AW model aims to explain how stressors affect individuals' burnout level and determines several outcomes including work behaviours (e.g., performance), social behaviours and personal health (Maslach, 2017) (See Figure 2.3).

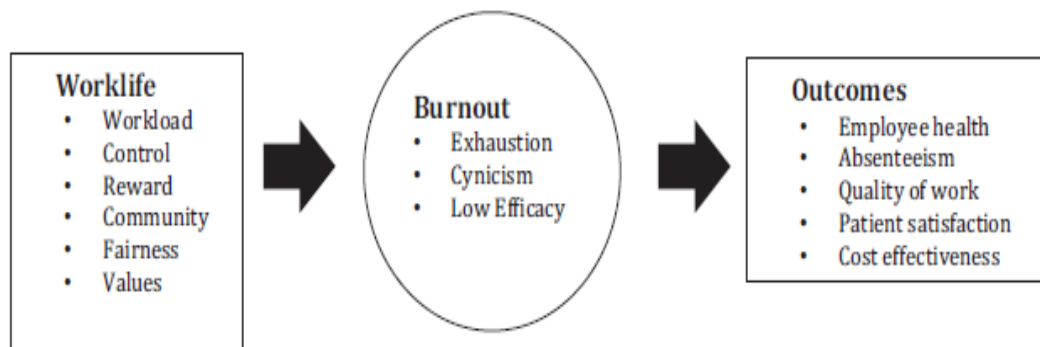


Figure 2.3. The areas-of-work-life model (AW) of burnout. Maslach, C. (2017). Finding solutions to the problem of burnout. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 69(2), 143–152. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cpb0000090>

As a significant framework, the AW brings together not only personal but also job context factors in a more integrated way (Maslach, 2017). Maslach and Leiter (2017) propose that a focus on the job environment in which the person operates is the best way to comprehend the burnout phenomenon. The motivation of Leiter and Maslach (2004) to improve this conceptual framework was to solve burnout problems by building a work environment that supports the ideals to which people which to devote efforts (p. 131). It is necessary to develop a conceptual framework and an effective measure to reach this aim (Areas of Worklife Scale-AWS) (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). Therefore, together with the MBI, the AWS might be used to predict burnout. Maslach and Leiter (2008) suggest when an employee shows high scores in one of the subscales of the MBI (exhaustion or depersonalization), this means they can be in a state of transition but if this employee also shows mismatch scores on at least of the six areas in the AWS, then one's transition is to burnout.

In this framework, instead of questioning whether the source of burnout is the person or the job, this model raises the question of “How does burnout result from the interaction of the person and the job?” (Maslach, 2017, p. 145). For Leiter and Maslach, burnout is not a simple concept that can be explained only by alignment of risk factors, but it can be explained by the level of mismatch between the person and the six strategic areas of workplace

(McCormack & Cotter, 2013). The AW Model proposes that the greater the mismatch between the person and job, the greater the likelihood of burnout and, in turn, lead to various outcomes (Maslach, 1998). Reviewing organizational correlates many studies of burnout and job stress, Maslach and Leiter (1997, 1999, 2004) identified six key domains: workload, control, reward, community, fairness and values.

Workload. As one of the key dimensions of work life, workload emphasizes overload. Exceeding human limits and increasing workload have a relationship with burnout, especially, the emotional exhaustion dimension (Leiter & Maslach, 1999). From an organization's perspective, workload is productivity, whereas from an individual's perspective, it is time and energy. Consequently, it is necessary to find a balance between these two sides (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Once the overload is a chronic condition, the capacity and performance of employees diminish, and they may not meet the needs of job (Maslach, 2017). In order to solve problems regarding workload, employees might increase resilience, create uninterrupted time, improve time management, and reduce workload (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b). According to Maslach (2017), sustainable and manageable workload can enhance using and refining existing skills and developing new ones.

Control. Research has put forward a relationship between lack of control and burnout (Maslach, 2017). Problems related to control occur when employees have insufficient authority over their work (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). Policies, supervisors, and similar factors may limit employees' ability to make decisions about work and reduce individual autonomy and involvement with work (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Major control problems take place when employees experience role conflict and role ambiguity; in contrast, when they have more control in their work, this can increase their job satisfaction and commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). Control problems can be overcome once employees feel they are taking part in the decision-making process, exercising professional autonomy, and gaining access to resources that are necessary to do effective work (Maslach, 2017).

Reward. The reward area of work life refers to the extent of consistency between the expectations of employees and the rewards (momentary, social and intrinsic) (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). Insufficient reward (financial, institutional or social) increases the possibility of employees suffering from burnout as they cannot have the value they deserve (Maslach, 2017). Although insufficient reward seems related to all dimensions of burnout, it is mostly associated with reduced personal accomplishment (or inefficacy) as a mismatch

on reward can cause a lack of motivation, gratification, fulfilment, appreciation, self-worth, self-esteem and etc. (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b). When there is a consistency between the employee and the job in reward, there are both material benefits and opportunities for intrinsic satisfaction (Maslach, 2017). The reward area mismatch problems can be diminished by offering sufficient compensation (e.g., money), increasing recognition (e.g., awards) and doing better job assignments (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b).

Community. Every workplace is a community of women and men and people spend more time in this community than they spend at home with their families (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b). In the AW Model, a community can be defined as the quality of social interaction at work (conflict, mutual support, closeness and the capacity to work as a team) (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Employees thrive in communities and show greater performance if they share praise, comfort, happiness and humour with individuals they like and respect (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). Once the relationships in this community mostly reflect a lack of support, trust and conflict, employees are more vulnerable to burnout (Maslach, 2017). Research related to community and burnout reveals that supervisors' support and co-workers' support are significant: the first one is related to the emotional exhaustion dimension, the latter is related to personal accomplishment or efficacy (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). In order to solve problems regarding community, employees and organizations might enhance conflict resolution, better communication skills and unity (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b).

Fairness. Fairness is the extent to which decisions at work are perceived as being fair and equitable (Maslach & Leiter, 2017, p. 46). A workplace can be defined as fair if trust, openness and respect exist. So as to prevent employees from experiencing burnout and to foster engagement, an organization should maintain these three key elements equitable (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Unfairness occurs when there is disrespect, discrimination, favouritism (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b), inequity in workload and pay, cheating in evaluations and promotions (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). Unfairness promotes burnout but especially cynicism/depersonalization undermining employees' relationship with work (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b). Not only cynicism but also anger and hostility appear when employees are not being treated with respect and fairness (Maslach, 2017). Leiter and Maslach (2005a) propose that in order to enhance fairness, organizations need to promote respect, value diversity and ensure equity.

Values. Values are viewed as the core of the relationship between work and employees and can be defined as ideals and motivations that originally attracted people to their job (Maslach & Leiter, 2004, p. 99). In fact, the source of motivation between the worker and the workplace is values rather than an exchange of time for money (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). When there is a mismatch between individual values and organizational values, employees might feel they are caught in the middle between work they want to and the work they have to do, and this can cause burnout (Maslach, 2017). When employees are involved in activities that are incongruent with their values, they feel drained, cynical, lose their feeling of accomplishment as their work seems trivial or harmful, and thus a value mismatch has all the ingredients of a crisis in burnout: exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Leiter & Maslach, 2005b). To solve problems regarding value mismatches, some strategies can be benefitted such as maintaining integrity, promoting constructive values, adding meaning to work (Leiter & Maslach, 2005a).

The six areas of work life are not independent of each other, but they can be associated with problems in another area. To illustrate, the excessive workload in an organization is an indicator of problems in control and autonomy areas since excessive work demands are tasks which are given against employee's will (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Leiter and Maslach (2004) propose that the greater is the mismatch between the job and the person, the greater risk of burnout occurs; in contrast, the greater is the congruity, the greater likelihood of engagement with work happens. Furthermore, the AW Model can also be used as a diagnostic tool to uncover job-person mismatches, and therefore gives the researchers or organizations a better understanding of what the goals of an effective intervention can be (Maslach, 2017). In consequence, according to Maslach (2017), instead of one-size-fits-all approaches, practitioners will be more successful in preventing burnout and increasing engagement at the workplace by customizing interventions (workshops). Maslach and Leiter (2017) emphasize that the future of burnout research will base on studies which focus on three dimensions of burnout and their relationships with the six areas of mismatch between worker and workplace. Thanks to the AW Model, more sophisticated solutions can be reached regarding the causes and outcomes of burnout phenomenon (Maslach & Leiter, 2017).

2.2.2. Consequences of Burnout

As a syndrome of exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, burnout is one end of a continuum in the relationship people have with their jobs (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). The significance of burnout stems from the outcomes it generates both for the individual and the workplace (Maslach et al., 2001). It is supposed that individuals suffering from burnout will show a decline in job performance and an increase in job withdrawal (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Probably, the most prominent consequence of burnout is the fact that it leads to lower productivity and effectiveness at work (Maslach et al., 2001). According to previous research findings, it is possible to observe sudden changes in attitude and personality in burnout individuals; for example, even-tempered employees become short-tempered, rude, and insensitive (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). Since burnout reduces the possibility of positive opportunities at work, it is associated with decreased job satisfaction and reduced commitment to the job or organization (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). In fact, burned out individuals are not as committed as they used to be as they shift back and forth between feelings of anger, disillusionment and not caring at all (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). In addition, burned out individuals tend to underestimate their accomplishments, and thus they lack confidence and have doubts about their self-worth.

One of the first reactions individuals suffering from burnout is withdrawal. Briefly, withdrawal is spending little time on the job as much as possible (Schwab, Jackson & Schuler, 1986). Withdrawal can be physical (taking breaks) or psychological (mentally not being there). In burnout cases, it is possible to observe the withdrawal intention not only on the job but also in reactions to family and friends (Jackson & Maslach, 1982). Even though burnout is viewed as an individual syndrome, people experiencing burnout might affect their colleagues in a negative way by creating personal conflict or by disturbing job tasks (Maslach & Leiter, 2017) and thus burnout can be contagious (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). In addition, burnout may lead to “spillover” effect on home life and can cause family conflict between spouses (Leiter & Maslach, 2000; Maslach & Leiter, 2017; Schwab et al., 1986).

In terms of attitudinal outcomes, the individual’s motivation, zeal, enthusiasm, idealism disappear; furthermore, they lose their interest in their job and become hypercritical and suspicious of managers, co-workers, etc. (Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996). Individuals experiencing burnout suffer from severe emotional fatigue along with psychological symptoms including feelings of alienation, distress, inadequate and unmotivated

(McCormack & Cotter, 2013). As they feel emotionally exhausted, they feel empty, trapped or at the end of the rope and that's why they show dehumanizing, callous, detached, indifferent and cynical attitudes towards their recipients/clients (Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996). Employees with burnout frequently change their behaviours and show signs of depression or anger so they become unrecognizable to their colleagues (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). Burnout causes individuals to blame themselves since they are not able to handle the stress (Maslach, 2003). In order to overcome the negative feeling, they have to endure, they may turn to drugs or alcohol (McCormack & Cotter, 2013).

As for the outcomes related to health, Maslach and Leiter (2017) suggest that a chronic lack of energy can be a sign of a diminished resistance to disease and more probability of having accidents and injuries. Of the three dimensions of burnout, exhaustion is correlated with stress symptoms including headaches, colds, chronic fatigue, sleep disturbances, gastrointestinal disorders, and muscle tension (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Exhaustion, especially, reveals itself by general weariness, physical lethargy (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). If exhaustion is combined with other dimensions of burnout, which are depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment, people tend to have a less healthy lifestyle (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Additionally, burnout leads to negative effects on mental health and can cause mental dysfunctions such as depression, low self-esteem, anxiety, etc. (Maslach et al., 2001).

Studies in the literature have indicated, as a syndrome, burnout has considerable personal, social organizational costs in terms of physical health, psychological well-being, and work performance (Maslach, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Although employees pay a high cost due to burnout, they are not the only ones being affected by it because this syndrome presents a serious problem for all kinds of organizations and the economy worldwide (McCormack & Cotter, 2013). The effects of burnout have been studied in numerous professions, occupations, and other population groups and teachers were found to have one of the highest levels of burnout (especially in emotional exhaustion dimension) (Griffiths & Sönmez, 2020; McCormack & Cotter, 2013; Smylie, 1999). In the following section, teacher burnout will be discussed in terms of how burnout appears in the teaching profession, possible causes, results and solutions for it.

2.2.3. Burnout in Educational Context

Since the beginning of 1970s, when burnout began to get the attention of researchers, burnout has been connected to teaching and research studies have revealed a relationship between teacher burnout and its negative effects on teachers' physical and psychological well-being (Schaufeli et al., 2009). The extensive teacher burnout literature is evidence of the internationality of the issue (Aloe, Shisler, Norris, Nickerson & Rinker, 2014) as research on problems related to teacher burnout has been conducted in countries including Norway (e.g., Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010), the Netherlands (e.g., Schaufeli, 2003), the USA (e.g., Shen et al., 2015), Israel (e.g., Friedman, 2000), China (e.g., Chang, 2009), Iran (e.g., Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021), Australia (e.g., Howard & Johnson, 2004), New Zealand (e.g., Vesty et al., 2018), Spain (e.g., Otero-Lopez, Mario & Bolano, 2008), Finland (e.g., Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2005), China (e.g., Hu, 2017), Malaysia (e.g., Chen et al., 2014); India (e.g., Azeem & Nazir, 2008), and Turkey (e.g., Cephe, 2010; Kavanoz, Kırkgöz, 2020), etc.

Education is one of the prime examples of interpersonally oriented professions in which the relationship between providers and recipients is central to the job, and the nature of work can be highly emotional (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). In other words, providing affective, instructional, and moral services to learners of necessity makes emotional demands on teachers (Vandenberghe & Huberman, 1999). Different from other human service officers, teachers have to create close relationships with their students in crowded classrooms rather than individually, and thus this situation makes teaching unique (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Maslach and Leiter (1999) describe the relationship between students and teachers as the most rewarding aspect of teaching, yet this relationship also makes teachers vulnerable.

Apparently, the teaching profession is known to be a very demanding job with high levels of attrition (Griffiths & Sönmez, 2020) and is known to be amongst the most stressful occupations (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). According to Kyriacou (1989 as cited in Dean & Dean, 2002) teacher burnout can be defined as “a state of mental, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion in educators which is a result of the prolonged experience of stress”. The stress teachers suffer from might stem from unpleasant emotions including anger, tension, frustration, depression and nervousness, resulting from the same aspect of their work as teachers (Kyriacou, 2010). As teacher burnout is a multi-facet concept, there can be other possible reasons for teacher burnout such as unmotivated students, discipline problems, time

pressures, workload demands, a large amount of change, the stress of being evaluated, challenging relationships with colleagues, management, poor working conditions, etc. (Kyriacou, 2001).

Since the country, education system, social status of the teacher and culture of the country are effective factors causing teacher burnout (Kyriacou, 2010), various researchers have come up with different teacher burnout models. As the pioneers of burnout researchers, Maslach and Leiter (1999) created a model which aims to gain a deeper understanding of not only the impact of burnout on the teaching process but also the causal factors (See Figure 2.4). According to Maslach and Leiter (1999), burnout should be considered to be a factor to both teachers' and students' behaviour, and also various factors influencing teacher burnout should be taken into consideration (e.g., social environment, school setting, the nature of the work, personal characteristics of teacher and students).

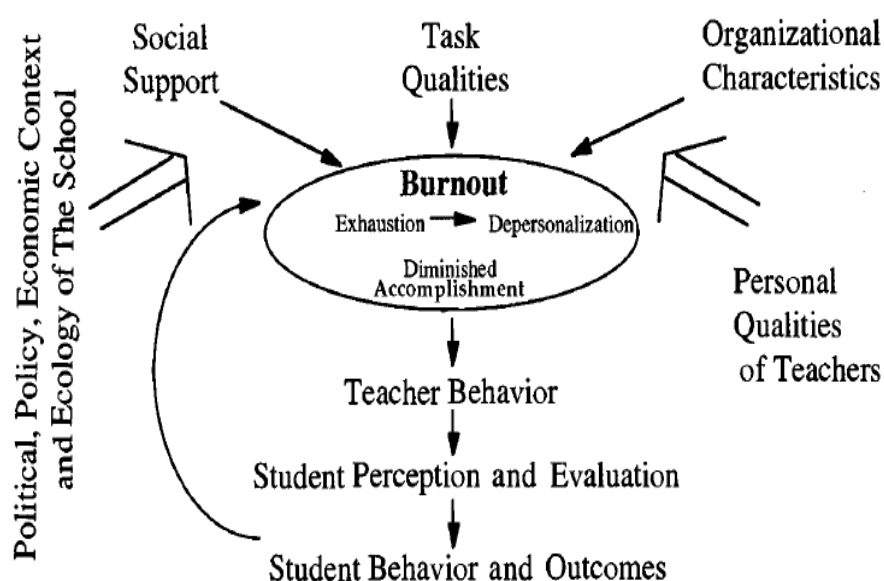


Figure 2.4. Proposed model of teacher burnout. Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1999). Teacher burnout: A research agenda. In R. Vandenberghe & A.M. Huberman (Eds.), *Teacher burnout: A sourcebook of international research and practice* (pp. 295–304). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

In this model, the effects of the reciprocal and bidirectional relationship between students and teachers on teacher burnout have been emphasized. It is assumed that teachers' behaviours are shaped by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment in the process of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Students seem to need the warmth and closeness of their teachers and need their guidance, advice, assistance in

solving personal/learning problems as well as their professional skills (Friedman, 1999). Due to the teacher suffering from burnout, the teacher's classroom preparation, involvement in activities, and the quality of positive feedback decreases; in contrast, the amount of criticism increases with greater teacher burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). In a similar vein, Rudow (1999) emphasizes that stressed teachers may depict inappropriate actions (such as yelling at students) and cognitive misfunctions (e.g., not noticing the mistakes). In response to behaviour change in the teacher, students are likely to change their perceptions and feelings toward the teacher and their behaviour in class (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). For instance, students will have a lower sense of efficacy, feel less competent as a learner, and feel less competent at school and so on. Hence, teacher burnout affects students and their learning performance (Cephe, 2010; Maslach & Leiter, 1999; Rudow, 1999; Schwazer & Greenglass, 1999).

As another factor in this model, *social support in schools* has been a distinctive aspect of teaching as other human service professions are suitable to teamwork and task interdependency; however, teachers do much of their work in isolation (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Owing to low participation in decision-making, low supervisor and colleague support, teachers have to cope with their own circumstances they would not choose (De Heus & Diesktra, 1999). That is why De Heus and Diekstra (1999) state that classrooms may be crowded yet schools can be lonely places. Regarding *task qualities*, role conflict, role ambiguity, and work overload are sample task qualities that contribute to negative classroom climate which in turn predictive of teacher burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Similarly, in *organizational characteristics*, the decision-making environment of the school determines the extent to which teachers can maintain sufficient control to enact their values through their work, and thus organizational characteristics affect teacher burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Although teachers have the power in deciding how to do things in their classrooms, they have little say about what to do (De Heus & Diesktra, 1999). In plain English, teachers are bound to be decisions in which they have had little or no input (Smylie, 1999). In terms of *political, economic and ecological context*, the larger social context in which the school functions is considered to be an interaction variable in this model. If there is violence, poverty, or alienation in the community, this will affect students' learning and performance more than teacher burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1999).

In the literature, there are many ideas related to the sources of teacher burnout. For instance, Cephe (2010) categorizes main sources of teacher burnout as micro (e.g., lack of clinical supervision, rules, and regulations without an explanation) and macro (e.g., salaries, feelings of belongingness to the profession). Chang (2009) points out that the close relationship between teachers and students can offer lots of pleasant emotions including passion, excitement, joy, pride, and hope; on the other hand, teaching also can offer unpleasant feelings such as worry, frustration, guilt, anger, fear, vulnerability, and disappointment. Consequently, this emotional labour may cause teachers to feel emotionally exhausted. Smylie (1999) underlines that teachers are prone to stress as they are asked to accomplish various tasks including providing academic instruction, maintaining order in the classroom, attending to the social and emotional well-being of students, etc.

Slegers (1999) suggests that teacher burnout should be considered to be the outcome of the interaction between the intentions and actions of the individual teacher and working condition; thus, in the study of teacher burnout, social, personality, and organizational factors should be taken into consideration. Especially, organizational factors (role ambiguity, excessive workload, numerous expectations from work, financial position, organizational environment, etc.) were found to be effective in teacher burnout. Kyriacou (2001) scans through international studies and lists ten main stressors for teachers: teaching students who lack motivation, maintaining discipline, time pressures and workload, coping with change, being evaluated by others, dealing with colleagues, self-esteem and status issues, problems dealing with administration, role conflict and ambiguity, poor working conditions (p. 29). However, Chang (2009) argues that the underlying sources of teacher burnout (especially emotional exhaustion) are intensive emotional work and emotional labour required in teaching; therefore, emotion regulation is a necessary coping strategy.

In terms of consequences, teacher burnout reduces the quality of life, leads to deterioration in teaching efficacy and degrade the quality of teaching in the classroom (Maslach & Leiter, 1999; Maslach et al., 2001). Teacher burnout has such a negative effect on teachers that it has been accepted as a cause of psychological and physical injuries such as depression, anxiety, headaches, loss self-esteem, insomnia, gastrointestinal disorders, raised blood pressure, etc. (Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). There is ample evidence that teachers are likely to experience a great amount of stress (Maslach & Leiter, 1999; Shen et al., 2015) which can result in depressed mood, exhaustion, poor performance, attitude changes,

personality changes, all of which can cause illnesses and premature retirement (Schwazer & Greenglass, 1999). Graham (1999) defines teacher burnout as a “terrible ordeal” or “tragedy” (p. 285) for the teacher who suffers from it since it causes intense personal pain and the need for immediate professional change.

As burnout has numerous implications for teachers’ performance, students and colleagues, it needs to be seen as a problem with serious consequences for both teachers’ careers and the learning outcomes of their students (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Probably, the most intriguing consequence of teacher burnout is its effect on students and their learning. It has been acknowledged that burnout does not only affect teachers, yet it affects their students (Griffiths & Sönmez, 2020). Cephe (2010) pinpoints that it is significant to keep teachers away from burnout to continue effective teaching as the effect of burnout can be harmful both for teachers and learners. For instance, Shen et al. (2015) claim that teachers’ status of burnout affects students’ quality of motivation. The quality of teaching is adversely affected by teacher stress and burnout since stressed and teachers experiencing burnout perform less than the others concerning behaviours towards students or professional practices (Rudow, 1999). To exemplify, teachers experiencing burnout provide significantly less information, praise and acceptance to their students, and interact less frequently with them (Hu, 2017). More specifically, educators with high emotional exhaustion can no longer focus on their students as they once could and educators with high levels of depersonalization attempt to distance themselves from their students (Byrne, Chughtai, Flood, Murphy & Willis, 2013). If educators suffer from reduced personal accomplishment, they might perceive themselves as ineffective in helping students to learn and fulfil other school responsibilities (Byrne, 1994 as cited in Byrne et al., 2013).

As the most valuable and most costly aspect of education systems are the people who are teaching, it is crucial to maintain their well-being (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Accordingly, lots of solutions, precautions or strategies have been proposed to fight against teacher burnout. Burnout has been a hot issue in many teaching websites (such as [teachhub.com](https://www.teachhub.com), [eductaionworld.com](https://www.eductaionworld.com), [edutopia.com](https://www.edutopia.com)) and various strategies to overcome burnout are offered including taking yourself time; limiting what you work you bring home; leaning on a colleague; having network with teachers online; staying away from negativity; getting more training; sharing the workload; avoiding the Sunday blues; having fun daily with your students (Griffiths & Sönmez, 2020). Moreover, two influential coping mechanisms have

received attention in the literature: the first one is self-efficacy (internal resource) and the second one is social support (external resource) (Schwazer & Greenglass, 1999). Griffiths and Sönmez (2020) argue that to prevent burnout it is important to give teachers a voice in curriculum development, instructional practices, professional development and support them student-related issues.

Additionally, Maslach (2017) comes up with six different proposals to ameliorate burnout at an individual level: health and fitness, relaxation strategies, self-understanding, coping skills, changes in work patterns and social support. According to Maslach and Leiter (2017), the strategies to cope with burnout at an organizational level have been mostly neglected. However, before any of these strategies, it is better, easier and less expensive to prevent burnout before treating it as helping individuals suffering from burnout requires substantial efforts before reaching meaningful results (Friedman, 1999; Lackritz, 2004; Maslach, 2017). Preventive intervention programs should be varied and tailored according to the needs of teachers such as orientation programs for novice teachers, in-service trainings, and support groups for more experienced teachers (Friedman, 1999).

2.2.3.1. Studies Related to Burnout in Higher Education

Teachers at different levels of the education system (e.g., primary school, high school) might experience burnout in dissimilar ways because the roles of the teachers, their problems and many other circumstances such as working conditions vary. Although there has been a plethora of research conducted on teacher burnout, the number of studies which aimed to focus on academics at universities is relatively scarce (Kırkgöz & Kavanoz, 2020; Kulavuz-Önal & Tatar, 2017; Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021; Watts & Robertson, 2011). Basically, educators at the tertiary level share many common features with other teachers yet teaching at the tertiary level has some unique aspects. For instance, Lackritz (2004) claim that academicians are potential candidates for burnout as they have relationships with a high number of students, personnel, and administrators. Hence, in the following paragraphs, studies related to burnout only at the tertiary level will be focused to comprehend the unique nature of burnout and educators at this level.

The majority of the burnout research on higher education focused on the factors that affect burnout levels of academics. To exemplify, Lacritz (2004) investigated burnout and related it to demographics, job conditions and accomplishments. The participants were 265 university faculty members working at a major state university on the west coast of the USA. Data were obtained through a survey instrument designed by the researcher and burnout found to be a clear problem in academia, with approximately 20% of all faculty members feeling the highest levels. Female faculty members were found to show higher mean scores on emotional exhaustion than males, while male faculty members have higher scores on depersonalization. Burnout revealed significant correlations with the number of students taught, time invested in various activities, and numerical student evaluations. The researcher suggests using preventive strategies to anticipate burnout rather than reactive techniques to cure it when it occurs.

As the first researchers to examine burnout among academics in an Irish context, Byrne et al. (2013), assess the burnout level of 100 accounting and finance academics by means of the MBI-ES. The findings of the study indicated that the majority of the academics experience low or average burnout regarding emotional exhaustion and depersonalization yet experience a high degree of burnout in the personal accomplishment dimension. The main sources of high levels of burnout were intense student contact and other teaching-related activities. The researchers suggest that the academics do not feel competent in their interactions with students, colleagues and perceive themselves ineffective in helping their students. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that students' lack of commitment may be contributing to educators' low sense of accomplishment. Furthermore, results imply that job satisfaction variables explain some variation in burnout. Consequently, increasing faculty members' job satisfaction can be a useful strategy for preventing academic burnout.

By focusing on Australian and New Zealander contexts, Vesty et al. (2018) questioned the existence of burnout and how the work-related factors affect burnout in the academy. A sample of 158 academics from three different universities in Australia and New Zealand participated in the survey. Quantitative data were collected via the MBI-GS and the AWS instruments. For qualitative data, three focus group meetings were held with 23 of the academics in order to discuss role and performance questions. Based on participants responses, important findings emerged: (1) High workload and absence of recognition are the main factors that explain emotional exhaustion but do not seem to influence the levels of

cynicism or perceptions about professional efficacy; (2) Peer support seems to reduce cynicism and/or enhance professional efficacy. Different from previous research studies, the participants' professional efficacy continues to remain high. These findings suggest that strong community support/social interaction helps academics to sustain high levels of perceived professional efficacy in Australian and New Zealander contexts.

In a different cultural context, Azeem and Nazir (2008) focused on the differences in burnout levels among lecturers, readers, and professors in an Indian university. The sample group consisted of randomly chosen three hundred academics and the data were collected through the MBI-ES. The findings indicated that lecturers had a high level of emotional exhaustion (EE) and were found to be significantly different on EE from the other groups. On the other hand, in terms of EE, readers show less EE than lecturers but higher EE than professors. According to the researchers, the overall results showed that academics in the Indian context have a stronger feeling of being capable of attaining their goals, and therefore do not become much depersonalized and emotionally exhausted. Additionally, the results revealed that the difference in the EE dimension might stem from tenure status, academic rank, and workload differences among these three groups. This finding is important because it can be concluded that although these three groups of academics work at the same university, their working conditions and therefore burnout they experience are different from each other.

In order to evaluate the extent of burnout for university teaching staff and predictive variables, a systematic literature review was conducted by Watts and Robertson (2011). Six common databases (e.g., ERIC, Scopus) were searched by using key terms related to burnout and 12 studies were included in the literature review as they met the necessary criteria. The review put forward that staff exposure to high numbers of students strongly predicted burnout experience. Moreover, other predictive variables included gender, with higher depersonalization scores found in male teachers. Female teachers typically scored higher on emotional exhaustion. Another important factor was age as younger staff appeared more vulnerable to emotional exhaustion. The researchers emphasized the scarcity of comparative studies across different universities; therefore, there is a need for multi-site studies in order to understand the burnout concept. Similar to Watts and Robertson (2011), Sabagh, Hall and Saroyan (2018) conducted a review to critically examine the findings of 36 quantitative research related to burnout in faculty. Their review demonstrated that demographic factors revealed mixed results; on the other hand, adverse job demands (e.g., workload) and lack of

resources (e.g., social support) enhance burnout. As a result of these negative factors, the performance and commitment of faculty members decreased, and their psychological and physical health deteriorated. An important finding of the review was the fact that burnout is experienced internationally.

In a very recent study, Salahshour and Esmaeili (2021) investigated sources of burnout among Iranian EFL academics. In their case study, the researchers used thematic analysis of interviews in order to gather deeper data on burnout phenomenon. As a result of the analysis, five conceptual categories emerged which were institutional demands, interpersonal problems, discordant outlooks, lack of student motivation and lack of institutional supports. Based on the findings, researchers reported that the major cause of burnout in academics was institutional demands. Different from previous studies which defined the main sources of burnout as work demands and classroom-related problems, Salahshour and Esmaeili (2021) put forward that macro-level policies and outside class factors are significant in academics' burnout.

In a Turkish context, Bilge (2006) conducted a survey study to examine the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction of academics along with other related factors. The study group comprised 194 academics in a state university and the MBI and the Job Satisfaction Scale for Academicians were utilized as data collection instruments. The results demonstrated that intrinsic job satisfaction of academics was the most significant predictor of the three dimensions of burnout. Apparently, the academics who found their jobs meaningful, who found encouragement for their professional development, and who could assume responsibility for their jobs were more motivated to work and experience burnout less. In addition, once the feeling of personal accomplishment decreased the extrinsic satisfaction of the academics increased. In terms of predictive factors, the status of academics was predictive of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. The researcher emphasized that intrinsic factors are more important than extrinsic factors in the job satisfaction of academics.

As the participant group in the current dissertation is English instructors at the tertiary level, research studies that focused on this group were especially searched. For instance, Cephe (2010) carried out a research study to identify English instructors' level of burnout and the major factors leading burnout at the tertiary level. Quantitative data were gathered from 37 English instructors working at a state university by means of the Teacher Burnout Scale

developed by McCroskey, Richmond, Wrench and Gorham in 2001. In the first phase of the study, the burnout levels of instructors defined and then randomly chosen 12 instructors from four different burnout levels were interviewed so as to find out major factors that led these instructors to burnout. Survey results showed that almost half of the instructors suffered severely from burnout. Findings of qualitative data revealed that for all the instructors the major reason for teacher burnout was lack of a positive and high-quality administrative team in their institutions. In his study, Cephe (2010) came up with a categorization of macro factors (governmental (e.g., salaries) and personal (e.g., the social prestige of being a language teacher) and micro factors (administrative (e.g., the communication style of administrators) and academic (e.g., no in-service training) factors that were influential in teacher burnout. Cephe (2010) suggests that teacher burnout is a serious problem and effective remedies are needed including macro-level regulations, monitoring and evaluating language teaching institutions, developing administrative and academic systems.

Another study investigated the level of teacher burnout experienced by Turkish instructors of English and the major reasons leading to it was conducted by Öztürk (2013). The participants were 139 English instructors from eight different universities. All the participants responded to the items of the Teacher Burnout Scale (McCroskey et al., 2001) and 40 of them were interviewed to gather deeper data. The results indicated that participants were experiencing burnout at a moderate level and the major reasons for burnout were heavy workload, students, institutional problems, and apart from these participants also reported that financial problems social life and educational policy affected them. Öztürk's research (2013) proved that burnout levels of instructors are mostly affected by organizational factors.

In terms of the relationship between burnout and organizational context, Kazimlar and Dollar (2015) investigated the burnout levels of English instructors at foundation universities to see whether there are any differences between low and high burnout English instructors in terms of their organizational context. A sample of 81 English instructors from five different foundation universities responded to the survey and 18 instructors volunteered for the semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data were collected through the MBI-ES and the AWS. Semi-structured interviews aimed to explore the possible reasons for person-job mismatches. The findings of the study revealed that most of the instructors had moderate and high levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and only a quarter of participants had a higher sense of personal accomplishment. Participants with high levels of burnout had a

significantly more negative perception of the organization they worked in. Different dimensions of burnout affected different domains of the work environment. For instance, only higher levels of emotional exhaustion induced a significantly lower match between teacher expectations and workload. Hence, it can be concluded that burnout is a very complex phenomenon and factors affecting each dimension might be different (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

In a similar setting, Kulavuz-Onal and Tatar (2017) compared the perceived working qualities of the working conditions of English instructors in state and foundation universities and investigated the relationship between burnout and professional learning activities. A sample of 224 English instructors working at 15 different universities participated in the study. The researchers gathered data by means of the Turkish version of the MBI-ES and the adapted version of Kwakman's inventory (2003) for participation in professional learning activities. According to the findings, instructors working at state universities had a significantly lower sense of personal accomplishment and they participated in professional learning activities less than their colleagues. Thus, the researcher emphasized that providing instructors with more professional learning opportunities and creating more supportive and more professional learning environments could contribute to instructors' increased sense of personal accomplishment.

Looking at the research studies in higher education, it can be concluded that the majority of the research studies mainly focused on defining burnout levels of academics and the demographic variables that affect burnout. However, the findings of recent studies emphasized the importance of organizational factors (Maslach, 1999; Öztürk, 2013). In addition, there is a lack of research on the relationship between burnout and other related constructs (such as organizational commitment) by using more sophisticated statistical techniques so as to comprehend different aspects of the burnout phenomenon in academics. Previous research has indicated that, especially, English instructors experience more stress than other academics due to the nature of language teaching in an EFL context (Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021). Accordingly, the current study aims to fill a gap in the literature by focusing on the organizational factors regarding instructors' job-related feelings of Turkish EFL instructors (e.g., burnout).

2.3. Job Satisfaction

Within the research studies that focus on attitudes toward work, job satisfaction has been the most searched construct over the last half-century (Dicke et al., 2019), and the reason for this attention stems from the fact that most individuals spend the majority of their working lives at work (Gruneberg, 1979). In this respect, investigating and improving the job satisfaction of individuals is related to promoting the well-being of people (Spector, 1997). Apart from this personal perspective, job satisfaction is crucial from an organizational perspective. In order for organizations to be able to sustain their existence and be competitive, they should use their main source, the individuals, in most effective and efficient way (Telman & Ünsal, 2004). Apparently, it is crucial to ensure the peace and happiness of the employees in a workplace since other sources of business can only be activated by human resources (Demir, 2007). In other words, the consequences of job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction), including absenteeism, withdrawal, turnover, burnout, decrease in organizational commitment or productivity, affect the physical and psychological well-being of employees, the whole company, and the welfare of the society (Demir, 2007; Spector, 1997).

In the classical management approach, mechanical elements of the business are emphasized within the framework of the concepts of efficiency, order, and rationality. At the same time, it is thought that organizations, as being social systems, should be operated just like a machine according to the predetermined principles and rules (Genç, 2007). It involves bringing together non-human elements such as material elements, work, tasks, and concepts together in line with the determined principles and putting the human element into this structure. In this way, it is assumed that human beings will behave in the same direction as a machine or robot (Koçel, 2007).

Born as a reaction to the classical management approach in the neo-classical understanding, it is envisaged that the employees are not only made up of substances, but they do also not act as a part of the machine. Employees can be rewarded by meeting their moral needs as well as their material needs, and elements such as social security, stability, job satisfaction, and appreciation will increase the productivity of the employees (Altun, 2019). The neo-classical movement has brought a human-centred understanding of management such as characteristics of the human element, motivation, organizational behaviour, participation in decision and management, and job satisfaction. This trend, which treats the business as a

social structure, has assumed that this social structure will be successful if it is arranged in a human-centred manner (Genç, 2007).

However, the inefficiency of classical and neo-classical management approaches to solve the problems of the business necessitated the development of further new research and new approaches in this field. Both theories approach the human element in the business from very different and extreme angles. Therefore, the modern management approach emerged from the need to compensate for the shortcomings of both approaches and to harmonize their positive aspects. The modern management approach has interpreted the attitude and suggestions of classical and neo-classical management approaches from a new and different perspective and tried to reach a synthesis (Şimsek & Çelik, 2013). As stated in the complex man insight, humans are open to change as well as being complex; therefore, the needs of the people are also unstable. The organization's own conditions, environmental conditions, the technology utilized, the socio-cultural characteristics, and the experience of the individuals in the organization lead to changes in the needs and wants of the individual. The fact that people have unlike needs and behaviours under different conditions indicates that employee satisfaction is not a one-dimensioned issue to deal with. Therefore, in order for people to be satisfied with their jobs, there is a need for management that can perceive and evaluate their economic, social, and other needs under different conditions (Şahin, 2004).

2.3.1. Theoretical Development of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a field of research that has been studied in many disciplines and handled from different perspectives. As a result, different definitions have been made for job satisfaction. The first research on job satisfaction was Hawthorne studies in the 1920s. The study was conducted to examine the effects of alternations in physical conditions (such as illumination) on production (George & Zakkariya, 2018). It was found out that individuals' performance increased not as a result of changes in physical conditions yet due to the experimental situation and this situation is now known as the "Hawthorne effect" (Gruneberg, 1979). According to Mayo (1933 as cited in Bauman, 2013), Hawthorne studies put forward that people work for purposes other than pay, and that caused researchers to investigate other factors associated with job satisfaction.

Another prominent researcher that contributed to the foundations of job satisfaction was Hoppock as he was the first researcher who used survey methods and attitude scales and analysed the responses of 500 teachers in a small town to find out whether the teachers are happy (Gruneberg, 1979). Hoppock (1953, p.47 as cited in Scruton, 2013) defines job satisfaction as “any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, ‘I am satisfied with my job’”. Hoppock’s study revealed that job satisfaction was affected by various factors found in the work environment, including emotional maladjustment, and supervision; therefore, this study contributed to modern understanding of job satisfaction (Makolle, 2015).

As one of the most cited definitions of job satisfaction, Locke (1976) frames job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (p. 1304). Such a status is likely to happen as a consequence of lovely experiences about the job itself. In line with Locke, Lofquist and Dawis (1969, p.53 as cited in Oshagbemi, 2003) define jobs satisfaction as “a function of correspondence between the reinforcer system of the work environment and the individual needs”. According to Byrne et al. (2012), the previous researchers view job satisfaction as an outcome of individuals’ appraisal of the degree to which the work environment fulfils the individual needs. Different from Locke, who investigates only the positive outcomes, Spector (1997, p. 2) does not only focus on the positive consequences and defines job satisfaction as “the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs”. Spector (1997) emphasizes that previous research tends to focus on whether the physical and psychological needs of employees are met; however, recently the attitudinal perspective has become dominant in the study of job satisfaction as most researchers are prone to concentrate on cognitive processes instead of underlying needs.

From an attitudinal perspective, Weiss (2002, p. 175) suggests that job satisfaction is “positive (or negative) evaluative judgment of one makes about one’s job or job situation”. In line with Weiss (2002), Ilies and Judge (2004) assert that even though job satisfaction has been defined as an emotional state by some researchers (e.g., Locke, 1976), in fact job satisfaction is an attitudinal construct which reflects one’s evaluation of his or her job. Furthermore, Robbins (2001) mentions the term as the overall attitude of the individual in relation to his or her work and says the more job satisfaction one has, the more the attitudes to the job is positive, or vice versa.

Spector (2006) discusses that, as an attitudinal variable, job satisfaction can be studied by using two different approaches (global and facet approaches). In global approach, job satisfaction is accepted as a single, an overall feeling towards job; on the other hand, facet approach focuses on the different aspects of job (such as pay, supervisor, etc.) (Spector, 1997). According to Spector (2006), the facet approach provides a more complete picture of job satisfaction as an individual may have different levels of satisfaction in various facets. Regarding why job satisfaction is significant in today's workplace, Spector (1997) underlines (1) the importance of humanitarian values as high levels of satisfaction can be a signal of emotional wellness and mental fitness of employees; (2) employees' level of job satisfaction can influence their organizational behaviour and can cause positive and negative work behaviours; (3) level of job satisfaction may influence the productivity within the departments and also the productivity of the whole organization.

Job satisfaction predominantly takes its roots from the industrial or organizational psychology. Although job satisfaction is different from motivation, which includes behaviour as an attitude, it is the first time in the literature that job satisfaction has been examined systematically by motivation theories (Farris, 2012). Some theoretical assertions about work motivation validated the implicit function of job satisfaction and these theories might be counted as the pioneer efforts to explain job satisfaction and its impacts (Bauman, 2013). In the following section, the most prominent theories that shaped the foundation of job satisfaction will be presented under two different categories which are content and process theories.

2.3.1.1. Content Theories

In general, theories related to job satisfaction and motivation are covered under two groups as content and process theories. Content theories argue that human behaviour is more influenced by internal factors such as emotions, thoughts and beliefs that belong to personality. As the most prominent content theories, Maslow's and Herzberg's theories put forward that fulfilment of needs and attainment of values has an important role in job satisfaction (Scruton, 2013). Furthermore, the X-Y theory focuses on the relationship between the superior and the employee.

Maslow's *Needs Hierarchy Theory* pioneered the developments in motivation and satisfaction theories and served as a basis for researchers to establish further theories (Bauman, 2013). Maslow (1943) investigated why people make personal sacrifices and agree to take part in working life under the command of other people. As a result of his research, he determined that people perform some behaviours to satisfy their biological, social, and psychological needs. According to Maslow (1943), the needs are divided into lower order needs: (1) basic psychological needs, (2) safety and security needs, (3) social needs; and higher order needs (4) esteem needs, and (5) self-actualization needs. Briefly, this theory asserts that once a lower level need is satisfied, a higher level of need emerges, and the individual takes action in order to satisfy that need (Maslow, 1954). In terms of job satisfaction, only after the lower needs such as security and pay are satisfied, the individual seeks satisfaction and achievement from the work itself (Gruneberg, 1979). Thus, it can be suggested that job satisfaction emerges when the job and job-related factors meet an individual's needs (Scruton, 2013).

Another important motivation theory related to job satisfaction is Herzberg's (1968) *Two Factor Theory*, also known as *Motivator-Hygiene Theory*. This theory distinguishes two sets of factors involved in job satisfaction: the first group is called *motivators* and their presence in working situation increases motivation, yet their absence does not lead to dissatisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Motivating factors include employee's love for the job, participation in management and decision-making processes, taking responsibility and promotion and social opportunities (Bolin, 2007). The second set of factors are *hygiene* factors, and their inadequacy leads to dissatisfaction, but their adequacy does not lead to satisfaction (Scruton, 2013). Hygiene factors include salaries, working conditions, job status and security, etc. (Bolin, 2007).

Thanks to Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory, the construct of job satisfaction improved and has become more sophisticated as two dimensions of job satisfaction emerged which are intrinsic (motivator factors) and extrinsic (hygiene factors) factors (Scruton, 2013). Intrinsic factors are associated with job content or the work itself and involve: (a) achievement recognition, (b) nature of work itself, (c) responsibility and (d) advancement; on the other hand, extrinsic factors are associated with job context or the work environment and involve (e) company policy, (f) administration, (g) supervision, (h) salary, (i) interpersonal relations and (j) working conditions (Gruneberg, 1979). Although both Maslow and Herzberg were

criticized for the limitations in their theories, their ideas are still accepted as the foundation of job satisfaction and served as a basis for the following researchers including McClelland's theory of needs and Alfred's ERG (Existence, Relatedness and Growth) theory.

Among content theories, another prominent theory is McGregor's (1960) *X-Y Theory*. McGregor discusses the relationship between managers and employees and the opinions of managers about employees and he classified these in two groups as X and Y theories (Altun, 2019). The "X Theory" is a traditional assessment where managers have more negative attitudes towards employees. Regarding the X Theory, there are some negative features of human beings such as being lazy, the tendency to work on a minimum level, not being ambitious, tendency of resisting change, avoiding responsibility, and ignoring the needs of an organization (McGregor, 1960). Also, people are considered to be soft touch and are deprived of practical intelligence and due to these characteristics, employees should be controlled, forced and punished to perform the work (Altun, 2019).

The "Theory of Y" is seen as a modern assessment and it is the opposite of the "Theory of X". According to the Y theory, a typical person is assumed to have some basic characteristics. For instance, laziness is not seen as human nature and if people are provided with an appropriate environment, it is assumed that they will enjoy working (McGregor, 1960). In addition, it is accepted that when the necessary environment and conditions are provided, individuals' tendency to learn and take responsibility will increase. If the objectives are explained correctly, it is assumed that individuals will be open to cooperation and will act in line with the objectives of the business or the organization (McGregor, 1960). Today, according to most of the managers and researchers, it is accepted that the X theory is not valid, yet it cannot be said that the Y theory is fully accepted, either (Altun, 2019).

2.3.1.2. Process Theories

Process theories argue that human behaviour is influenced not only by internal factors but also by external factors such as working conditions and the environment (Scruton, 2013). In general, process theories try to explain how the individual's needs, values and expectations interact with job to provide job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). The most prominent process theories include Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Adams' Equity Theory and Locke's Goal Setting Theory.

As one of the outstanding process theories, Vroom's *Expectancy Theory* focuses on employees' attitudes and thoughts towards their own behaviours in the 1960s. The basic premises of this theory are that the person determines the degree of motivation himself by comparing the probability of reaching the desired action with the efforts he should make for it and that people derive satisfaction from what they see as the likely result of their actions (Barlı, 2007). Vroom's detailed factor analyses prove that the main components of job satisfaction are administration, promotion, job nature, superiors, salary remuneration, working conditions and colleagues (Bolin, 2007).

According to Vroom's theory, in the process of work behaviour choice, employees take into consideration three factors: (1) valence (the degree to which the expected outcomes are attractive or unattractive), (2) instrumentality (how much they believe a set level of performance will lead to attainment) and (3) expectancy (the extent to which an employee thinks making an effort will achieve a goal (Al Tayyar, 2014; Beardwell & Claydon, 2007)). It is easier for individuals to be motivated if they believe that their efforts will increase their performance and this performance will lead them to the reward they desire. It is also important to motivate them to think that this award is necessary for their future success (Koçel, 2007). Vroom's theory inspired a lot of researchers and served as a basis for following theories such as Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Theory.

Another theory that is important for job satisfaction is the *Equity Theory* developed by Adams (1963). According to this theory, employees generally compare their own outcomes received from their jobs, as measured against the input they contribute (outcome-input ratio) (Scruton, 2013). Inputs describe elements such as working hours, skills, work experience, efforts and qualifications; on the other hand, outputs indicate what the employees obtained as a result of their jobs such as pay, benefits, job security and status (Greenberg & Baron, 1997). Generally, employees compare themselves with other employees and if the employee detects an inequity as a result of his comparisons, he will endeavour to eliminate this inequity (Toker, 2007). Adams (1963) argues that there are several ways that an individual may resort to eliminating inequity. Accordingly, an individual can reduce his efforts, try to change his rewards such as trying to get pay increases, try to get other people to do more work, try to change their rewards or outcomes, and develop defence mechanisms, believing that inequity is temporary and can be solved in the future, or change the person he compares with himself

(Adams, 1963). Once employees view reward structure including pay and promotion policies as fair and transparent, job satisfaction will increase (Al Tayyar, 2014).

In 1990, Locke and Latham proposed a well-developed goal-setting theory of motivation which emphasizes the relationship between goals and performance (Lunenburg, 2011). This theory is based on the premise that much of the human action is purposeful, in that it is directed by conscious goals (Locke & Latham, 1990; Makolle, 2015). According to Locke and Latham's (2002) research the most effective performance seems to result when goals are specific and challenging; moreover, high/hard goals lead to a higher level of performance than easy, vague, or abstract goals. Additionally, the goal setting theory posits that the most direct explanation of why some people perform better than others is because of their different performance goals (Latham, 2011). In terms of job satisfaction, it is possible to say that setting specific and challenging goals are necessary for enhancing job performance and job satisfaction as job satisfaction is the result of an appraisal of one's performance against one's goals (Latham, 2011). Thus, success is analysed as a factor that leads to job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 1990).

The major content theories express that fulfilment of needs and attainment of values have a major impact on job satisfaction; on the other hand, process theories suggest that job satisfaction can be described by examining the interaction variables including values, needs and expectancies (Scruton, 2013). It is not possible to assume that one theory is more valid than others yet they each have specific premises regarding job satisfaction.

2.3.2. Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

In the literature, it is possible to observe various ways of categorizing factors that affect job satisfaction including intrinsic/extrinsic factors (Herzberg, 1966; Weiss, Davis, England & Lofquist, 1967) or environmental/personal factors (Spector, 1997). Even though the categorizations seem different, they all involve similar or same factors such as pay, personal development opportunities, etc. (Bolin, 2007). As a researcher who shaped the job satisfaction studies, Spector (1997) divided the determinant factors of job satisfaction into two: environmental factors (of working conditions, personal development opportunities, rewards, supervision, co-workers, and communication) and personal factors (personality,

gender, age, cultural differences) and both of these categories work together to influence job satisfaction of an individual.

According to Weiss et al. (1967), as the creators of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, intrinsic satisfaction refers to the nature of job tasks and how people feel about the work they have; on the other hand, extrinsic satisfaction is related to other aspects of work situation (e.g., pay) (Spector, 2006). Simply, extrinsic factors can be defined as factors that are beyond the control of employees; for instance, pay, physical working conditions, job security, supervision, promotion opportunities, etc. (George & Zakkariya, 2018). On the other hand, intrinsic factors relate to the job content or work itself such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, and advancement (Herzberg, 1966). While extrinsic factors are associated with the environment in which the work is performed, intrinsic factors include features associated with the job itself (Chan, 2015).

Additionally, many researchers (Castillo & Cano, 2004; Perie & Baker, 1997; Smagina, 2020) have investigated the individual (personal or demographic) factors affecting job satisfaction. These factors include age, gender, marital status, tenure, education level, etc. Grundeberg (1979) asserts that studies revealed small and inconsistent effects of variables such as age, gender and personality and based on this evidence he suggests that organizational factors are more important than individual factors. Especially in the Turkish context, the majority of research studies focused on individual factors and revealed mixed results (Bilge, Akman & Kelecioğlu, 2007). Thus, due to the inconsistent findings of research studies focusing on individual factors, and due to adopting an organizational perspective, this study focuses on the organizational factors that might affect jobs satisfaction of academics. In the following paragraphs, based on the literature, the outstanding organizational factors will be discussed.

Work itself has been detected as the major source of job satisfaction (Locke, 1976; Koustelios & Tsigilis, 2005). Robbin, Odendaal and Roodt (2003, p. 77) defined this concept as “the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results”. There are three aspects of work itself which are control over work methods and pace, use of skills of abilities, and variety (Angi, 2002). When these three aspects are taken into consideration, job satisfaction level of teachers is higher where they are given the opportunity to use their skills and abilities (Angi, 2002). Likewise, Castillo and Cano (2004)

suggest the factor work itself is the most motivating factor in the job satisfaction of academics and this indicates that academics are satisfied with the content of their work.

Pay is considered the strongest determinant of job satisfaction as it is vital to attain basic needs including food, shelter, etc. (Feldman & Arnold, 1983). Additionally, pay might mean more than only a tool to acquire basic needs, it might seem as a symbol of achievement, recognition or failure (Grundeberg, 1979). Rather than the amount of pay, the equitability of pay is more important as employees feel unfair when they are given less pay than their co-workers who have a similar experience (George & Zakkariya, 2018). When their pay is lower than other employees who do the same job or think they are less skilled than themselves, the level of job satisfaction of employees decreases significantly; thus, pay system should be established fairly (Spector, 2006). Whilst pay is a crucial factor, very few teachers enter their teaching career by considering the pay; in contrast, teachers generally prefer the teaching profession because of intrinsic factors such as joy of teaching, working with children (Perie & Baker, 1997).

Supervision which expresses the attitudes and behaviours of those who are in executive positions affects the level of job satisfaction (Mitchell, 1982). The relationship between the immediate supervisor is an important factor defining employee's job satisfaction and job realities (Chan, 2015). In various work settings, increased job satisfaction is associated with supportive, cordial, and fair supervision (Borkowski, 2009). In the same line, Grundeberg (1979) suggests that research studies in different fields indicate a relationship between employee-oriented supervision and job satisfaction. However, Grundeberg (1979) states that it is hard to understand the importance of supervision style in job satisfaction due to the effect of social desirability on ratings, inconsistencies between studies and design problems in many research studies. In an educational context, an administrator's effective support is a significant factor in increasing teacher commitment and job satisfaction especially issues related to discipline problems, instructional methods and curriculum materials (Song & Mustafa, 2015).

Co-workers: in other words, the workgroup itself is another factor in job satisfaction. Since every task in an organization is a result of a group effort rather than an individual effort, job satisfaction is linked to how friendly and supportive the co-workers are (Robbins, 2005). Namely, the level of job satisfaction depends on the relationship employees have with their co-workers and if the co-workers have positive opinions regarding their work and

organization, employees will also be satisfied with their job (George & Zakkariya, 2018). The relationship among co-workers is also a determinant of organizational climate. The positive climate creates a positive atmosphere at workplace and affects employees' attitudes (Bil, 2018). On the contrary, Feldman and Arnold (1983) claim that lack of communication among co-workers reduces job satisfaction, leads to social isolation, and consequently causes them to leave the job.

Working Conditions is another effective factor in job satisfaction. According to George and Zakkariya (2018), physical conditions including temperature, ventilation, noise, workhours, lighting, and ambience, etc. are effective factors to promote job satisfaction. Once employees must deal with high levels of constraints in their working environment, they are more prone to be dissatisfied with their work (Spector, 1997). Apart from physical conditions, working conditions such as administrative support, school atmosphere, teacher autonomy is linked to teacher satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997). Henne and Locke (1985) put forward that individuals are more likely to feel satisfied when convenient locations and hours; safe and attractive physical surroundings; equipment and resources are provided. As teachers spend most of their time in their classrooms, the physical conditions in the classroom, the sufficiency of classroom equipment, and workload can be effective factors in teacher job satisfaction (Bil, 2018). Therefore, the better the working conditions are, the more satisfied the teachers feel (Perie & Baker, 1997).

2.3.3. Consequences of Job Satisfaction

As people spend the majority of their awake time at work, job satisfaction has major consequences for people, organizations, and society as well (Spector, 1997). In the literature, the prominent consequences of job satisfaction regarding the organization are withdrawal, absenteeism, turnover, and performance changes; on the other hand, from a more personalized perspective job satisfaction is associated with life satisfaction, physical and mental health of individuals. Withdrawal behaviours are the most apparent results of job dissatisfaction and can occur in various ways such as being absent for a short time or leaving the organization permanently (Grundeberg, 1979). In order for organizations to carry on their existence and function smoothly, turnover and absenteeism are crucial (George & Zakkariya, 2018). Withdrawal of employees can be described as minimizing working time, avoiding

duties and colleagues and in the end, employees leave the organization (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1997). Similarly, Spector (1997) suggests that dissatisfied employees will avoid their job and display withdrawal behaviours including coming late, being absent or quitting the job.

The most observable consequence of job satisfaction is turnover, which is leaving the work permanently to find a new job (Spector, 1997). Many correlational studies have proved that job satisfaction and turnover are related, and dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs compared with satisfied ones (Spector, 2006). Although it is obvious that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, the magnitude of this relationship is not necessarily very large due to many factors including the continuation of employees who are not satisfied with their jobs (Grundeberg, 1979) or lack of alternate employment opportunities (Spector, 1997). Several facets of job satisfaction have been related to turnover such as supervision, work itself, pay and social relations (Grundeberg, 1979).

Likewise, absenteeism is the frequency of work time lost when employees do not come to work (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1997). Spector (1997) makes it clear that absence harms the organizational effectiveness and efficacy by increasing the labour cost due to the necessity of substitutes for each absent employee. According to some researchers (such as Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson & Capwell, 1957), absence can be considered as a rehearsal of turnover and it might be a sign that the employee will leave the organization soon. However, in the literature, previous studies revealed contradictory results regarding the magnitude of the relations between job satisfaction turnover or absence (Spector, 1997). Grundeberg (1979) believes that the main source of these contradictions might be the fact that only in situations in which job alternatives are available are absence and turnover likely to be correlated. Additionally, Spector (2006) asserts that one possible cause of small relationship between satisfaction and absence might stem from the fact that a person can be absent for several reasons including illness, family problems, etc. and it is hard to decide which of these reasons are associated with job satisfaction.

Another consequence which has been discussed in the literature for a long time is the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. As a result of this great attention and ongoing discussions, industrial-organizational psychologists defined this relationship as 'Holy Gail' (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001). According to Spector (1997), conventional wisdom suggests that a happy employee ought to be a productive employee

and that matters for the organizations. Even though it has been accepted that satisfaction and performance are related, two different arguments have been put forward: (1) satisfaction may lead to performance, that is people who like their job work harder and thus perform better, (2) performance may lead to satisfaction, that is people who perform well tend to benefit from that performance and those benefits could increase satisfaction (Spector, 2006). Locke (1970) analysed previous studies and detected the reasons why previous studies were failed to find a consistent relationship between these constructs and suggested that satisfaction should be regarded mainly as a product of performance and only very indirectly as a determinant of performance.

Apart from potential economic effects, it is essential to understand employees' job satisfaction as individuals spend a substantial part of their time at work and how they are affected at work is of central importance (Grundeberg, 1979). Locke (1976) underlines that the way employees perceive work might affect their attitudes toward their life, families, and themselves as well. Employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs might experience both physical and psychological detrimental consequences including headache, ulcer, anxiety, depression, and sleep problems (Spector 1997, 2006). In a similar vein, Feldman and Arnold (1983) claim that as a result of job dissatisfaction, tension and stress appear and these can lead to a chain of reactions that might affect both physical and psychological well-being of individuals. All in all, the connection between well-being of employee and job satisfaction can produce concern as years spent in unsatisfied work situation have potentially hazardous effects on physical and psychological health of employees (Spector, 1997).

2.3.4. Job Satisfaction in Educational Context

It has been widely accepted that throughout the long years of education, teachers have a major effect on children's or teenagers' lives because teachers can encourage learners to develop the love of learning or go on further study, training or employment (Kett, 2014). A study conducted by Chetty, Friedman and Rockoff (2014) proved that it is possible to detect positive impact of teachers in their students' earnings even after graduation. Accordingly, policymakers should ensure to provide a sufficient supply of high-quality teachers (Sims, 2018). A high-quality teaching staff is the cornerstone of a successful educational system; therefore, attracting and retaining high-quality of teachers is the primary necessity (Sharma

& Jyoti, 2006). In order to assure the quality of education, understanding the factors that affect teaching quality and retention such as job satisfaction has great importance as it is associated with organizational commitment and organizational success (Perie & Baker, 1997). Research in various cultural settings put forward that teaching is among those professions which causes high levels of stress and thus a large number of teachers suffer from burnout, decreased job satisfaction and prefer to retire early (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). In a similar vein, Chan (2009) opined that teacher attrition (departures of teachers of their job) is a global concern that affects many nations.

In line with the general definition of job satisfaction, Evans (1997) defines teacher job satisfaction as “a state of mind determined by the extent to which the individual perceives his/her job-related needs to be met” (p. 328). Lawler (1973, as cited in Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004) argues that teacher job satisfaction is “a teacher’s affective relation to his or her teaching role and is a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from teaching and what one perceives it is offering to a teacher” (p. 359). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) conceptualize teacher job satisfaction as teachers’ affective reactions to their work and their teaching role (p. 1061). In simpler terms, Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) conducted by Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) defines job satisfaction as “the sense of fulfilment and gratification that teachers get from their work”. However, it has been acknowledged in the literature that there is no consensus on the general definition of teacher satisfaction (Evans, 1997). According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) the source of the definition problem is the multi-dimensional nature of job satisfaction as different job-related factors might be important to different teachers.

In an educational context, teacher job satisfaction has becoming more important and getting more attention since job satisfaction is considered as a factor which is related to retention of teachers, decreased commitment, absenteeism, lower productivity, reduced ability to meet student needs, psychological disorders and burnout (Karavas, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017a; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). The interaction between students and teachers is the centre of teaching-learning process and the quality of teachers is the salient predictor of a successful educational system (Perie & Baker, 1997). Similarly, Caprara et al. (2006) argue that teachers’ job satisfaction has prominent effects on enhancing school performance as

satisfied teachers tend to show higher levels of motivation and also lower levels of stress, tension and burnout.

Above all, it is accepted by researchers, policymakers and other stakeholders, teacher satisfaction plays a vital role in teachers' performance (Rezaee, et al., 2018) and students' achievement (Sharma & Jyoti, 2009). In her research, Kett (2014) proved that students who are assigned to a dissatisfied teacher can have significantly lower achievement than those who are assigned to a satisfied teacher. According to Kett (2014), dissatisfied teachers can lose their desire to teach, develop a cynical approach to students/teaching, become less motivated, become less committed and develop burnout. Furthermore, Rezaee et al. (2018) searched for the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance of EFL teachers and found that EFL teachers who are satisfied with their job perform better than their counterparts who are dissatisfied with their job. Rezaee et al. (2018) suggest that English teachers' job performance increases when they feel content with their job although the other factors remain constant. Consequently, teacher job satisfaction is not only linked to teacher retention, but also it promotes the well-being of teachers and students, overall school cohesion and enhanced status of the teaching profession (Toropova et al., 2021).

A substantial body of research has revealed that teachers' job satisfaction emerges as a result of intrinsic factors including assisting the growth of students, developing good relations, and experiencing self-growth; in contrast, dissatisfaction of teacher stem from extrinsic factors such as poor pay, status and heavy workload, school structure and policy making (Karavas, 2010; Lam & Yan, 2011; Scott, Stone & Dinham, 2001). Thus, it can be concluded that the findings of previous studies confirmed the propositions of Herzberg's (1968) *Two Factor Theory*. In spite of their unsimilar backgrounds, teachers' job satisfaction mostly derives from factors integral to the teaching profession (intrinsic factors such as working with children) (Scott et al., 2001). Moreover, the main sources of teacher dissatisfaction result from factors extrinsic to the teaching profession (e.g., pay) (Lam & Yan, 2011). Regarding the sources of teacher satisfaction, a nation-wide study conducted by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015) revealed that the source of teacher satisfaction for Norwegian teachers is working with children; variation and unpredictability; cooperation and teamwork; autonomy; on the other hand, the source of strains are workload and time pressure; adapting teaching to students' needs; disruptive student behaviour; value conflicts and lack of autonomy; teamwork and lack of status. Additionally, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) list the major

factors that cause low teacher job satisfaction in many developed countries around the world, and these are: imposed and centralized system accountability; lack of professional autonomy; relentlessly imposed changes; constant media criticism; reduced resources; and moderate pay.

However, in some cases, it might be hard to comprehend teacher satisfaction since an aspect which satisfies a teacher might not be satisfying for another teacher due to cultural experiences and practices in workplace (Spector, 1997). Moreover, there are two different approaches to measure job satisfaction: first one is the facet-specific approach and the second one is measuring the overall job satisfaction (Dicke et al., 2019). Spector (2006) asserts that the facet-specific approach provides more details about job satisfaction of an individual since one may have different levels of satisfaction in various facets. Yet a facet-specific measure might overlook individual differences with which teachers weigh the importance of specific facets of job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011); therefore, the overall effects might be underestimated (Dicke et al., 2019). In contrast, an overall measurement tool might miss the details and only reveals the overall sense of satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017a). To exemplify, a teacher might be satisfied with some aspects of jobs (e.g., autonomy), yet less satisfied with other aspects (e.g., workload) yet focusing only on the overall score does not provide the detailed information the researchers would like to obtain. In addition, Angi (2002) opined that owing to the dynamic nature of the teaching profession, and it is hard to talk about a constant job satisfaction level for teachers.

In higher education, the situation is similar to other levels of educational systems. That is to say academics are both the largest cost and the main human capital resource in higher education (Byrne et al., 2012). Universities are responsible for creating and cultivating knowledge for the sake of building a modern world and academic staff are the key sources within higher education (Stankovska, 2017). Accordingly, identifying and understanding factors enhancing the job satisfaction of academics is vital for recruiting and retaining high-quality academic staff and also for improving the information to nurture a successful education system (Byrne et al., 2012). High teacher job satisfaction and motivation creates a positive and healthy university structure (Stankovska, 2017); in contrast, dissatisfaction among workers is undesirable and dangerous in any profession yet Sharma and Jyoti (2009) describe job satisfaction as suicidal if it occurs in the teaching profession owing to its effects

on well-being of teachers (Spector, 1997), students' achievement and overall atmosphere of the institution (Toropova et al., 2021).

In the literature, the factors that enhance job satisfaction and the causes of dissatisfaction of academics have been questioned by several researchers (e.g., Atila, 2014; Baş & Ardiç, 2002; Bellamy, Morley & Watty, 2003; Byrne et al., 2012). Especially, autonomy and flexibility are detected as the most important factors why academics choose their profession and remain in academia (Bellamy et al., 2003). Schulze (2006) lists the factors that generate job satisfaction for the academic staff, and these include choosing courses according to their interest; preserving their autonomy; choosing the direction of their own research; being able to continue learning; having flexible working hours; having a supporting working environment. On the other hand, government interference; poor quality of students' work; research related constraints; promotion criteria, administrative work; poor academic communication among colleagues; salaries; lack of funding are found to be sources of dissatisfaction among academic staff (Schulze, 2006).

Regarding the general situation in the world, it is possible to say that most countries are struggling with teacher shortage problems (Toropova et al., 2021). For instance, in the USA, the National Centre for Education Statistics reported that teacher vacancy rates for 80% of the public secondary schools (Mustafa & Song, 2015). According to Chan (2009), nearly 40% of teachers leave the teaching profession in the first five years. Furthermore, a high rate of teacher attrition has been reported in many countries such as Norway, Australia, England and China (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017a). In terms of higher education, a high level of turnover among academic staff can harm universities as it causes the shift of valuable educational resources away from actual instruction towards expensive replacements (Byrne et al., 2012). Traditionally, academic staff has three roles, which are teaching, research, and service (or administration), and the emphasis is mostly on teaching and research (Houston Meyer & Paewai, 2006). Although the nature of academic work is mostly associated with high levels of professional autonomy, self-management and control over individually selected tasks, nowadays the academic staff has to deal with the massive number of students, reduced funding from governments, increased demands for accountability and the transforming potential new technologies for teaching (Bellamy et al., 2003). In the next section, studies related to job satisfaction of academics will be presented in detail to comprehend the general situation in academia.

2.2.3.1. Studies Related to Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Teacher job satisfaction is vital as previous research has revealed that low levels of satisfaction among academic staff deteriorate the functioning of institutions by higher rates of absenteeism, inappropriate behaviour towards other academic staff and students, early retirement, and psychological withdrawal from work (Karavas, 2010; Mwamwenda, 1995 as cited in Byrne et al., 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009, 2017; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004).

In the literature, the most comprehensive study that investigated the factors that affect job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of faculty was carried out by Oshagbemi (1997) in the UK. Participants were 566 faculty members from 23 different universities. To measure the job satisfaction, a questionnaire comprising eight job aspects was constructed. Moreover, participants were requested to list five factors that contributed to their job satisfaction and another five factors that caused dissatisfaction according to them. Oshagbemi (1997) reported that teaching and research related factors contributed mostly to the job satisfaction of faculty. In terms of teaching some related factors, the faculty member mentioned such dimensions as student enthusiasm, high degree of autonomy, supervision of students' projects, respect from students, etc. The list of research related items included such dimensions as research success, academic freedom, collaboration with colleagues, attending seminars, supervising MA students, etc. On the other hand, faculty members reported such dimensions as increase in class size, little recognition of teaching skills, amount of marking, demands of individual students, etc. as the causes of teaching related dissatisfaction. Additionally, research related items cause dissatisfaction included such dimensions as inadequate time for research, pressure to publish, lack of funds for research, difficulty in attracting able Ph.D. students, etc. Briefly, the findings of Oshagbemi (1997) depicted that contrary to Herzberg's theory, which proposes that the factors that lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate, some elements could be responsible for both the satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

The job satisfaction levels of academics and the effect of demographical variables on job satisfaction have been investigated in many developed countries. For instance, a study conducted by Byrne et al. (2012) examined the level of job satisfaction of Irish academics and sought the factor related to their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Data were gathered from 243 accounting and finance academics by using a single time measure with a seven-

point scale ranging from *Extremely dissatisfied* to *Extremely satisfied*. The findings indicated that academics generally are satisfied with their jobs. Satisfaction with working hours and the department head were the strongest predictors of academic staffs' overall job satisfaction. As for the dissatisfaction, promotion prospects and time available were found to be the main sources. In addition, demographic variables were not found to have a significant effect on the overall job satisfaction of academics. Byrne et al. (2012) highlight that a satisfied workforce is a powerful source of a competitive organization; thus, education policymakers should devise strategies to foster job satisfaction among the academic staff.

Similarly, in a Turkish context, Bilge et al. (2007) focused on the relationship between academics' job satisfaction and intrinsic/extrinsic factors including gender, age, marital status, seniority, academic status, position, area of work and academic experience abroad. The participants were 203 university faculty members working at a major state university in Turkey. Data were obtained through a Porter-type questionnaire, Job Satisfaction Scale for Academics (JSSA), developed by the researchers themselves. The findings of the study revealed that there is a positive relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and age, seniority, academic status and academic experience abroad. Furthermore, as for the extrinsic dimension of satisfaction, academics in the areas as science and engineering had higher scores than academics in social sciences. This finding can be explained by the variety of extra job opportunities for the academics in the areas of science and engineering. Bilge et al. (2007) suggest that in order to improve the quality of education and job satisfaction of academics in Turkey, there is a need to increase the share allocated to higher education institutions and academics. Also, the researchers suggested that improving academics' foreign language knowledge, increasing grant opportunities can be useful strategies to improve job satisfaction and motivation.

In an Australian context, Bellamy et al. (2003) questioned the underlying reasons for why academics choose this profession and why they are not leaving the profession despite deteriorated working conditions. Furthermore, ideal working conditions that enhanced job satisfaction were questioned. Data were collected from 3000 academics by means of a mailout survey. The results showed that three sets of factors contributed to the job satisfaction of academics: context factors (e.g., pay); autonomy/flexibility; and traditional academic roles (teaching/research). Specifically, autonomy and flexibility are the main reasons why academics chose this profession and why they remain in this career. The

findings of their study support the idea that job content and work context factors complement each other and tend to promote the job satisfaction of academics. Finally, extrinsic factors were found to be less important for academics than intrinsic factors.

The relationship between job satisfaction and other job-related constructs has been questioned in the literature. To exemplify, a study carried out by Stankovska et al. (2017) focused on the job satisfaction and motivation of academics in Macedonia. The sample comprised 100 academic staff including assistants, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors. Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Job Motivation Questionnaire were utilized as data collection tools. The findings of the study depicted that academic staff was very well-motivated and satisfied, except for the assistants. Pay, promotion, supervision, operating procedures, and relationship with co-workers were detected as the main determinants of job satisfaction of academic staff. This study also indicated that job motivation has a positive direct effect on job satisfaction. Stankovska et al. (2017) suggest that increasing satisfaction among academic staff can be a way of promoting long term career at the same university and boosting productivity. Therefore, education organizations should recognize the needs and desires of academic staff and develop an appropriate atmosphere according to their tendencies and needs. In addition, Stankovska et al. (2017) remind that cultural values might have an impact on job satisfaction; therefore, additional research is required to understand the effects of potential factors on job satisfaction.

In a recent study, Tahir and Sajid (2019) searched for the job satisfaction of 350 academics working at 4 different universities in India by using Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ). The results of the study manifested the academics are satisfied with their jobs with the highest satisfaction reported with teaching responsibility, advancement opportunities and work itself. Especially, responsibility and work itself are intrinsic factors related to the nature or the work; thus, this finding supports Herzberg's theory which gives importance to intrinsic factors. In terms of dissatisfaction, working conditions, pay and recognition were found to be the most significant reasons. As an intrinsic factor, recognition is one of the items the academics were not satisfied with as the well-performing educators thought they could not get the appreciation they deserved. Therefore, recognition programmes were advised by the researcher to increase the job satisfaction of Indian academics. After an extensive literature review, Tahir and Sajid (2019) defined job satisfaction studies in academia as a "lagging" area of study and emphasized that more research was needed.

The effect of organizational factors on job satisfaction has been subject to some studies. Baş and Ardiç (2002) investigated the level of job satisfaction of 346 Turkish academics from 23 universities with respect to ten job satisfaction dimensions. The researchers compared the satisfaction level of academics working at private and public universities. Data were collected by means of a Likert-type 61-item questionnaire which was developed by the researchers. According to the results, academics appeared to be satisfied with their jobs. Among the ten defined dimensions, mean scores indicated that academics working at private universities were more satisfied than the other group. Especially the six dimensions of job satisfaction, which included supervision, co-workers, the job itself, teaching and research, freedom, administrative duties, appeared to be higher in private university academicians. Nevertheless, current pay and job security found to be dimensions which did show any difference between the two groups. When the organization types were compared, academics working at private universities were more satisfied than academics working at public universities except for the job security and working facilities dimensions.

The relationship between job satisfaction and burnout has been questioned in the literature. In her thesis, Atila (2014) reported the relationship between job satisfaction and burnout levels of 90 English instructors working at a state university and 40 K-12 teachers in Turkey. Data were gathered through Maslach Burnout Inventory and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The findings revealed that the majority of the educators have a low level of burnout and they are mostly satisfied with their jobs. As a result of data analysis, a negative correlation between job satisfaction and burnout was found. That is to say, if the job satisfaction of participants is high, then it is less likely that they will suffer from burnout in the future. When some demographic variables were taken into consideration, the findings revealed that gender, graduated department, professional experience, educational status, and experience did not have an effect on participants' job satisfaction. Atila (2014) suggests that authorities should consider ways of promoting job satisfaction of English instructors/teachers with the purpose of preventing burnout.

In another EFL context, Samadi et al. (2020) investigated the relationship among burnout, intention to leave and job satisfaction of 120 English instructors working at a state university. Three instruments, MBI, MSQ and Intention to Leave Questionnaire were used as data collection tools. The results manifested a strong positive relation between burnout and intention to leave, which means the more stress and exhaustion they suffer from, the more

they are likely to leave their organization. Moreover, a moderate negative relationship was found between burnout and job satisfaction. That is, as the level of job satisfaction of English instructors increases, their likelihood to suffer from burnout decreases. Another result reported from the researchers was a negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. In other words, if English instructors' intention to leave increases for a reason, their level of job satisfaction decreases. Samadi et al. (2020) emphasized that it is not rational to expect teachers to perform well and stay with their profession when they feel dissatisfied and better working conditions need to be provided to EFL instructors to increase the quality of education.

In the literature, there has been a very limited number of research studies that scrutinized the tripartite relationship among job satisfaction, burnout and organizational commitment in various subject fields. The sample group in these studies belongs to various professions including public servants (Arslan, 2019), temporary village guards (Koç, 2012), health employees (Çankaya, 2017), employees from the private sector (Boymul & Yaşa-Özaltürkay, 2017), customs officers (Altınok, 2018). The only study that focused on this tripartite relationship in the field of education was conducted by Nagar (2012). His study was the first attempt to develop and test a model for burnout and its effect on job satisfaction and the subsequent effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. The participants were 153 academics working at an Indian university. Three questionnaires were utilized as data collection tools. The results of the proposed model indicated that job satisfaction was a significant predictor of academics' commitment to their organization. Additionally, all dimensions of burnout led to decreased job satisfaction. Finally, higher levels of job satisfaction contributed to the organizational commitment of academics. Therefore, the findings of Nagar's study support the notion that all these three constructs are linked, and they affect each other in positive and negative ways. Nagar (2012) underlines that academics are a valuable resource of educational institutes and thus management should invest in both physical and mental environment of academics to boost the quality of service.

In the Turkish contexts, different from some other countries, academics are classified as faculty members and academic staff. Faculty members are assistant, associate, and full professors and the rest of academics are referred to as academic staff (Bilge et al., 2007). Lecturers/Instructors may have undergraduate or graduate degrees such as English instructors (Bilge et al., 2007) and they are mainly responsible for giving classes but not

doing any research studies. Teachers/academics affiliated to public schools and universities are permanent public servants; accordingly, they have no risk of dismissal (Demirel, 2014a). In addition to this, according to the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK) (2021), there is a high level of unemployment rate in the country. Millions of new graduates have been waiting to find a position in the public institutions and taking tests to be attained as teachers or academic staff at universities (Okay, 2018). Therefore, there are not many alternative job opportunities for teachers, and this may prevent them from leaving the profession. In terms of teacher job satisfaction, it can be said that even teachers/academics are not satisfied with their current working conditions, yet they do not have any alternatives; thus, they carry on working and this might affect the quality of teaching in the country (Celep, 2000).

Even though there is a substantial body of research on job satisfaction, and these continue to grow, there has been relatively little research on the job satisfaction of academics (Baş & Ardiç, 2002; Oshagbemi, 2003). Especially, there is a scarcity of research studies on English instructors' job satisfaction (Karavas, 2010). Additionally, the majority of previous studies conducted in Western cultural settings, the findings of these studies cannot be considered valid directly in other cultural settings (Al Tayyar, 2014). The afore-mentioned studies make a valuable contribution to the understanding the concepts of organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction. However, these concepts might mean different things in different cultural settings (Stankovska, 2017), and the cultural context has great effects on teachers' attitudes and behaviours (Cerit, 2010). Thus, additional research is needed for the further investigation of the potential relationship among organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction of English instructors at the tertiary level. As universities are accepted to be the highest source of knowledge and academics are the key source of these education systems (Stankovska, 2017), developing a high-quality faculty and understanding the factors organizational factors associated with teaching quality is crucial (Perie & Baker, 1997). Thus, the current dissertation appeared in response to a niche for English instructors' job-related feelings.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter details the methodological approach with regards to the design of this study. After the technique of Structural Equation Modelling, basic concepts in this technique and its contribution to this study are noted down, participants, universe, data collection instruments, procedure, and data analysis are explained in this part of the dissertation.

3.1. Research Design

This study has a survey design which provides quantitative descriptions of opinions, trends or attitudes of the participants (Creswell & Miller, 2000). According to Dörnyei (2007, p. 28), quantitative research is more attractive for many researchers since it is systematic, has an ‘individual-proof’ nature, governed by precise rules and regulations. Hence these features of quantitative research approximate it the regularity of the natural sciences (Dörnyei, 2007). For the first three research questions, in order to report the general situation in terms of organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction, a more descriptive approach was adopted and the mean scores, frequencies and standard deviations were reported. For the last research question, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was utilized to uncover the complex relationship among the main constructs of the study. SEM is accepted to be a comprehensive statistical tool that enables researchers not only to test complex hypotheses but also direct and indirect the relationships among observed (manifest) and latent (unobserved) variables (Hoyle, 1995). In order to reach a large number of participants, the data were gathered by means of a combined online questionnaire which consists of 60 items:

18 items for organizational commitment, 22 items for burnout and 20 items for job satisfaction.

3.1.1. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM can be defined as a statistical modelling technique that is widely used in behavioural and social sciences and it can be viewed as a combination of factor analysis and regression (Kline, 2011). Schumacker and Lomax (2010) define SEM as a scientific method of hypothesis testing to enhance one's understanding of the complex relations among the constructs by testing theoretical models. Generally, SEM consists of a measurement model and a structural model. The former examines the connections between observed variables and their underlying latent variables by means of confirmatory factor analysis and also it describes the measurement properties of the observed variables (Ho, 2006). On the other hand, the latter investigates the interrelations among latent variables spontaneously (Kaplan, 2008).

Ho (2006) states that the structural model both combines the strengths of multiple regression analysis, factor analysis, and multivariate ANOVA or MANOVA in a single model that can be evaluated statistically. Additionally, it is possible to estimate directional predictions among a set of independent or a set of dependent variables, and it permits modeling of indirect effects. As an analytic tool, SEM allows using two or more observed variables as indicators of an unobserved underlying construct. The theoretical or hypothesized model can be tested statistically to determine the extent to which it is consistent with the data or how well it fits the data (Byrne, 2001). Moreover, Ho (2006, p. 281) highlights the advantages of SEM when compared to other multivariate procedures:

1. SEM programs provide overall tests of model fit and individual parameter estimate tests simultaneously.
2. Regression coefficients, means, and variances may be compared simultaneously, even across multiple between-subjects groups.
3. It improves statistical estimation by accounting for measurement errors in the estimation process.
4. It is able to represent unobserved (latent) concepts in the analysis of dependence relationships.

Raykov and Marcoulides (2000) suggest that SEM is a second-generation multivariate analysis technique that is used to determine the extent to which an a priori theoretical model is supported by the sample data. Basically, all of the SEM studies consist of five sequential steps: (1) model specification, (2) model identification, (3) model estimation, (4) model testing, and (5) model modification (See Figure 3.1). In the first step, before data collection

and any kind of analysis, based on the literature and findings of previous studies, all variables of interest and their relations are determined (Crockett, 2012). For the second step, once a model is identified, it means there is a unique estimate for each parameter in the model (Sümer, 2000). The purpose of the third step, model estimation, is to obtain numerical values for the unknown (free) parameters by means of iterative procedures computed by the software programs like LISREL (Suhr, 2006). As for the fourth step, the researcher should determine to what extent the theoretical model is supported by the collected data and this can be tested by using any of goodness-of-fit indices including maximum likelihood (ML), generalized least squares (GLS), and unweighted least squares (ULS) (Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). In the last step, the researcher aims to improve the theoretical model's fit to the data by using theory trimming or adding new parameters (Crockett, 2012). Eventually, the results of the study are reported.

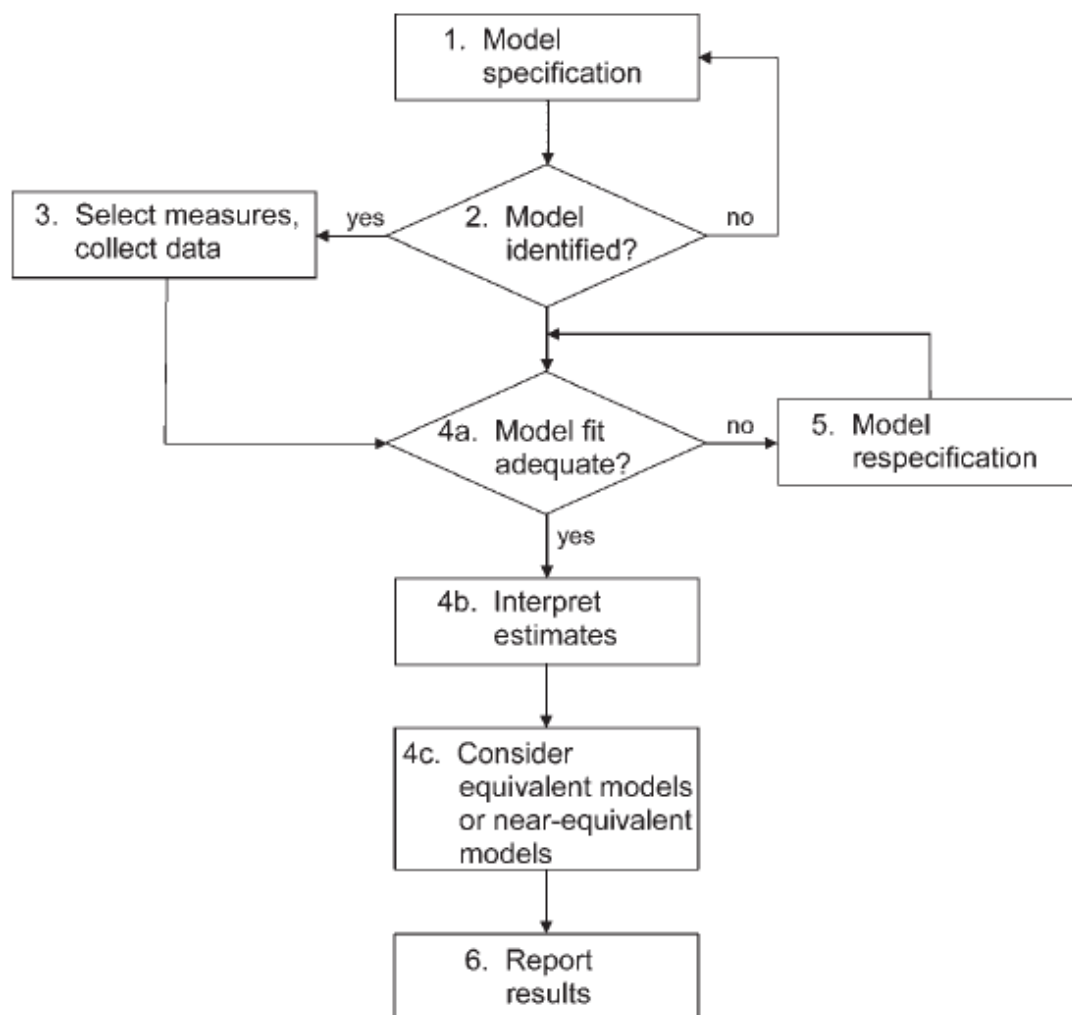


Figure 3.1. Flowchart of the basic steps of SEM. Adapted from “*Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*” by R. B. Kline, 2011, p. 92, USA, Guilford.

As the computer programs for SEM require very detailed information in advance including the relationship among the variables and the directionality of these relations, SEM mostly accepted as confirmatory (Kline, 2011). In terms of the general strategic framework for testing structural equation models, when the collected data are inconsistent with the proposed model, Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) distinguished three different approaches that can be followed by the researcher. In a *strictly confirmatory approach*, the researcher has a single model and if the sample data do not fit the hypothesized model, the model is rejected (Kline, 2011). In the *alternative models approach*, various alternative models are proposed in advance based on theory and the model which is the most appropriate for the sample data is chosen and the others are rejected by the researcher (Byrne, 2001). As the last approach, *model generation* occurs when the initial model is rejected due to poor fit to sample data and modified by the researcher to determine a model that better describes the sample data (Byrne, 2001). Kline (2011) asserts that the model generation approach is more common than others because strictly confirmatory approach is very restrictive, and it is cumbersome to propose more than more model as explained in the alternative models application.

In the current study, the use of SEM is advantageous since the interest of it on theoretical constructs, which are represented by the latent factors (Hox & Bechger, 1998) and the relationships among latent variables (burnout, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction) can be accomplished by using imperfect, observable measures (Byrne, 2001) such as Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. To investigate the possible relationship among organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction a structural model is specified and will be tested by using SEM. The term itself (SEM) expresses two important aspects of the procedure: (a) that the causal processes under the study are represented by a series of structural equations and (b) that these structural relations can be modelled pictorially to enable a clearer conceptualization of the theory under study (Byrne, 2001, p. 3). In order to comprehend a specified model or any kind of analysis, one needs to be familiar with the symbols and concepts (Figure 3.2) that are used in SEM.

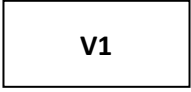
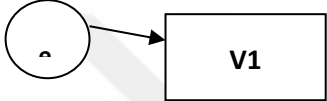
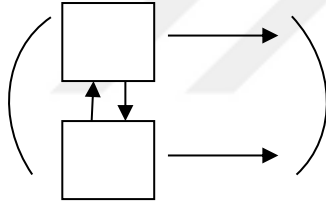
Symbol	Explanation
 or 	Measured variable (V1), observed variable (y, x)
 or 	Latent construct (F1), factor, unmeasured variable (η , ξ)
	Unidirectional relationship
	Covariance or correlation
	Error (e1) associated with measured variable (V1)
	Causal relationship between latent variables
	Correlations among variables

Figure 3.2. Basic symbols in SEM. Çelik, H. E., & Yılmaz, V. (2013). *Yapısal eşitlik modellemesi temel kavramlar uygulamalar-programlama*. Ankara: Anı.

3.1.1.1. Basic Concepts in SEM

Latent variables, which are represented by circles or ellipses, are theoretical constructs that cannot be observed or measured directly. An example of latent variables in psychology is motivation; in education, teacher expectancy; in economics, social class (Byrne, 2001). In this study, latent variables are organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction.

Observed (Manifest) variables / Indicators, which are represented by squares or rectangles, are variables that are observed or measured such as test results or answers of a questionnaire (Kline, 2011). In this study, observed variables are items of the questionnaires.

Exogenous variables are the variables that are not influenced by other variables in a model. They can be seen as synonymous with independent variables; in other words, they cause fluctuations in the values of other variable(s) in the model (Byrne, 2001). In this study, the exogenous variable is organizational commitment.

Endogenous variables are the variables that their presumed causes are explicitly presented in the model (Kline, 2011) and they can be considered as synonymous with dependent variables. In this study, the endogenous variables are burnout and job satisfaction.

The measurement model aims to specify the relationships among observed variables underlying the latent variables (Schumacher & Lomax, 2010); in other words, it provides the link between scores on a measuring instrument and the underlying constructs they are designed to measure (Byrne, 2001, p. 13). In this study, before testing the structural model, a measurement model was specified. The measurement model benefitted from confirmatory factor analysis because the relations between the observed measures and the underlying factors as a priori were proposed by the researcher, and then this hypothesized structure was tested statistically (Byrne, 2001).

The structural model specifies relationships among the latent variables as posited by theory; that is to say, it specifies the manner by which particular latent variables directly or indirectly influence changes in the values of certain other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 2001, p. 13).

Measurement error represents an error in indicator variable that is not accounted for the latent variable (Şimşek, 2007). Errors are represented by arrows coming outside the model with an 'e' letter.

Goodness-of-fit indices reveal how well the collected data correspond with the theoretical model (Kline, 2011). Since each of fit indices has its own strengths and weaknesses, generally, more than one fit indices are tested including normed chi-square (χ^2 / df), absolute fit indices, root mean square residual (RMSEA), parsimony fit indices, and comparative fit indices (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2014). For the current dissertation, five different fit indices were utilized to determine the goodness-of-fit between the hypothesized model and the sample data. The definitions of utilized fit indices are provided in Table 1. Fit indices for the model of the current study was formed based on the guidelines by Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, (2008); Hu and Bentler (1999); Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993); Raykov and Marcoulides

(2006); Schermelle-Engel and Moosbrugger, (2003); Şimsek (2007); Yılmaz and Celik (2009); Weston and Gore (2006).

Table 1

Fit Indices

Fit indices	Definition
Chi-square/Degrees of freedom ratio (χ^2/df)	"The χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices" (Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 2)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	"... scaled as a badness-of-fit index where a value of zero indicates the best fit" (Kline, 2011, p. 205)
Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	"... is computed by relating the difference of the chi-square value for the proposed model... takes into account the degrees of freedom of the proposed model" (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006, p. 39)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	"An incremental fit index that measures the relative improvement in the fit of the researcher's model over that of a baseline model, typically the independence model" (Kline, 2011, p. 208)
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	"... a measure of the proportion of variance and covariance that the proposed model is able to explain... parameters is also taken into account in computing this measure" (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006, p. 38)

A sample path diagram which provides the basic information to comprehend a SEM is presented in Figure 3.3. The path between the exogenous variables and the endogenous variables indicates the model to assume a possible standardized correlation between the two variables. The error variables labelled *el* for the observed variables and *zl* for latent variable error establish the endogenous variables to be free from error when SEM analysis allows for the element of possible error between variables released during analysis (Kellermeyer, 2009).

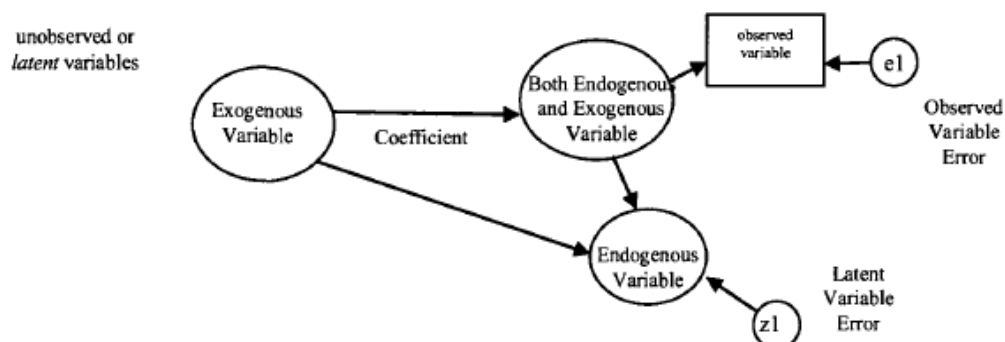


Figure 3.3. A sample path diagram. Kellermeyer, R. J. (2009). *Personal beliefs and job satisfaction of Illinois elementary general music teachers* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://search.proquest.com/docview/304895263?pq-origsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true>

3.1.1.2. The Proposed Model

For this research study, before beginning the analysis, a model based on a combination of theory and empirical results of previous research studies was defined. After an extensive review of literature on burnout, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in the field of second language acquisition and previously defined similar structural equation models, a model (See Figure 3.4) was proposed.

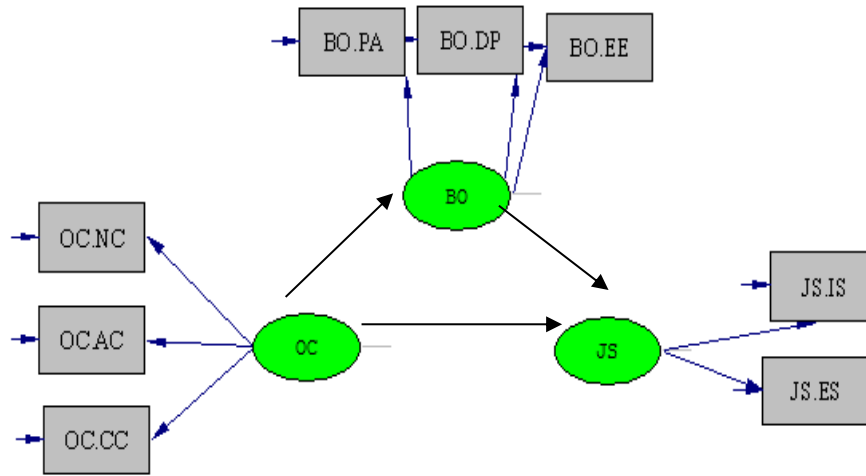


Figure 3.4. Proposed structural equation model for the current study

Basically, in the hypothesized model in Figure 3.3, the researcher aims to test theoretical propositions regarding how these three constructs are theoretically linked and the directionality of significant relationships (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006). The structural model in the current study identifies (a) the hypothesized direct relationship between exogenous variable organizational commitment (OC) and endogenous variable burnout (BO), and also organizational commitment and the other endogenous variable job satisfaction (JS) (b) the hypothesized indirect relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. This model aims to advance our understanding of English instructors' organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction in particular, then basic descriptive statistics and correlations. Hypotheses developed to test the relationship among the latent constructs are given below:

H1: There is a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout of English instructors.

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction of English instructors.

H3: There is a significant negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction of English instructors.

3.2. Universe and Sampling

The universe in this study was comprised of English instructors working at preparatory schools/departments of state or foundation universities in Turkey in the 2016-2017 academic year. In May 2017, on the website of YOK, it was announced that there are totally 9.802 instructors in state and foundation universities in Turkey. According to the statistics of YOK, 700 of them are not Turkish citizens. Therefore, the number of total lecturers, who are Turkish, is 9.102. However, there is no information about the number of Turkish EFL instructors. In other words, among the 9.102 lecturers, it is hard to estimate the number of English instructors. This total number includes German, French, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese and Turkish instructors as well as other subject areas apart from language learning such as history, music, mathematics and physical education instructors. After visiting the website of each university and estimating the number of English instructors affiliated to that organization, it has been found out that there are approximately 5.000 English instructors working at the state and foundation universities in Turkey.

In order to better understand who the participants of the current study are, one needs to be familiar with the context and the status of English instructors working at the tertiary level. In Turkey, the majority of the universities ask their students to complete a two-semester intensive English course before they start their four-year undergraduate studies. In Turkish universities, the Schools/Departments of English are responsible for this two-semester intensive language program which is called “preparatory year/class”. At the beginning of the academic year, a proficiency test for all newly accepted first-year students is administered, and they are placed into A1 (Breakthrough), A2 (Waystage), or B1 (Threshold) level classes based on the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR). Based on their preferences or the requirements of their departments, students can take their proficiency test in English, German, French, etc., however, a great number of students prefer English. According to students’ level, they weekly get 20, 24, or 30 hours of intensive language course.

In Turkish universities, the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages have an important mission which is preparing students for their future careers and contributing their academic skills by teaching them English. These intensive and demanding preparatory class programmes are carried out by English instructors. According to the Council of Higher Education, English instructors are only supposed to give classes but not conduct any research studies, therefore, they can be considered at to bottom of the academic ladder (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009) and in some cases, they are prevented from pursuing a Ph.D. (Demir et al., 2015). Even though English instructors constitute a significant part of the overall academic staff, their professional identities, problems, and status have been mostly neglected (Baltacı, 2019). Although there are about 5.000 English instructors working at the tertiary level, there are only few studies which put emphasize English instructors' job-related feelings and well-being.

In this cross-sectional study, the participants were selected through random sampling as the researcher aims to raise the representativeness of the participants. In research studies, it is recommended to select a random sample, "in which each individual in the population has an equal probability of being selected" (Creswell, 2014, p. 177). In other words, thanks to randomization, a representative sample from a population provides the ability to generalize to a population (Creswell, 2014). An e-mail which includes a link for the online questionnaire was sent to the e-mail addresses (See Appendix 7) of 4000 English instructors from various universities. In addition to direct e-mails, the English instructors who have professional contact with the researcher were requested to share the e-mail with their colleagues (approximately 400 indirect e-mails). In order to reach more participants, an online questionnaire link was shared on social websites such as Facebook and professional online forums.

In statistics, different formulas might be employed in order to estimate the necessary sample size. However, to simplify the process of estimating the sample size, a table using the sample size formula for infinite population is presented by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) (See Table 2). The table diminishes the need to use a size determination formula as it has all the provisions one requires to arrive at the required sample size. For instance, for a population which is equal or greater than 1.000.000, the required sample size is 384. Considering the fact that the universe is approximately 5000, the number of participants above 357 is adequate based on the table provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970).

Table 2

Sample Size Estimation Table

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	81	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	86	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	91	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	100000	384

N: Population size, S: Sample size

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3), 607-610. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447003000308>

Schumacher and Lomax (2010) highlight that the sample size is crucial in SEM studies as some estimates in SEM such as standard errors might not be accurate when the sample size is not large enough and also sample size plays an important role when estimating whether researcher's data fit the theoretical model. However, as Crockett states (2012), estimating the sample size can be difficult when the complexity of the theoretical models is taken into consideration. Ho (2006) suggests that the minimum number of participants should be 10 for each observed factor. Furthermore, Kline (2011) suggests that for the statistical analysis of SEM studies, the sample sizes between 100 and 200 are accepted as medium, and sample size exceeding 200 cases are considered large enough. All in all, for a universe of 5000, the sample size is calculated 357 with 95% confidence level and 5% error margin. Based on abovementioned suggestions of the researchers, it is plausible to state that the sample size of 426 is appropriate for the current study.

In this study, the online questionnaire link was sent to the e-mail addresses of 4.000 English instructors which were obtained from the websites of their universities. In addition to the directly sent e-mails, 400 online questionnaires were sent to English instructors through the directors of preparatory schools and professional contacts. Therefore, the online questionnaire was estimated to reach approximately 4.400 English instructors in Turkey.

Also, a reminder e-mail was sent after a three-week period in order to increase the number of participants. The online survey required the participants to respond to all of the questions in each section to see the following parts of the questionnaire; therefore, there was no missing data. At the end of the data collection procedure, 426 online responses were gathered from English instructors. The return rate for the online questionnaire was roughly 10%.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

As data collection instruments, three different questionnaires for the main constructs of the study (organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction) were determined. Dörnyei (2007) highlights that questionnaire surveys have made a substantial contribution to second language acquisition research as questionnaires give the researcher the opportunity to reach large populations and to gather information related to people's opinions, attitudes, feelings and beliefs about certain L2-related issues. Furthermore, Mackey and Gass (2005) point out that anonymity can be provided via questionnaires and this feature of the questionnaire makes them a favourable method of data collection. For the present study, the issue of anonymity has been considered an important factor as the participants are expected to share their personal thoughts and feelings regarding their organization, colleagues, directors and, etc.

Especially in SEM studies, the analysis of measures with strong psychometric characteristics including good score reliability and validity is essential (Kline, 2011). In order to diminish the potential translation threats that might affect the reliability and validity of data collection instruments, all of the instruments were applied in their original language which is English. Since the participants are all English instructors at the tertiary level, they were supposed to have near-native-like English proficiency and comprehended the items in the questionnaires completely. However, a small-scale pilot study was conducted with 40 English instructors with the aim of preventing any kind of misunderstanding regarding the items in the questionnaire. The definitions of few words were unclear for the instructors; thus, the explanations of some less frequent words were provided by the researcher in the parentheses. To exemplify, synonyms of callous, exhilarated, strain, fatigued were given in the online questionnaire. Based on the participants' feedback the allocated time for the three measures was determined approximately 15 to 20 minutes.

As for the first part of the questionnaire, a brief explanation related to the general aim of the study, conditions of withdrawal and a short consent form were prepared by the researcher. In addition to these, some questions were asked in order to collect data about the demographic features of the participants. In this demographic information part of the questionnaire, the participants were requested to declare their gender, age, marital status, years of experience in teaching, the type of institution they are affiliated to and finally, total hours of teaching in a week.

3.3.1. Organizational Commitment Scale

To measure the organizational commitment levels of English instructors, based on the Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991), the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer et al., 1993) was utilized. This measurement instrument was determined for the current study since single dimensional scales do not provide satisfactory results (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In this scale, there are 18 items measuring participants' organizational commitment levels from three different dimensions: (1) normative commitment, (2) affective commitment, and (3) continuance commitment (See Appendix 1). The OCS aims to measure the extent to which an individual experience a sense of identification with, involvement in and loyalty to an organization (Chen, 2008).

Meyer and Allen (2004) suggest that the OCS includes three well-validated scales: the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) (six items), the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) (six items), and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) (six items) and each can be scored separately and used to define the 'commitment profile' of the employees (See Appendix 2). An example item is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization". Responses are given on a 7-point scale with anchors 'strongly disagree' (1) and 'strongly agree' (7) and the scores can range from 18 to 126. A high score indicates a high level of commitment for normative, affective and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). As it has been recommended to mix the three scales while administering, the items were not grouped under three different subscales, but they were mixed. During the scoring process, participants' responses to all of the items within a scale were averaged to reveal an overall score of each of the three components of commitment.

In the scale, four of the items are reverse coded by the inventors of the scale in order to encourage the participants to think about each item carefully rather than ticking the items

automatically. In Meyer and Allen's study (2004), the average reliability scores for the scale are: 0.73 for normative commitment, 0.85 for the affective commitment and 0.79 for continuance commitment. The OCS and its manual are public-domain documents; therefore, there is no need to take any permission.

3.3.2. Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey

Burnout was measured by means of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) developed by Maslach, Jackson and Schwab (1996). The original Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) to measure burnout in a variety of occupations; however, due to the interest to burnout research in teaching profession, the word 'recipient' in some of the items was changed into 'student' and that is the only difference between MBI and MBI-ES (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1997) (See Appendix 3).

In the scale, there are 22 items, which are divided into three subscales: (1) Emotional Exhaustion (nine items), (2) Depersonalization (five items), and (3) Personal Accomplishment (eight items) (See Appendix 4). An example item is "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job". Responses are given on a 7-point fully anchored scale ranging from 'never' (0) to 'every day' (6) to find out how often the participant experience the feelings related to burnout. For the Emotional Exhaustion Scale (EES) and Depersonalization Scale (DPS) a higher mean score corresponds to higher degrees of burnout; on the other hand, lower mean score for the Personal Accomplishment Scale (PAS) corresponds to higher levels of experienced burnout. Thus, in the current study, the items in the Personal Accomplishment dimension were reverse coded before identifying the proposed model. The scores for the three dimensions of burnout ought to be calculated separately rather than combining them to have an aggregate score (Maslach et al., 2009). While interpreting the points of MBI-ES for each dimension, it is possible to comment on total scores or mean values (See Table 3) as "low", "average", and "high" levels of burnout by using the cut-off points provided by scoring key of MBI-ES.

Table 3

The Benchmark Range of Burnout Experience

Dimension	Low burnout	Average burnout	High burnout
Emotional Exhaustion	≤ 2.00	2.10–3.19	≥ 3.20
Depersonalization	≤ 1.00	1.01–2.19	≥ 2.20
Personal Achievement	≥ 5.00	4.99–4.01	≤ 4.00

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (1996). *MBI: Maslach burnout inventory*. Sunnyvale, CA: CPP.

In the present study, MBI-ES was determined as a data collection tool since the sample group in the current study was English instructors and the focus sample group of MBI-ES were any members of teaching profession. Another important reason for choosing MBI-ES is its multidimensional structure which makes it more reliable than single score scales. Additionally, results of cross-cultural research on burnout confirm the positive psychometric properties of MBI outside English-speaking countries (Schaufeli, 2003). Furthermore, the hypothesized three factor structure of the MBI has been confirmed in many studies (Schaufeli, 2003). According to the results of Iwanicki and Schwab (1981) factor-analytic study, the Cronbach alpha scores for each subscale are .90 for Emotional Exhaustion, .76 for Depersonalization, and .76 for Personal Accomplishment.

3.3.3. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) designed by Weiss et al. (1967) was utilized to measure job satisfaction levels of English instructors in the present study. As the original MSQ has 100 items and takes one hour to complete, a shorter version developed in 1977 was preferred (See Appendix 5). The short form of MSQ is a self-reporting questionnaire and contains 20 items. MSQ consists of three scales: Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale (12 items), Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale (6 items) and General Satisfaction Scale (20 items); therefore, it is possible to obtain three different scores. An example item is “On my present job this is how I feel about the chance to do something that makes use of my abilities”. Responses will be given on a 5-point scale with anchors ‘very dissatisfied’ (5 points) and ‘very satisfied’ (1 point). The previous research studies revealed that the Cronbach alpha scores for MSQ were accepted stable ranging from .85 to .91 (Fields, 2002).

Weiss et al. (1967) suggest that the raw score of MSQ is more meaningful when it is turned into percentile scores by using the appropriate norm group tables of normative data given in the MSQ manual. The appropriate norm is for an individual is the one that corresponds exactly to his or her job. Furthermore, it is possible to interpret the raw scores by ranking them which can reveal relatively higher or lower satisfaction. A percentile score of 75% or higher represents a high degree of satisfaction; a percentile score of 25% or lower represents a low level of satisfaction; and a score between 26% and 74% represents average satisfaction. Additionally, it is possible to interpret the mean scores of the MSQ in order to define job satisfaction levels of participants (Chen, 2008). The neutral score for the MSQ is 3; therefore, the obtained scores lower than 3 are interpreted as low and the obtained scores higher than 3 are interpreted as high (Saygılı & Çelik, 2011).

For the current study, MSQ was determined as a data collection tool as it provides detailed information about participants' job satisfaction. For instance, two employees might have the same for job satisfaction scores from a scale, but their reasons might be totally different. By using MSQ, it is possible to observe the sources of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction of employees (See Appendix 6). Therefore, thanks to its subscales, MSQ can provide a detailed and comprehensive understanding of different facets of job satisfaction such as co-workers, creativity and social status (See Table 4). Moreover, MSQ is the most widely preferred tool to measure satisfaction of individuals, and this makes it easier to compare the results of this study with others. Another reason that makes MSQ advantageous is the fact that it is suitable for online research studies as it can be applied by e-mail. The MSQ and its manual are free to download on the website of the University of Minnesota as long as it is used for research purposes; consequently, no permission is necessary to utilize this instrument.

Table 4

Facets of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Facet	Explanation	Item no
Ability utilization	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	7
Achievement	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	19
Activity	Being able to keep busy all the time.	20
Advancement	The chance of advancement on this job.	14
Authority	The chance to tell other people what to do.	6
Company policies and practices	The way company policies are put into practice.	9
Compensation	My pay and the amount of work I do.	12
Co-workers	The way my co-workers get along with each other.	16
Creativity	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	2
Independence	The chance to work alone on the job.	4
Moral values	Being able to do things that do not go against my conscience.	3
Recognition	The praise I get for doing a good job.	18
Responsibility	The freedom to use my own judgment.	17
Security	The way my job provides a steady employment.	11
Social service	The chance to do things for other people.	1
Social status	The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	8
Supervision-human relations	The way my boss handles his men.	10
Supervision-technical	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	15
Variety	The chance to do different things from time to time.	5
Working conditions	The working conditions.	13

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

The main source of data for this study was the scores of the three questionnaires, which were the Organizational Commitment Scale, Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The form that includes all of the questionnaires was sent to English instructors from various universities via electronic mail. Before sending the e-mails to the participants, the approval of the Ethics Committee was taken from Gazi University (See Appendix 8). The participants who were willing to participate could open the link in the e-mail and complete the online questionnaires. The allocated time for the three measures is approximately 15 to 20 minutes. All the e-mails included a short message which informed the participants about the general aim of the study and reminded of them their participation was voluntary, anonymous, confidential and they were free to withdraw the study any time they wanted. The data collection procedure took place over a three-month period during the spring term (from January to March) of the 2016-2017 academic year.

3.5. Data Analysis

In the current study, two software programs, IBM SPSS version 20 and LISREL 8.80, were utilized in the process of quantitative data analysis. Prior to the data analysis, the collected data were screened for some characteristics such as normality, missing data, frequencies, means and standard deviations by means of SPSS. Reliability and validity of the data collection tools were ensured by using different statistical techniques. Four of the items in the Organizational Commitment Scale, which has negative wording, were reverse-coded. Similarly, items in the Personal Accomplishment Scale of burnout were reverse coded before any analysis. Additionally, whether the data have multivariate distribution or not has been searched as it is crucial for choosing estimation parameters in SEM studies.

After the data were collected, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were benefitted to analyse the reliability and validity of each of the data collection tools separately. Before any analyses related to SEM, in order to understand whether the data collection tools were measuring what they intended to measure, exploratory and confirmatory analyses were performed to each of the data collection tools separately. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) aims to uncover complex patterns by exploring the dataset and testing predictions. Additionally, Jöreskog and Sörbom (1993) point out that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a significant part of the SEM studies because before any kind of analysis, it should be determined whether the chosen indicators for the latent constructs actually measure the construct or not. Having conducted EFA and CFA, some of the items that seemed irrelevant, or problematic were eliminated.

In addition to factor analysis, standardization was applied to the data since the organizational commitment and burnout questionnaires were 7-point, yet the job satisfaction questionnaire was 5-point Likert scales. The difference between the minimum and maximum values one can get from the questionnaires could have caused difficulty in interpreting the findings. Thus, the raw scores were standardized which can be done in correlation analysis, factor analysis or structural equation modeling (Dörnyei, 2007).

In order to test the hypothesized model that investigates the relationships among organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction SEM was utilized. As for the first step of SEM, a measurement model, which specifies the relationship among observed variables underlying the latent variables, was tested. The measurement model has an important role in SEM studies as it provides an assessment of convergent and discriminant

validity (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Based on the standardized factor loadings, t-values, and goodness-of-fit indices in the measurement model, some rectifications were made, and the goodness-of-fit indices revealed a good fit.

After it was ensured that the latent constructs were adequately measured by the observed variables in the measurement model, a structural model was specified. In the model specification phase, prior to data collection, a theoretical model was developed. In other words, based on the literature and previous data, the researcher decided which variables to include in the model and the direction of their relationship. As the next step, the model was identified which involves the study of conditions to obtain a single or unique solution for each free parameter specified in the model from the collected data (Suhr, 2006). In the third step, model estimation, iterative procedures were conducted in order to estimate the parameters in such a way that the theoretical parameter values yielded a covariance matrix as close as possible to the observed covariance matrix S (Crockett, 2012, p. 38). Once the parameter estimates were obtained for a specified SEM model, the next phase was model testing. In model testing, the aim was to determine the extent to which the data fit the model. To assess the model fit, well-established indices such as CFI (Comparative Fit Index), AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index), and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) as well as normed chi-square test statistics were utilized. It is always recommended to provide various types goodness-of-fit indices in order to provide an objective presentation of the findings (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The last step of the SEM is model modification. Occasionally, the fit of the model is not very strong for the initial model; therefore, there is need to modify and subsequently evaluate the new model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In the present study, small modifications were made in the measurement model phase of the study which was described by Schumacker and Lomax (2010) as the most suitable phase to make modifications since the main source of misspecification occurs there and also measurement models are crucial for the structural model. The findings of the statistical procedures revealed that the proposed structural model was found to be supported by the collected data.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

In this part, the results of this quantitative study are presented. This chapter initiated with descriptive statistics, issues related to reliability and validity. Next, findings of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses for each data collection instrument are put forward. Finally, results of the measurement model and structural equation modelling analyses are presented to answer the research questions.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Among the 426 English instructors who participated in this study, 285 of them are female (66.9%) and 141 of them are male (33.1%). This result reveals that the distribution of the gender of participants reflects the general situation in Turkey as the number of females is far more than males almost in all the preparatory schools and departments. In terms of age, when the two largest age groups were summed ($n = 217$) it could be seen that half (50.1%) of participants' ages ranged from 26 to 35. Moreover, 272 (63.8%) of them are married and 154 (36.2%) of them are single. As for the experience, 127 of the participants (29.8%) have been working as an EFL instructor between 6-10 years. The length of experience as an EFL instructor is more than five years for 81% of the participants; therefore, it can be concluded that they have enough experience to reflect their feelings related to their job and organization.

According to institution types, 297 (69.7%) of the participants are affiliated to a state university and 129 (30.3%) of them are affiliated to a foundation university. Based on the statistics of YOK in 2017, this result is not surprising as the total number of state universities

in Turkey is 112 and foundation universities is 65. In terms of workload, 171 (40.1%) of English instructors teach between 13-20 hours in a week; moreover, again, 171 of them teach between 21-28 hours of English in a week. Based on the weekly teaching hours expressed by the participants, it can be said that 87% of English instructors work more than their compulsory teaching hours, which is 12 hours in a week. All in all, among the 426 participants, 277 of them (65%) specified the name of their institution. Based on the information provided by the (65%) 277 of the participants, it can be reported that they are affiliated to 98 different universities from 51 cities in Turkey (See Appendix 9). Demographic information related to the participants in this study is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Demographic Information Related to Participants

Variable	Groups	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	285	66.9
	Male	141	33.1
Age	21-25	21	4.9
	26-30	124	29.1
	31-35	93	21.8
	36-40	82	19.2
	41-45	38	8.9
	46-50	37	8.7
	51 and over	31	7.3
Marital Status	Married	272	63.8
	Single	154	36.2
Experience	1-5	81	19.0
	6-10	127	29.8
	11-15	77	18.1
	16-20	67	15.7
Organization Type	21 and over	74	17.4
	State University	297	69.7
	Foundation University	129	30.3
	12 or less	55	12.9
Weekly Teaching Hours	13-20	171	40.1
	21- 28	171	40.1
	29 or more	29	6.8
Organization Name	Specified	277	65
	Not Specified	149	35

4.2. Multivariate Normality and Estimation Method

In SEM studies, one of the requirements to take into consideration is whether the data have multivariate distribution as this fact has a crucial role in deciding the estimation of parameters for the study (Byrne, 2001) and understanding the trustworthiness of estimates

that are obtained from the data (Gao, Mokhtarian & Johnson, 2008). When the observed data are distributed normally, the estimation method of maximum likelihood and generalized least squares are used (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000). Maximum likelihood (ML) is the most widely used method of parameter estimation and is accepted as the default method in most of the SEM computer tools such as LISREL (Kline, 2011). ML requires the data distributed normally; however, in some research studies, ML has been used without checking the normality of the data and that causes some problems in the structural model (Curran, West & Finch, 1996).

In the present study, before any kind of data analysis, the data were examined in terms of missing data and normality by using IBM SPSS version 20. As the online survey does not accept incomplete responses, there was no missing data. The normality of the data was tested by using a measure of multivariate kurtosis called Mardia's multivariate kurtosis coefficient in LISREL. The results revealed that the data were not normally distributed ($p < 0.001$). Schumacker and Lomax (2010) suggest that nonnormality can affect the results SEM studies; thus, they offer some solutions including transformations, additional sampling, bootstrapping, normalizing scores or choosing alternative methods for sampling. Kline (2011) stresses that when the collected data are not normally distributed, researchers are advised to employ either Robust Maximum Likelihood or Weighted Least Square techniques. Other alternative methods of parameter estimation were searched and to avoid losing data, Robust Maximum Likelihood (RML) was chosen as the estimation method for the study as it can be used with non-normal distributed data.

4.3. Reliability and Validity of Data Collection Instruments

In research, the term reliability means "repeatability" or "consistency". A measure is considered reliable if it would give the same result in different time periods, places, participant groups (Mackey & Gass, 2005). There are various ways of estimating the reliability of a scale including split-half method, test-retest method, correlation analysis and Cronbach's alpha. As one of the most preferred techniques in social sciences, Cronbach's alpha coefficient research for whether the items in a scale constitute a whole to explain a homogenous construct (Akgül & Çevik, 2003). In SEM studies, reliability has an important role as the deficiency of measurement quality while defining the constructs may hinder the credibility of results and might affect the model (Marcoulides & Schumacker, 2001).

Based upon the 426 data samples collected, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for overall organizational commitment (.852), burnout (.904), and job satisfaction (.924) constructs which represented high reliability values for these instruments. Cronbach's alpha was used to help establish the internal consistency, reliability, and internal validity for the survey instrument. Table 6 illustrates the Cronbach's alpha calculated for the constructs and their subscales. Under the pre-test column, the first Cronbach's alpha coefficients in the study were presented; on the other hand, the given coefficients under the column of post-test was the final value after a few of the items were omitted based on the results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. High Cronbach's alpha coefficient values for all three data collection instruments and their subscales except for the "continuance commitment" help to establish the internal consistency, reliability and internal validity for the survey instrument. Cronbach's alpha coefficient normally ranges between zero and one. According to Akgül and Çevik (2003, p. 435), the range of Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) and the reliability of a scale can be evaluated as follows: $0.00 \leq \alpha \leq 0.40$ not reliable; $0.40 \leq \alpha \leq 0.60$ low reliability; $0.60 \leq \alpha \leq 0.80$ quite reliable; $0.80 \leq \alpha \leq 1.00$ high reliability. As the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of continuance commitment (.596) is very close to the threshold value of 0.60, it was decided to keep this dimension in the study until more detailed analysis in the measurement model phase of the study.

Table 6

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of the Measurement Instruments and Sub-scales

Instrument	Sub-scales	Cronbach's alpha	
		Pre-test	Post-test
OCS		.852	.767
	ACS	.908	.828
	NCS	.778	.805
	CCS	.591	.596
MBI-ES		.904	.881
	EE	.913	.904
	DP	.722	.694
	PA	.839	.825
MSQ		.924	.920
	IS	.894	.887
	ES	.834	.871

4.3.1. Exploratory Factor Analyses of Data Collection Instruments

After the collected data were checked for normality and reliability, the next step was beginning the model generation by conducting an exploratory factor analysis. In an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the primary goal of the researcher is to find out whether the factors are correlated, and which observed variables appear to best measure each factor (Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). In other words, EFA can be regarded as a tool to determine how and to what extent the observed variables are linked in their factors and these relations are represented by using factor loadings (Byrne, 2001). Loewen and Gonulal (2015) state that EFA can have great contributions to the L2 theory and practice; however, conducting an EFA is a demanding task as it requires experience to understand its complex nature. EFA can be utilized either for developing new measurement tools or to determine the factor structure of an already existing data collection tool is replicable for a specific data set. In the present study, EFA was conducted for each of the measurement tools in order to understand how well the observed variables were linked to their underlying factors.

By using SPSS, EFA was applied to the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to understand their validity before constructing the model for the study. As the first step of the EFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests were performed for all the measurement tools because the results of these tests revealed whether the data were appropriate for the factor analysis. The KMO test gives the researcher the necessary information about the adequacy of the sampling for factor analysis and the KMO values range from 0 to 1, with higher values representing better sampling adequacy (Loewen & Gonulal, 2015). Field (2009) suggests that KMO values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are perfect. Examinations of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy suggested that the sample was factorable in all the measurement tools (See Table 7). After the sample size was found adequate, Bartlett's test was applied in order to find out the correlations between variables are significantly different from 0 and a significant result with $p < .05$ indicates that the variables are correlated (Field, 2009). In the present study, the results of Bartlett's tests were found to be significant with $p < .01$. Consequently, the findings of the KMO and Bartlett's test proved that the collected data were appropriate for EFA.

Table 7

KMO and Bartlett's Tests of Data Collection Tools

Data collection tool	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO)	Bartlett's test of sphericity
Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS)	.906	$\chi^2 (153) = 3570.310, p < .01$
Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES)	.918	$\chi^2 (231) = 4716.960, p < .01$
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)	.931	$\chi^2 (153) = 3810.005, p < .01$

After determining the data were appropriate for factor analysis, a method of factor extraction was determined. Factor extraction can be defined as the process of deciding on the number of statistically important underlying constructs in the data, and there are several different extraction methods (Loewen & Gonulal, 2015). Principal component analysis was chosen for the data in the present study as it is the default method in many statistical packages such as SPSS and it was suitable for the purpose of the study. The number of factors in this part of the process was fixed to three for the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) since both measurement tools were expected to have three sub-scales which are Normative Commitment (NC), Affective Commitment (AC), Continuance Commitment (CC) for OCS and Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP), and Personal Accomplishment (PA) for MBI-ES. Moreover, for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the number of factors was fixed to two as the questionnaire was expected to have two sub-scales which are Intrinsic Satisfaction (IS) and Extrinsic Satisfaction (ES).

In addition to extraction, an orthogonal rotation technique of Varimax was employed in order to interpret the results more clearly. Varimax is the default rotation option in SPSS, and it is the most common type of rotation in L2 research studies (Plonsky & Gonulal, 2015). Simply, rotation techniques are implemented to produce a more differentiated factor-loading matrix indicating the strength with which each variable loads onto each factor (Loewen & Gonulal, 2015).

The results of EFA for the OCS revealed that the factors in the scale did not appear as expected (See Table 8). The items in AC and NC factors mixed and the factor of CC was divided into two and also there was one item left in the third factor. One item intended to measure normative commitment (NC1) failed to load above the 0.40 criterion. Items without a meaningful coherence in the factors were detected (CC1, CC5, CC6) and omitted. After

omitting the problematic items, the EFA was conducted again and using the eigenvalue cut-off of 1.0 there were three factors that explained the cumulative variance of 64%. The findings of the cumulative variance met the 60% threshold.

Table 8

Factor Loadings of OCS

Item	Factors		
	1	2	3
AC4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	.880		
AC3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	.852		
AC6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.811		
AC1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.795		
AC5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	.756		
AC2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	.676		
NC3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.		.800	
NC4. This organization deserves my loyalty.		.786	
NC6. I owe a great deal to my organization.		.784	
NC2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.		.741	
NC5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.		.682	
CC4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.			.795
CC3. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.			.728
CC2. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.			.676

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

As for the MBI-ES, the results of EFA showed that three factors of burnout which are Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP), and Personal Accomplishment (PA) were differentiated as expected (See Table 9). Items PA4 and EE9 showed complex loadings on two factors; thus, they were eliminated. Items without a meaningful coherence in the factors were detected (DP1, DP4, DP5) and omitted. Using the eigenvalue cut-off of 1.0 there were three factors that explained the cumulative variance of 61%.

Table 9
Factor Loadings of MBI-ES

Item	Factors		
	1	2	3
EE5. I feel burned out from my work.	.862		
EE4. I feel fatigued (<i>tired</i>) when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.854		
EE3. I feel used up (<i>exhausted</i>) at the end of the workday.	.822		
EE1. I feel emotionally drained (<i>very tired</i>) from my work.	.820		
EE6. I feel frustrated by my job.	.737		
EE8. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope (<i>losing patience</i>).	.713		
EE7. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	.662		
EE2. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	.600		
PA7. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.		.748	
PA3. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.		.740	
PA1. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.		.736	
PA5. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.		.708	
PA6. I feel exhilarated (<i>joyful</i>) after working closely with my students.		.677	
PA2. I can easily understand how my students feel about things.		.631	
PA8. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.		.605	
DP3. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.			.883
DP2. I've become more callous (<i>insensible</i>) toward people since I took this job.			.790

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

According to the results of EFA for MSQ, the two factors in the scale were not divided as expected (See Table 10). It was found out that the following items (IS2, IS3, IS6) needed to be eliminated from the questionnaire so as to ensure the validity. The reason for the removal was that they were controlled by more than one factor, which means they measured more than one thing in the questionnaire. Furthermore, one item intended to measure external job satisfaction (ES4) failed to load above the 0.40 criterion. After the aforementioned items were removed from the instrument, another EFA was conducted. Using the eigenvalue cut-off of 1.0 there were two factors that explained the cumulative variance of 59% which can be considered as an acceptable value since it was very close to the threshold 60%.

Table 10

Factor Loadings of MSQ

Items	Factors	
	1	2
IS7. The chance to do things for other people.	.805	
IS9. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	.758	
IS8. The chance to tell other people what to do.	.698	
IS4. The chance to be 'somebody' in the community.	.656	
IS1. The chance to do different things from time to time.	.649	
IS10. The freedom to use my own judgment.	.607	
IS11. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	.589	
IS2. The chance to work alone on the job.	.569	
IS5. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	.509	
ES1. The way my boss handles his man.		.864
ES2. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.		.835
ES6. The praise I get for doing a good job.		.756
ES3. The way company policies are put into practice.		.732
ES5. The chances for advancement on this job.		.583

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.3.2. Confirmatory Factor Analyses of Data Collection Instruments

Developing a psychometrical measurement tool is a challenging task in social sciences due to time and resource constraints; therefore, most of the researchers have to use the existing measures not only because of savings in time and cost but also comparability of the findings (Harrington, 2009). Confirmatory factor analysis (CF) is an important tool as it is necessary to examine the appropriateness of an existing measure for the population in a new study. In other words, the aim of CFA is not to discover a factor structure but confirming the existence of a factor structure. EFA is used to identify the latent variables or factors of priority for a set of variables (Harrington, 2009). However, CFA attempts to confirm the predetermined hypotheses by using path analysis diagrams in order to represent variables and factors (Child, 2006). Therefore, in most of the SEM studies, the first step is EFA and as a second step, CFA is performed in order to test the fit of a model obtained from EFA or previously existing theoretical models with the data obtained from a given sample (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000). In this respect, Byrne (2001) proposes CFA can be used when the researcher has some knowledge of the underlying latent structure and CFA can be considered as a strong statistical tool for testing hypotheses about the validity (Kline, 2011).

In CFA, the one-way arrows from the latent variables (factors) to observed variables reveal how well each item defines that factor. The factor loadings can be considered as validity

coefficients and those observed variables with the highest factor loading are the most valid indicators of their latent variable (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). All the standardized factor loadings are expected to be above 0.50. In the present study, CFA was used to verify the factor structure of three measurement tools by using LISREL version 8.0. In the process of CFA, first a path diagram was drawn, and then, standard loadings, t values were estimated. In the end, the findings were evaluated in terms of goodness of fit indices.

The CFA was applied to the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and the standard values of three factors, namely normative (NC), affective (AC), and continuance commitment (CC), were presented in Figure 4.1. The items AC3 and AC4 revealed low factor loadings and excluded. In the path diagram, it was observed that except for the items CC2, CC3 (0.49) and NC2 (0.48), all of the items included were above 0.50. The aforementioned items were very close to the threshold 0.50; therefore, they were not eliminated in this phase of the study. When the standardized factor loadings were taken into consideration, the item NC6 (I owe a great deal to my organization) had the strongest effect (0.82) on normative commitment. Moreover, the item AC6 (This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me) had the strongest effect (0.86) on affective commitment. For the continuance commitment dimension, item CC4 (I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization) was the strongest indicator (0.74). The goodness-of-fit indices of OCS, presented in Table 12, suggested good results for the collected data.

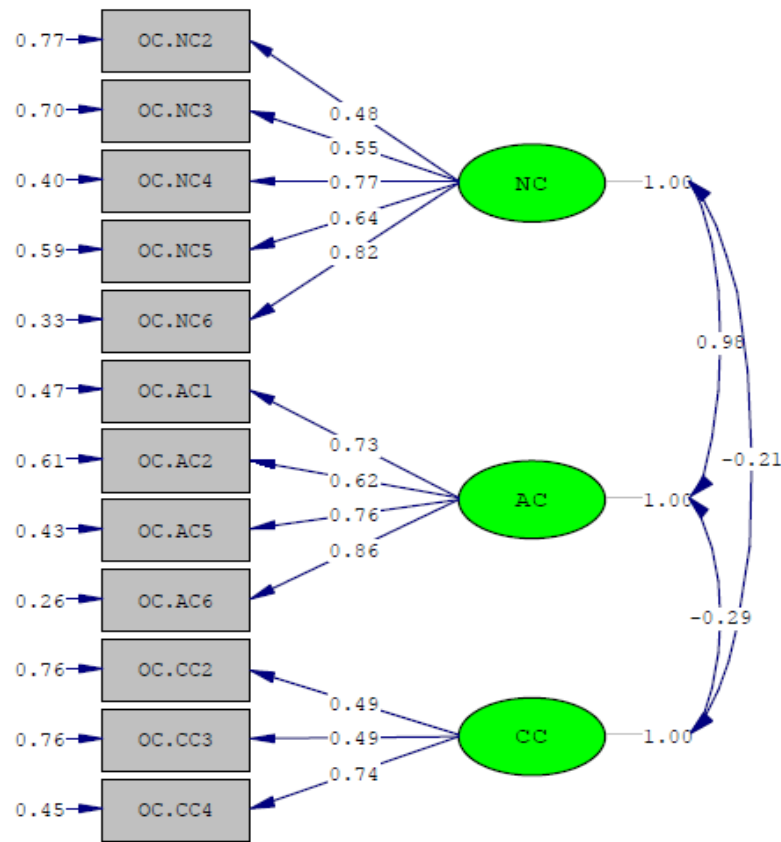


Figure 4.1. Confirmatory factor analysis of the OCS

Another CFA was applied to Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) and the standard values of three factors, namely emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and personal accomplishment (PA) were presented in Figure 4.2. Four items that could not reach the factor loadings of 0.50 were removed (DP1, DP4, DP5, EE9). In the path diagram, the item EE5 (I feel burned out from my work) has the strongest effect (0.91) on emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, the item DP3 (I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally) is the strongest indicator (0.94) of depersonalization. As for the personal accomplishment factor, the strongest (0.70) item was PA5 (I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students). The goodness-of-fit indices of MBI-ES suggested good results for the collected data (See Table 12).

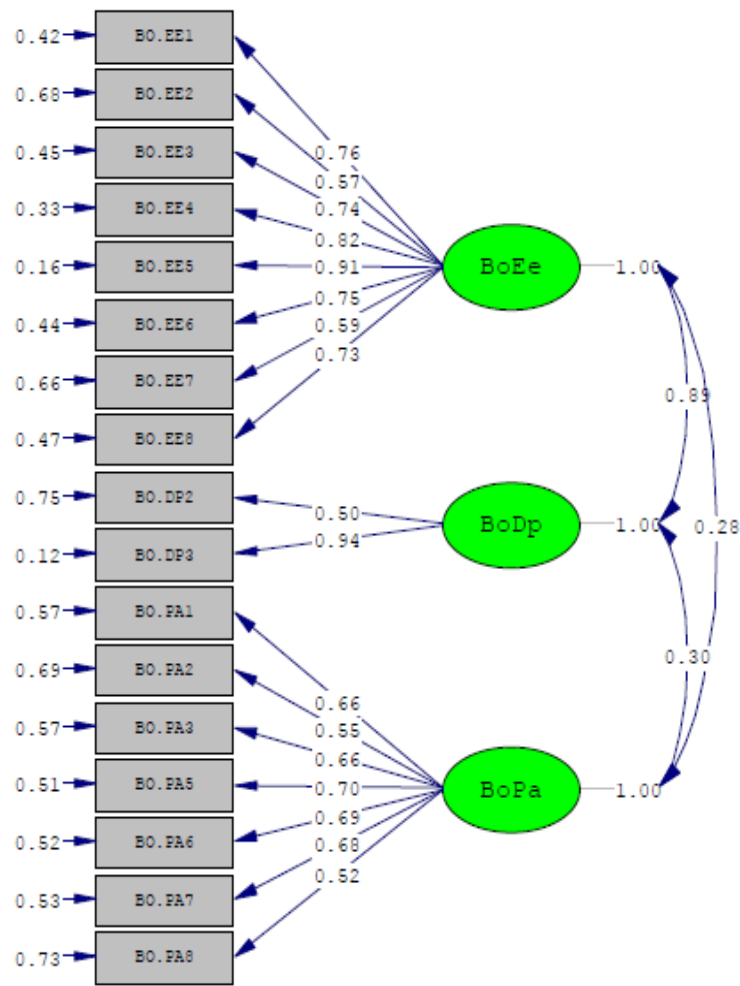


Figure 4.2. Confirmatory factor analysis of the MBI-ES

CFA was also performed to Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and the standard values of two factors, namely intrinsic (IS), and extrinsic satisfaction (ES) were presented in Figure 4.3. All of the factor loadings except IS3, IS6 and IS12 were above 0.50. When the standardized factor loadings were taken into consideration, the item IS9 (The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities) has the strongest effect (0.79) on intrinsic satisfaction. As for the extrinsic factor, the strongest (0.87) item was ES1 (The way my boss handles his man). The goodness-of-fit indices of MSQ suggested good results for the data (See Table 12). After completing the exploratory and confirmatory analysis, averages of all the standard loadings of the items that belong to each sub-dimension were taken so as to turn the latent sub-dimension into observed ones.

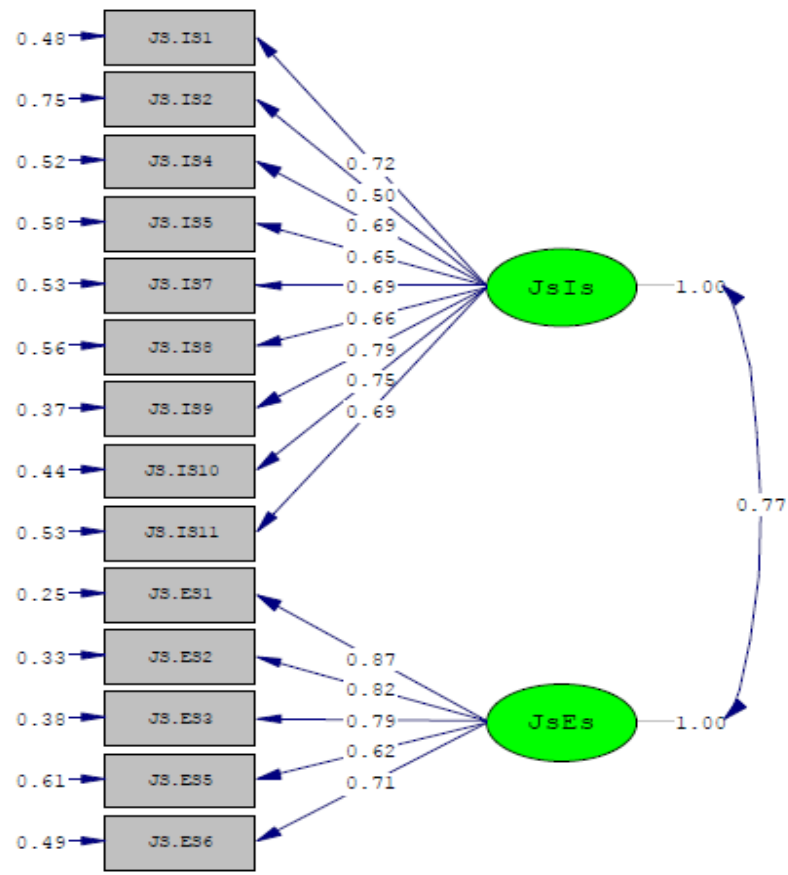


Figure 4.3. Confirmatory factor analysis of the MSQ

As an important source of information related to the observed variables, the t-values were checked. As a result of CFA, the t-values will be statistically significant at 0.05 when they exceed the critical value of 1.96 and if the t-values exceed 2.56, they will be statistically significant at 0.01 level (Byrne, 2001). In the present study, the findings presented in Table 11 illustrated that three different CFAs revealed that all the t-values exceed 2.56. In other words, the t-values related to the latent variables' explanation ratio of the observed variables found to be significant at 0.01 level.

Table 11

T-value Ranges for the CFA

Latent variable	Factor	T-value range
Burnout	EE	12.38 - 24.27
	DP	10.45 - 20.28
	PA	10.66 - 15.36
Job satisfaction	IS	10.49 - 19.01
	ES	13.64 - 21.74
Organizational Commitment	NC	9.94 - 19.81
	AC	13.68 - 21.52
	CC	7.90 - 10.15

Goodness-of-fit indices reveal the extent to which a hypothesized model fits, or in other words, adequately describe the sample data. There are lots of different goodness-of-fit indices and there is no agreement among researchers on which ones to use (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). For instance, Kline (2011) suggests that the Chi-Square ratio (χ^2), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation statistics (RMSEA), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) should be given in a study. However, other researchers state that different types of goodness-of-fit indices have their own strength and weaknesses; thus, it is always necessary to provide more than one type of goodness-of-fit indices to be more objective (Byrne, 2001; Hooper et al., 2008; Gürbüz & Şahin, 2014). Each of the goodness-of-fit indices is evaluated based on different criteria. For instance, for the CFI index, values greater than .95 are typically considered acceptable and values greater than .97 indicate a good fit to the data (Yılmaz & Çelik, 2009); on the other hand, RMSEA value is expected to be less than 0.05 for a good fit, values between 0.05 and 0.09 are considered acceptable fit (Akbulut, 2011). In the present study, normed chi-square (χ^2/df), RMSEA, NNFI (Non-normed Fit Index), CFI and AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index) were utilized to understand how the model that best represents the data reflects underlying theory. The goodness of fit indices was showed that the indices are acceptable (See Table 12).

Table 12

Standard Fit Index and Fit Values of the OCS, MBI-ES, and MSQ

Fit indices	Good fit	Acceptable fit	OCS	MBI-ES	MSQ
χ^2/df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$	$3 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5$	4.75	3.71	4.60
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.09$	0.09	0.08	0.09
NNFI	$0.97 \leq NNFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq NNFI \leq 0.97$	0.95	0.95	0.96
CFI	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$	0.96	0.96	0.97
AGFI	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$	$0.85 \leq AGFI \leq 0.90$	0.87	0.86	0.85

χ^2/df = Chi-square/Degrees of freedom ratio; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation;
 NNFI= Non-normed Fit Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; AGFI= Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index

After conducting EFA and CFA to all the data collection instruments, in the following section, the findings were presented under the title of each research question, respectively. For the first three research questions, descriptive information was provided including means, standard deviations and, etc. Additionally, for the final research question, details of SEM and the approach adopted were presented.

4.4. Organizational Commitment of Turkish EFL Instructors

In order to describe the organizational commitment of English instructors, the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993) which was based on the Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) was benefitted. Internal consistency reliabilities were conducted for the overall organizational commitment scale and three separate components: affective, normative and continuance commitment. The analysis yielded an alpha of .803 for overall reliability and .828 for affective commitment scale, .805 for normative commitment scale and .596 for continuance commitment scale. Responses to OCS are given on a 7-point scale with anchors ‘strongly disagree’ (1) and ‘strongly agree’ (7) and higher score indicates a higher level of commitment. According to the overall mean score of OCS ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 1.02$) Turkish EFL instructors are slightly committed to their organizations. In Table 13, the mean scores for components of organizational commitment were presented.

Table 13

Items of Organizational Commitment Scale

Measurement	Items	Valid	<i>M</i>	Standard Deviation
AC1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	426	4.62	1.84
AC2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	426	4.34	1.86
AC5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	426	4.72	1.95
AC6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	426	4.31	1.85
Total Affective Commitment		426	4.49	1.52
CC2	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	426	4.76	1.70
CC3	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	426	4.67	1.65
CC4	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.		4.14	1.80
Total Continuance Commitment		426	4.31	1.28
NC2	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	426	4.21	1.96
NC3	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	426	3.85	1.91
NC4	This organization deserves my loyalty.	426	4.47	1.77
NC5	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	426	3.75	1.77
NC6	I owe a great deal to my organization.	426	4.29	1.81
Total Normative Commitment		426	4.11	1.38

As discussed in the literature, affective commitment revealed the highest mean score ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 1.52$) among the components of organizational commitment. When the items in this dimension were examined one by one, item AC5 (I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization), which was reversed coded, showed the highest mean value ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.95$). As for the continuance commitment, item CC2 (One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives) yielded the highest mean score in the whole scale ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 1.70$) which can be regarded as a meaningful finding as lack of alternatives is the one strongest premises of continuance commitment (Powell & Meyer, 2004). For the last component, normative commitment displayed the lowest mean score ($M = 4.11$, $SD = 1.38$) compared with affective and continuance commitment. In this dimension, item NC4 (This organization deserves my loyalty) revealed the strongest mean score ($M = 4.47$, $SD = 1.77$). In OCS, the lowest mean score ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.77$) belongs to an item NC5 (I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it) which focuses on loyalty to co-workers. This item expresses that EFL instructors do not have a close relation either with their colleagues or supervisors.

4.5. Burnout of Turkish EFL Instructors

With the aim of understanding the burnout levels of English instructors, Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) developed by Maslach, Jackson and Schwab (1996) was utilized. Internal consistency reliabilities were conducted for the overall burnout scale and three separate constructs of burnout. The analysis yielded an alpha of .881 for overall reliability and .904 for emotional exhaustion, .694 for depersonalization and .825 for personal accomplishment. Items on the MBI-ES are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (daily). It is not advised to calculate a single or overall score for burnout; instead, they recommend computing three different scores for each of the dimensions as individuals might experience different levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment simultaneously (Maslach et al., 2009). Maslach et al. (1996) suggest that scores for dimensions can be coded as “low”, “average” and “high” by using numerical cut-off points given in the manual of MBI. Thus, to comprehend the burnout level of participants’ scores for three dimensions of burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) were examined (See Table 14). Having examined the average mean scores for each of the dimensions, it can be concluded that the average level of burnout is being experienced by Turkish EFL teachers, yet there is a lack of a severe case of in the current study.

Table 14

Items of Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey

Measurement	Items	Valid	<i>M</i>	Standard Deviation
EE1	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	426	3.15	1.64
EE2	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	426	2.03	1.70
EE3	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	426	3.68	1.73
EE4	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	426	2.88	1.91
EE5	I feel burned out from my work.	426	2.10	1.92
EE6	I feel frustrated by my job.	426	1.85	1.73
EE7	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	426	3.12	1.86
EE8	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	426	1.61	1.60
Total Emotional Exhaustion		426	2.55	1.36
DP2	I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	426	0.95	1.51
DP3	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	426	2.05	1.94
Total Depersonalization		426	1.50	1.48
PA1	I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	426	2.30	1.68
PA2	I can easily understand how my students feel about things.	426	0.92	1.21
PA3	I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.	426	1.76	1.46
PA5	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.	426	1.03	1.22
PA6	I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.	426	1.39	1.42
PA7	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	426	2.12	1.74
PA8	In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	426	1.94	1.59
Total Personal Accomplishment		426	1.63	1.59

Emotional exhaustion, which describes the feelings of being emotionally “exhausted” by one’s work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 101), had the highest total mean ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 1.36$) compared with other sub-dimensions of burnout. This finding was not surprising as emotional exhaustion was expected to be strongest; in other words, the core dimension of burnout (Maslach, 1998). According to the benchmark range of burnout experience (Maslach et al., 1996), the emotion exhaustion score was found to be at average level ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 1.36$). When the items in this dimension were examined one by one, item EE3 (I feel used up at the end of the workday) was the strongest item ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 1.73$) which could be interpreted as a signal of a developing burnout case. However, item EE8 (I feel like I'm at the end of my rope) revealed the lowest mean ($M = 1.61$, $SD = 1.60$) which revealed that burnout the teachers were experiencing was not very severe.

Depersonalization dimension of burnout, which describes the impersonal response to recipients of one’s care (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), displayed the lowest overall mean among the other dimensions ($M = 1.50$, $SD = 1.48$). Although it showed the lowest mean score, when the benchmark range of burnout experience (Maslach et al., 1996) was taken

into consideration, this mean score revealed average degree of burnout. Hence, it is possible to say that EFL instructors have been showing signs of emotional exhaustion and as a result of this, they have begun to develop depersonalization strategies to protect themselves. The highest mean in this dimension belonged to item DP3 ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.94$) (I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally); on the other hand, the lowest mean belonged to DP2 ($M = 0.95$, $SD = 1.51$) (I've become more callous toward people since I took this job).

As Table 14 illustrates, personal accomplishment, which describes feelings of achievement in one's work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), showed higher mean than depersonalization, yet lower than emotional exhaustion ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 1.59$). As for personal accomplishment dimension of burnout, the mean scores of the items were first reverse coded and then interpreted. Normally, lower scores in personal accomplishment represent higher burnout levels but the scores were reverse-coded; therefore, lower scores reveal lower levels of burnout just like the other dimensions. Thus, the overall mean score for this dimension yielded that EFL instructors experience low level of reduced personal accomplishment. When the items were examined individually, item PA1 (I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work) showed the strongest mean ($M = 2.30$, $SD = 1.68$). The mentioned item might be the reason for low level of reduced personal accomplishment since instructors in this current study tend to find meaning in their profession due to the effect they created on others' lives. This tendency might prevent them from being burned out (Bilge et al., 2007).

4.6. Job Satisfaction of Turkish EFL Instructors

The job satisfaction level of EFL instructors was determined by using the short version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) designed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). Internal consistency reliabilities were conducted for overall MSQ and two sub-dimensions: intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The analysis yielded an alpha of .920 for overall reliability and .887 for intrinsic satisfaction and .871 for extrinsic satisfaction. Responses to MSQ are given on a 5-point scale with anchors 'very dissatisfied' (1) and 'very satisfied' (5) and higher score indicates more satisfaction. As the neutral score in this scale is 3.00, scores higher than 3.00 can be interpreted as high levels of satisfaction (Saygılı & Çelik, 2011). After examining the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum

values, the overall mean score put forward ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .76$) that EFL instructors are slightly satisfied with their jobs.

Table 15

Items of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Measurement	Items	Valid	<i>M</i>	Standard Deviation
IS1	The chance to do different things from time to time.	426	3.48	1.03
IS2	The chance to work alone on the job.	426	3.68	0.95
IS4	The chance to be 'somebody' in the community.	426	3.77	0.99
IS5	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	426	3.42	1.04
IS7	The chance to do things for other people.	426	3.88	0.91
IS8	The chance to tell other people what to do.	426	3.33	0.93
IS9	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	426	3.66	1.11
IS10	The freedom to use my own judgment.	426	3.26	1.17
IS11	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	426	3.69	1.08
Total Intrinsic Satisfaction		426	3.56	0.74
ES1	The way my boss handles his man.	426	3.25	1.22
ES2	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	426	3.28	1.15
ES3	The way company policies are put into practice.	426	3.08	1.12
ES5	The chances for advancement on this job.	426	3.05	1.17
ES6	The praise I get for doing a good job.	426	3.09	1.24
Total Extrinsic Satisfaction		426	3.15	0.96

Regarding the dimensions of job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction had a higher total mean ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .74$) than extrinsic satisfaction ($M = 3.15$, $SD = .96$) which displayed English instructors feel satisfied in terms of intrinsic factors; however, they feel neither satisfied nor dissatisfied in terms of extrinsic factors (See Table 15). When items of both dimensions were investigated, item IS7 (The chance to do things for other people) was the strongest item ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .91$) in intrinsic satisfaction. On the other hand, item IS10 (The freedom to use my own judgment) revealed the lowest means score ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.17$) which can be a symbol of English instructors' dissatisfaction with hearing their own voice in the decision-making process. As for the extrinsic satisfaction, item ES2 (The competence of my supervisor in making decisions) was found to show the highest score ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 1.15$). Whereas ES5 (The chances of advancement on this job) showed the lowest means score ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.17$) which might be related the scarcity of promotion or professional development opportunities for EFL instructors.

4.7. The Nature of the Relationship among the Main Constructs

In SEM studies, there are two ways to test the proposed model and researchers can follow: a one-step or two-step approach. In the first one, both measurement and structural components of the model will be analysed simultaneously in a one-shot analysis; however, this may cause some problems if the results reveal poor fit such as locating the source of misspecification (Kline, 2011). In the two-step approach, the first stage is testing the measurement model so as to figure out whether the presumed latent variables are measured by the observed test scores in the expected way (Schoonen, 2015). The second step is testing the structural model which defines the relations among the latent variables; therefore, it specifies the manner by which particular latent variables directly or indirectly influence changes in the values of certain other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 2001). In the present study, a two-step approach was adopted in order to prevent any possible measurement problems and to foster reliability and validity.

4.7.1. The Measurement Model

In the measurement model, by using the confirmatory factor analysis technique (CFA) the relations between the observed and unobserved variables were defined and the items which revealed lower standard factor loading than 0.50, low t-values and poor goodness of fit indices were eliminated before the structural model. Before applying CFA, all the scores are standardized. Additionally, the scores of the items which belong to the sub-dimensions (NC, AC, CC, EE, DP, PA, IS and ES) of organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction were averaged. In Figure 4.4, the standardized factor loadings in the CFA were presented. According to Kline (2011), the standardized path coefficient values, less than 0.10 indicate small effect; values around 0.30 indicate medium effect; and values greater than 0.50 indicate large effects. In the present study, all the factor loadings were statistically significant, ranging from 0.79 (large) to 0.96 (large). Additionally, the path coefficients demonstrated that the indicators (item parcels) represented in the model were well explained by the corresponding factors.

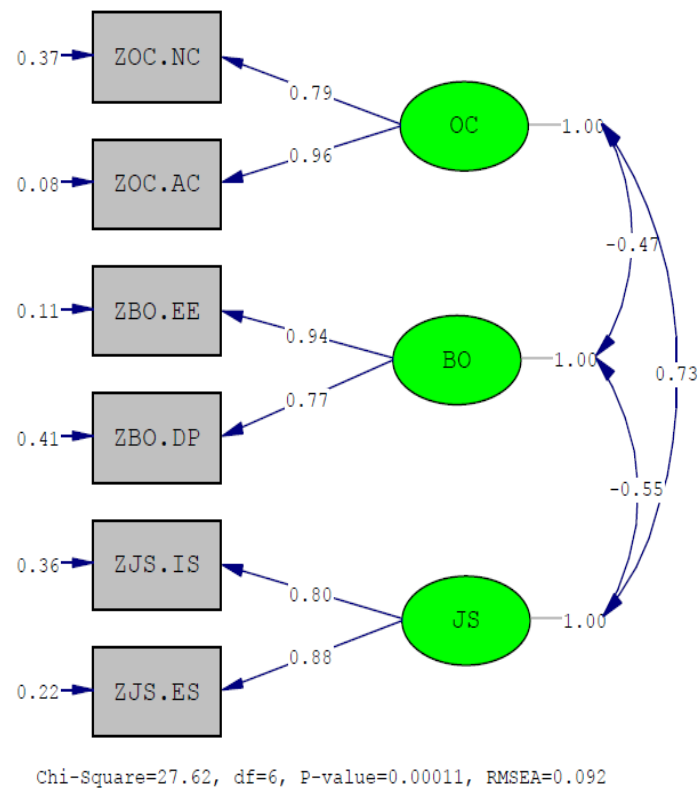


Figure 4.4. The measurement model

When CFA was applied, affective commitment was found to be the strongest indicator of organizational commitment (OC) with 0.96 factor loading. In addition, normative commitment showed strong effect (0.79) on OC (See Figure 4.4). However, as mentioned in the exploratory factor analysis section, the items in the continuance commitment factor revealed low and mixed factor loadings. Based on the factor loadings, t-values and modification indices, items CC2, CC3 and CC4 were eliminated. Thus, there were no items left in the continuance commitment factor of the organizational commitment. This finding is in line with the literature as in the factor analysis of CC in previous studies, it was found that there is a doubt about the unity of continuance commitment (Cheng & Stocdale, 2001; Jaros, 2007; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Jaros (2007) suggests that items related to CC might be no longer be up-to-date with respect to recent conceptual modifications and he emphasizes the need for new items. In addition, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) highlight that even though the results of factor analysis showed satisfactory results for affective and normative commitment, it is questionable that the CC is a uni-dimensional construct; thus, in the present study, the CC sub-dimension was excluded.

As for the second latent variable, burnout (BO), emotional exhaustion (EE) was found to be the strongest indicator with 0.94 factor loading. Moreover, depersonalization (DP) revealed a strong effect (0.77) on burnout (See Figure 4.4). On the contrary, the personal accomplishment (PA) sub-dimension had a very low factor loading (0.18). In addition to low factor loading, the measurement error of the PA displayed an excessive strong correlation than acceptable. One of the basic assumptions in SEM is the fact that the measurement errors should not be dependent to each other (Şen, 2013). Therefore, the personal accomplishment sub-dimension of burnout was omitted from the measurement model.

The findings of the CFA revealed that extrinsic satisfaction (ES) was the strongest (0.88) indicator of the third latent variable job satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction (IS) has strong (0.80) effect on job satisfaction. To evaluate the importance of the paths between the variables, t-values were estimated, and they were found to be significant at 0.01, with values ranging from 15.76 to 23.08. Jöreskog and Sörbom (2002, p. 142) suggest that the t-values above 2.56 are accepted to be significant at 0.01 level. With the regard to comprehend how well the collected data correspond with the theoretical model, goodness-of-fit indices were examined (See Table 16). All the values of the selected fit indices consistently indicated that hypothesized measurement model showed either acceptable fit or good fit.

Table 16

Goodness-of-fit Indices and Values of Measurement Model

Fit indices	Good fit	Acceptable fit	Measurement Model	Concordance
χ^2/df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$	$3 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5$	4.60	Acceptable fit
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.09$	0.09	Acceptable fit
NNFI	$0.97 \leq NNFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq NNFI \leq 0.97$	0.97	Good fit
CFI	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$	0.99	Good fit
AGFI	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$	$0.85 \leq AGFI \leq 0.90$	0.93	Good fit

χ^2/df = Chi-square/Degrees of freedom ratio; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; NNFI= Non-normed Fit Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; AGFI= Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index

In order to avoid the measurement errors that might affect the structural model, by using the CFA technique the measurement errors were determined and fixed. Based on the generated structural model, the relations between the latent and observed variables were demonstrated. As the second step, a structural model was developed by testing the structural relations among latent variables included in the measurement model.

4.7.2. The Structural Model

In the present study, as organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction are all latent variables and it is not possible to observe them, an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were performed sequentially to the data collection tools so as to ensure whether the collection tools were testing what they intended to test. As a two-step approach was preferred, a measurement model was specified to examine whether the latent variables were measured well, given a set of observed variables (Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). In the second phase of the study, a model defining the relationships among the latent variables was hypothesized (See Figure 4.5). Having defined the model, standard estimates of the model, t-values that give information about the significance of the values and the goodness-of-fit indices which provide information about the model as a whole are presented.

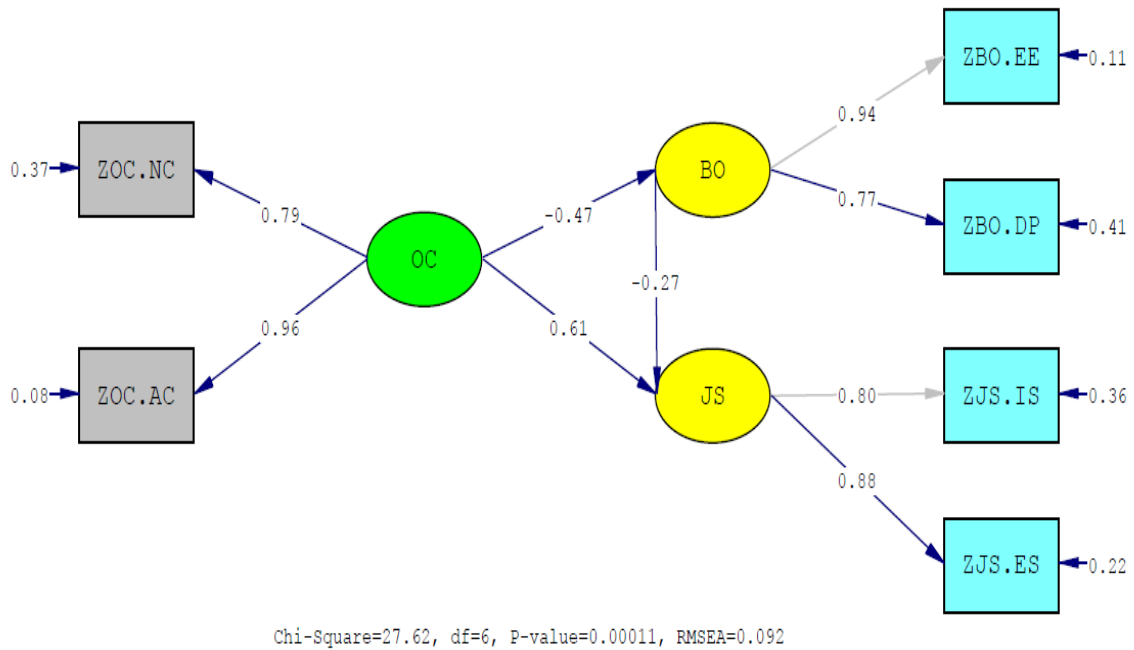


Figure 4.5. The standardized factor loadings for the hypothesized model

In the hypothesized model presented in Figure 4.5, the independent observed variables (normative and affective commitment) are grey, the exogenous variable (organizational commitment) is green, the endogenous variables (burnout and job satisfaction) are yellow, and dependent observed variables (EE, DP, IS, and ES) are turquoise. In SEM studies, the standardized factor values can range from 0 to 1. The values around 0 indicate a weak effect, however, as the value increases, it indicates a stronger effect. Kline (2011) states that the standard factor values less than 0.10 indicate small effect, values around 0.30 indicate

medium effect and values greater than 0.50 indicate large effects. In the current study, the standardized factor loadings were statistically significant and ranged from -0.27 (small) to 0.96 (large). Figure 4.5 reveals that organizational commitment has strong relationships with its indicators normative (NC) and affective commitment (AC). Especially, affective commitment (0.96) indicates a large, standardized factor loading and this finding reveals that affective commitment can be considered as the strongest indicator of organizational commitment. Emotional exhaustion (EE) found to be the strongest indicator of burnout, with a factor loading 0.94. Factor loadings of both intrinsic (IS = 0.80) and extrinsic job satisfaction (ES = 0.88) are close and can be defined as good indicators of job satisfaction. When the relationship among the latent variables is considered, it has been found out that there is a mediocre negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout (-0.47). However, there is a strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (0.61). Moreover, a negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction (-0.27) was observed. In addition to direct effects, it is possible to estimate the total effect of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. By using the formula (Total effect = $0.61 + (-0.47) \times (-0.27) = 0.74$), it was found out that organizational commitment had a total effect of 0.74 on job satisfaction.

With regard to evaluating the hypothesized model, the goodness of fit indices was examined. Table 17 illustrates different fit indices and their both good fit and acceptable fit values according to the related literature. Based on the given values, the goodness-of-fit indices for the proposed model showed good and acceptable fit. Namely, the proposed model was supported by the collected data.

Table 17

Goodness-of-fit Indices and Values of Structural Model

Fit indices	Good fit	Acceptable fit	Proposed model	Concordance
χ^2/df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$	$3 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5$	4.60	Acceptable fit
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.09$	0.09	Acceptable fit
NNFI	$0.97 \leq NNFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq NNFI \leq 0.97$	0.97	Good fit
CFI	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$	0.99	Good fit
AGFI	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$	$0.85 \leq AGFI \leq 0.90$	0.93	Good fit

χ^2/df = Chi-square/Degrees of freedom ratio; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; NNFI= Non-normed Fit Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; AGFI= Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index

In order to comprehend the significance of the standardized path loadings, t-values should be examined. When t-values exceed the critical value of 1.96, they will be statistically significant at 0.05 level. Furthermore, t-values will be statistically significant at 0.01 level if they exceed 2.56 (Byrne, 2001). LISREL automatically indicate t-values red if they are below the critical value of 1.96 (Yılmaz & Çelik, 2009). If the t-value of a parameter cannot meet the critical value of 1.96, the parameter needs to be eliminated from the model (Şimşek, 2007). In the present study, all the t-values exceed the critical value (See Table 15).

In addition, another important value that needs to be examined in SEM studies is the squared multiple correlation coefficient; in other words, R-squared (R^2). R^2 value shows the amount of variance explained or predicted in the dependent variable by the set of independent predictor variables (Schumacher & Lomax, 2010). R^2 value can range from 0 to 1 and expected to be close to 1. In the present study, based on the R^2 values, it was found out that organizational commitment and burnout explained 59% variance of job satisfaction. Furthermore, organizational commitment explained 22% variance of burnout. The R^2 values representing the variance of the variables were presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Important Values of Variables

Variables	Factor Loading	T-Values	R^2	CA	CR	AVE
Organizational Commitment (OC)				0.80	0.87	0.77
Normative Commitment (NC)	0.79	18.07	0.63	0.80		
Affective Commitment (AC)	0.96	23.08	0.92	0.82		
Burnout (BO)				0.88	0.85	0.74
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.94	19.19	0.89	0.90		
Depersonalization (DP)	0.77	15.76	0.59	0.69		
Job Satisfaction (JS)				0.92	0.83	0.71
Intrinsic Satisfaction (IS)	0.80	18.22	0.64	0.88		
Extrinsic Satisfaction (ES)	0.88	20.67	0.78	0.87		
Structural Equations: BO = - 0.47*OC, R^2 = 0.22						
JS = - 0.27*BO + 0.61*OC, R^2 = 0.59						
R^2 : R-squared; CA: Cronbach's alpha; CR: Composite reliability; AVE: Average variance extracted						

Other important values that could be considered as the convergent validity of constructs in the study were factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha (CA), composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) (See Table 18). First, the factor loadings of the observed variables were supposed to be at more than 0.50 and statistically significant (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The factor loadings in the present study ranged from 0.77 to 0.96 and they were all significant. Secondly, for each construct, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values were expected to be around 0.70. For this study the Cronbach's alpha values range from 0.69 to 0.92 and the value 0.69 for depersonalization was accepted as it was very close to the threshold 0.70. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha has been considered to have some limitations although it is the most common measure of reliability reported in the research studies (Shook, Ketchen, Hult & Kacmar, 2004). Therefore, because of its ability to draw on the standardized regression weights and measurement correlation errors for each item, the composite reliability (CR) was reported in the present study. The CR values were between 0.83 and 0.87 which were found to be high enough to ensure composite reliability. As for the average variance extracted (AVE), which can be defined as a summary of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct, all the values higher than 0.50 are considered good (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In the present, the AVE values for the constructs were 0.71, 0.74, and 0.77 which could be evaluated as good values. Based on the abovementioned values, convergent validity was ensured for each of the constructs in the study.

Table 19

Hypotheses and Results

Hypotheses	Standardized Parameter Estimations	T-values	Result
H1: There is a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout of EFL instructors.	-0.47	-9.25	Verified
H2: There is a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction of EFL instructors.	0.61	-4.97	Verified
H3: There is a significant negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction of EFL instructors.	-0.27	10.33	Verified

As seen in Table 19, all the discovered relationships among the latent variables are in line with the hypotheses that were put forward at the beginning of the current study. The findings of the hypothesized structural model revealed that as the EFL instructors are more committed

to their organization, they are less likely to suffer from burnout (H1). Moreover, it can be concluded that as the EFL instructors are more committed to their organization, they are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs (H2). For the final hypothesis (H3), when the EFL instructors experience higher degree of burnout, they feel less satisfied with their jobs.



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this chapter of the dissertation, firstly, the findings related to the three main variables, namely, organizational commitment, burnout and job satisfaction levels of the EFL instructors will be presented and discussed by referring to the research questions and the reviewed literature. Secondly, the relationship among these variables will be addressed in detail.

5.1. What is the organizational commitment level of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary level?

In the present study, educators' organizational commitment is defined as the "degree of psychological attachment to the teaching profession" (Coldaraci, 1992, p. 326) and in order to gauge teachers' commitment, the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Allen et al., 1993), which consists of 18 items and three well-validated scales: the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) and the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) were employed. Responses are given on a 7-point scale with anchors 'strongly disagree' (1) and 'strongly agree' (7) and the scores can range from 18 to 126. A high score indicates a high level of commitment for normative, affective and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Each of the scales reflects the feelings of individuals related to their organization and scales can be used separately to identify the "commitment profile" of the employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The overall data of the present study indicate that English instructors are *slightly committed* to their organizations ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 1.02$). Randall (1987) claims that compared to high or

low levels of commitment, a moderate level of commitment is advantageous as employees are loyal to their organization and accept the values of the organization, yet they still preserve their personal values. It is observed that this finding shows similarity with those of other studies in the literature. For instance, a study conducted by Töremen and Erol (2015) investigated the relationship between ethical behaviours of university managements and organizational commitment of 152 academic staff working at a public university in Turkey. They found out that total commitment scores of academic staff are within the range of *partially agree* which can be deciphered as moderate level of organizational commitment. In a similar vein, Al (2007) conducted a research study on the relationship between the organizational commitment of 401 EFL instructors and the competency of managers in foreign language schools. The findings depicted that the general organizational commitment level of instructors was found to be “medium” and affected by the managerial competency of principals. Accordingly, the current study revealed similar results with those which were conducted in the higher education context.

In other stages of education, studies revealed similar results; for example, in her study, Arriaran-Buono (2011) worked with 117 middle school teachers in California and found that for all the items of organizational commitment, the teachers’ responses were on “slightly agree” level. That is, similar to the participants of the current study, middle school teachers were in moderate agreement that they felt a sense of commitment to their organization. Arriaran-Buono (2011) underlined that role ambiguity and intrinsic job design were predictors of teachers’ organizational commitment. In a Turkish context, Norşenli (2021) surveyed the organizational commitment level of 475 primary and secondary school teachers and found that teachers had average level of organizational commitment. Based on his findings, Norşenli (2021) defined important factors to promote teachers’ organizational commitment which were giving importance to individual, administrative justice, psychosocial environment, the attitude of the senior management, mutual respect, participation in the decision-making, effective communication, economic improvement, professional development, location of the school, student achievement, cooperation, and norms and regulations. In the same token, Balay, Kara and Karadaş (2017) searched for the relationship between teachers’ perception of positive school management and organizational commitment and found that the overall organizational commitment level of 329 teachers was medium. When the components of organizational commitment were examined Balay et al.

(2017) stated that teachers did not display a self-driven interest towards their profession; in contrast, they mostly give importance to the feeling of loyalty.

However, this result contradicts those which claim that academics have higher levels of organizational commitment. To exemplify, Celep (1998, 2000), Gıçı (2011) and Malik et al. (2010) found that academics had a high degree of organizational commitment to their organizations. According to Malik et al. (2010), Pakistani academics felt committed to their organizations as a result of their contentedness with the supervision, salary, co-workers and promotion opportunities. However, Joiner and Bakalis (2006) emphasized that the findings of studies in different contexts should be handled insightfully as the factors affecting organizational commitment of academics may differ because of organizational culture. For instance, in Australian universities where Joiner and Bakalis (2006) conducted their study, universities specialized either in research or teaching and this was not the case in many other countries. Additionally, cultural values might have an influence on how teachers perceive their professional identity and feel committed to their organizations. In some cultures, such as Turkish and Pakistani cultures, teaching is more valued than other cultures and this might affect teachers' commitment (Ari, 2021). Thus, dissimilar cultural values might be the reason for the contradictory results between the findings of Malik et al. (2010) and the current study.

In line with the findings of Malik et al. (2010), in her master's thesis, Gıçı (2011) put forward that the organizational commitment level of English instructors working in preparatory schools of foundation universities was found to be at "most of the time level" which can be considered a high level of commitment. When the mismatch between the findings of the current study and Gıçı's findings was taken into consideration, the possible source might be related to the type of organization the participants were affiliated to. In the current study, almost 70% of the participants were affiliated to state universities and 30% of them were affiliated to foundation universities. On the other hand, in the study of Gıçı (2011), the participants (200 EFL instructors) were all affiliated to foundation universities. In other words, the difference in findings might be the result of dissimilar working conditions (e.g., managerial support, salary, physical conditions, professional development opportunities, etc.) of the two participant groups. For instance, Al (2007) suggested that the principals in foundation universities were found to be more competent in showing interest to deal with professional development needs, being open to change and improvement, being able to balance the organizational goals and instructors' needs, being an inspirational sample, and providing modern technologies than principals in state universities. In other words, the

working conditions of the instructors differ, and it can be concluded that EFL instructors working at foundation universities are more adventurous than the ones working at state universities in terms of working conditions. Therefore, it is not surprising to observe dissimilar levels of commitment between the two participant groups.

As one of the pioneering researchers of organizational commitment in Turkey, Celep (1998) searched for the organizational commitment level of 375 teachers from 11 public high schools. His findings revealed that teachers were highly committed to their school, teaching work, teacher profession and their work group. Considering the factors that lessen the commitment of teachers, Celep (1998) underlined the scarcity of rewards and lack of promotion opportunities. Two years later, Celep (2000) replicated his study with 302 public school teachers and came up with similar results. Celep (2000) suggested that level of teacher commitment to their schools, the work group and the teaching occupation were found to be high. Celep (2000) pointed that teacher-student communication, interaction among colleagues and the quality of procedures were defined as factors affecting the organizational commitment level of Turkish teachers. The discrepancy between Celep's studies and this current study might stem from the difference of the organizational type of participants (Deliveli, 2018) as the working conditions in high schools differ from academics or instructors working at universities.

Apart from the overall organizational commitment of individuals, there is a need to focus on components of organizational commitment, namely affective, normative and continuance commitment levels since an individual can simultaneously reveal different levels of commitments for each component (Meyer et al., 1993). In the present study, the data revealed that English instructors showed the highest average mean score in affective commitment at *Somewhat Agree* ($M= 4.49$, $SD= 1.52$) which can be considered *average* level of affective commitment. This finding is consistent with that of previous research (Ari, 2021; Bohorquez, 2016; Boylu et al., 2007; Chen, 2008; Töremen & Erol, 2015). When compared with normative ($M= 4.11$, $SD= 1.38$), and continuance ($M= 4.31$, $SD= 1.28$), commitment scores, it is clear that instructors feel more affectively committed to their organizations. In other words, EFL instructors tend to be “emotionally attached to” their organizations and tend to stay with their organizations because they “want to” (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Affective commitment is considered the most desirable component of organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982) since when affective commitment occurs in individuals, they tend to match their goals with organizational goals and thus their commitment and

eventually their performance increase (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). This kind of emotional attachment is essential in educational organizations because educators with a strong commitment to their work is more dedicated to their students (Bohorquez, 2016). Regarding items in the affective commitment scale in this current study, EFL instructors agreed that they feel like “part of the family” at their organizations ($M= 4.72$, $SD= 1.95$). In addition, they tend to spend the rest of their career with their current organization ($M= 4.62$, $SD= 1.84$). Keiser (2007) highlights that one’s desire to stay with the organization is vital, especially in school settings since committed teachers are invaluable sources in the success of school improvement. As for boosting affective attachment and commitment, teachers should be recognized for their achievements, considerable attention should be given to professional development (Keiser, 2007).

Additionally, EFL instructors participated in the current study felt as if their organizations’ problems were their own ($M= 4.34$, $SD= 1.86$) and gave personal meaning to their organization ($M= 4.31$, $SD= 1.85$) at *Somewhat Agree* level. Arı (2021) emphasized that Turkish teachers tend to reveal higher levels of affective commitment as teaching is accepted as a sacred profession in Turkish culture and teachers are respected because they are serving for a sacred profession. Thus, affective commitment may be related to the educational culture of a country (Arı, 2021). Similarly, according to TALIS (2018), the status of the teaching profession might be an important factor in Turkey while recruiting and retaining teachers. Furthermore, it is a pleasing finding that teachers have the highest score in affective commitment, yet average level of affective commitment might not seem to be adequate for the teaching profession and there is a need to research on the possible ways to increase affective commitment (Gören & Yengin-Sarpkaya, 2014).

In the present study, continuance commitment revealed the second highest average mean score ($M= 4.31$, $SD= 1.28$) which was very close to the range of *Somewhat Agree*. Comparing the mean scores, it can be observed that Turkish EFL instructors’ continuance commitment level was lower than affective commitment level, but higher than normative commitment level. This was an unexpected finding as Meyer and Allen (1997) allege that among the components of the organizational commitment, the most desirable order is to have high affective commitment, followed by normative and continuance commitment, respectively. Thus, in the present study, the continuance commitment level of participants was found higher than it should have been. In simple terms, continuance commitment can be defined as individuals’ awareness of what they will lose associated with leaving their

organization and individuals with continuance commitment stay with the organization because they “need to” (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Although this result contradicts with those found in the Turkish context by a number of studies (Boylu et al., 2007; Gören & Yengin-Sarpkaya, 2014; Palice, 2020; Töremen & Erol, 2015), it is in line with others (Al, 2007; Deliveli, 2018; Güner, 2015; Tezcan, 2010).

The main source of this discrepancy among the studies might be related to the academic rank/status of participants. According to Deliveli (2018) the only commitment component that was affected by the academic rank was the continuance commitment. In her study, she found out that researcher assistants had a higher level of continuance commitment than assistant professors, associate professors, and professors. Compared with other academics, for research assistants, it would be harder to find a new position in another university; thus, that might be reason for this finding (Deliveli, 2018). Additionally, Al (2007) put forward a significant difference that was detected between EFL instructors and lecturers’ continuance commitment level in favour of EFL instructors. Accordingly, in line with the findings of this study, it is possible to say that as EFL instructors are aware of the high costs of leaving their organization (such as scarcity of alternatives), they tend to show higher levels of continuance commitment. Moreover, organization type can be an effective factor in the continuance commitment of instructors. In Tezcan’s (2010) study, she found out that EFL instructors working at state universities had stronger continuance commitment than their colleagues working at foundation universities. As the majority of participants (70%) in this study are currently working at a state university, they are permanent public servants which means they have almost no risk of dismissal and this fact might foster their continuance commitment since they would not prefer to put at risk the accumulation of investments (side-bets). Hence, the organization type might be the reason for high continuous commitment level of English instructors participated in this study.

When the items in the continuance commitment scale were examined in detail, the item “One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives” displayed the highest score ($M= 4.76$, $SD= 1.70$) in the whole scale (OCS). Similarly, the item “I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization” ($M= 4.14$, $SD= 1.80$) emphasized the scarcity of alternatives. Apparently, the EFL instructors in this study agreed that there were not enough alternative job opportunities for them, and this situation was affecting their commitment. This finding is in accordance with TUIK (2021) report which revealed the high unemployment rate in the country. In a

similar vein, Okay (2018) underlined that millions of new graduate teachers are waiting to find a position in the public and private institutions to be attained as teachers. Based on the current data, it can be concluded that knowing there was a lack of alternative job opportunities ($M= 4.67$, $SD= 1.65$) might increase participants' continuance commitment as staying with their organization is a matter of necessity as much as a desire.

Among the components of organizational commitment, Turkish EFL instructors showed the lowest score in normative commitment at *Neither Agree Nor Disagree* level ($M= 4.11$, $SD= 1.38$) which can be considered a *neutral* response. Normative commitment can be described as "feeling of obligation" and individuals with this kind of commitment stay with the organization because they think they "should", and it is about loyalty (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In alignment with this definition, EFL instructors state that their organization deserves their loyalty ($M= 4.47$, $SD= 1.77$) at *Somewhat Agree* level and this item shows the highest mean score. Although the previous item indicates some amount of loyalty, participants are reluctant to agree on the idea that they owe a great deal to their organizations ($M= 4.29$, $SD= 1.81$). Similarly, the item "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization" (reverse-coded) ($M= 4.21$, $SD= 1.96$) response is at the *neutral* level. This item clarifies that even though EFL instructors reveal average level of commitment, they are indecisive about leaving their organization when it is to their advantage. Hence, the participants are experiencing some factors deteriorating their loyalty to their organizations and they may not be sure whether they would feel guilty or not for leaving their organization ($M= 3.85$, $SD= 1.91$). These feelings of obligation and loyalty might be the result of familial or cultural socialization and either related to prior to job experience or following the entry into an organization (Dawley et al., 2005; Meyer et al., 1993).

When the possible reasons for low normative commitment were taken into consideration, previous research drew attention to professional development opportunities, managerial style, and involvement of individuals in the decision-making process (Al, 2007; Gıcı, 2011; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Keiser, 2007; Norşenli, 2021; Tezcan, 2010; Töremen & Erol, 2015; Wiener, 1982). As for the professional development opportunities, it has been acknowledged that normative commitment of employees may be fostered by providing them professional development opportunities (Wiener, 1982). In line with this assertion, in Güner's (2015) study, she depicted that providing adequate professional development opportunities was found to be a significant factor in enhancing both normative and affective commitment of Turkish academic staff. In the same token, Tezcan (2010) highlighted that

EFL instructors who had more professional development opportunities revealed higher normative commitment than those who had fewer opportunities.

Another vital factor to promote normative commitment is the involvement of educators in decision-making process (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Research supports the link between organizational commitment and involvement in decision-making as participation increases commitment via motivational mechanisms (Somech & Bogler, 2002). Al (2007) claimed that a democratic management style should be adopted in the management of universities to involve academic staff into the decision-making processes, and this would make it easier to implement the decisions made. According to Tezcan (2010), hearing their own voice in the decision-making process significantly affected EFL instructors' not only normative but also affective commitment levels. The more they were involved in decisions, the higher level of normative commitment the EFL instructors experienced (Tezcan, 2010).

In the whole scale, the lowest average mean score belongs to the item "I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to people" ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.77$). Considering this item, it can be concluded that EFL teachers are not content with either collegial support or management style in their educational organizations. In the literature, managerial problems are believed to be the most effective factor in educators' organizational commitment in various stages (Day, 2004). For instance, in a higher education context, Al (2007) suggested that there was a positive relationship between the organizational commitment of English instructors and the managerial competency of principals, and in order to increase the organizational commitment level of English instructors, a more participative management style should be adopted. In the same token, Töremen and Erol's (2015) study revealed that the ethical leadership behaviours of managers were meaningful predictors of organizational commitment of the academic staff. At K12 level, Balay et al. (2017) searched for the relationship between teachers' perception of positive school management and organizational commitment and found that the components of positive school management are one of the predictors of organizational commitment. The previous studies (Al, 2007; Balay et al., 2007; Day, 2004; Töremen & Erol, 2015) emphasized that the management style in educational organizations is one of the main predictors of organizational commitment. Especially, the transactional leadership style which has a special type of rewards policy, found to have a medium positive effect on the organizational commitment and a negative effect on burnout levels of faculty members (Bohorquez, 2016).

In the present study, apart from managers, English instructors may not have much sense of obligation to their colleagues. This might be another possible reason for low levels of commitment. In the literature, teachers' commitment to organizations can be affected by factors such as national education policies, administrative support, relations with colleagues (Day, 2004). In alignment with the literature, Celep (2000) suggested that communication between teachers and students, interaction among colleagues, the quality of procedures has an influence on organizational commitment in Turkish schools. In her study, Tezcan (2010) presented that collegial support was detected as a significant factor in EFL instructors' normative commitment. EFL instructors who did not feel the support of their colleagues were found to have lower levels of normative commitment (Tezcan, 2010). Having close relationships with colleagues and organization leaders was a significant factor in enhancing teacher commitment and teacher retention (Washington, 2017). As a solution to the lack of normative commitment of Turkish academics, Deliveli (2018) offered to provide managerial practices including being able to feel like a family member in the organization, dealing with the organization's problems like one's own, and creating a positive organizational culture.

In conclusion, the findings of the current study are mostly in line with those found in the literature yet show discrepancies in terms of components of organizational commitment (continuance and normative commitment). Based on the collected data, it can be concluded that even though Turkish EFL instructors might not be content with several possible factors such as managerial style, collegial support, and lack of job alternatives, in the current study they still feel emotionally attached to their organizations and accept the values of an organization but at the same time still preserve their own personal values. Lower commitment harms not only the effectiveness of the educational organizations but also the professional performance of educators (Celep, 2000). Compared with teachers with high commitment, teachers with low commitment show weaker attachment to schools, cannot motivate their students to improve a positive attitude towards learning, and less motivated to achieve goals of teaching than teachers with high commitment (Lawrence & Deepa, 2012). In contrast, committed teachers tend to be more satisfied, responsible, loyal, zealous and these factors promote increased student achievement, and job performance (Bogler & Nir, 2015; Nagar, 2012; Sun, 2015). It has been widely accepted that schools or universities which were founded to give direction to students, nations and indirectly future of a nation should not be left to coincidences (Gören & Yengin-Sarpkaya, 2014). Having first-class educators is a must if a country has the desire to have first-class universities (Wang, 2010).

That's why it is necessary to activate the mechanisms that will psychologically connect educators to their organizations (Balay, 2000).

5.2. What is the burnout level of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary level?

In this current study, educator burnout is conceptualized based on the definition of Kyriacou (1989 as cited in Dean & Dean, 2002): "a state of mental, emotional and attitudinal exhaustion in educators which is a result of prolonged experience of stress". In order to comprehend how often the EFL instructors experience the feelings related to burnout, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) (Maslach et al., 1996) which consists of three different but related scales, namely Emotional Exhaustion Scale (EES), Depersonalization Scale (DPS) and the Personal Accomplishment Scale (PAS), was utilized. Items on the MBI-ES are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (daily). According to the manual of MBI-ES, higher mean scores for the EES and DPS correspond to higher degrees of burnout. In this study, the items in the PAS were reverse coded to use in SEM statistics; therefore, a higher mean score for the PAS corresponds to higher degrees of burnout. Maslach et al. (1996) do not advise calculating a single or overall score for burnout; instead, they recommend computing three different scores for each of the dimensions as individuals might experience different levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment simultaneously.

Considering the dimensions of burnout, the data of the present study show that EFL instructors reveal the highest means score in emotional exhaustion ($M= 2.55$, $SD= 1.36$) within the range of *average* degree of burnout according to the benchmark range given by Maslach et al. (1996). This result is in line with those found in Kavanoz and Kırkgöz (2020) who searched for burnout level of 434 EFL teachers working in elementary, middle and high schools. They found that the rate of burnout level in EFL teachers at medium level in emotional exhaustion. In the same vein, in academia, Öztürk (2013) investigated the burnout level of EFL instructors and major reasons leading to burnout. The findings of Öztürk's (2013) mixed method study put forward that EFL instructors were experiencing moderate level of burnout and the major reasons for burnout were heavy workload, student and institutional problems. In the current study, finding the highest score in emotional exhaustion is not a surprising result as Maslach et al. (1996) describe this dimension as the core element and first signal of burnout which can cause serious results such as leaving the profession in

the end. Kavanoz and Kırkgöz (2020) suggest that when signals of burnout are being observed in the emotional exhaustion, effective intervention techniques need to be used to increase the efficiency and well-being of language teachers.

When the items in the emotional exhaustion scale are further investigated, it can be observed that although their overall burnout levels are moderate, EFL instructors in this study feel used up ($M= 3.68$, $SD= 1.73$), emotionally drained ($M= 3.15$, $SD= 1.64$) and feeling they are working too hard ($M= 3.12$, $SD= 1.86$) more frequently (*almost once a week*) than expected. In the previous studies, the major reasons for emotional exhaustion have been defined as high workload and absence of recognition by Vesty et al. (2018), academic rank, tenure status and workload by Azeem and Nazır (2008), low proficiency of students by Akbari and Roudi (2020), time pressure by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017b) and Vandenberghe and Huberman (1999), workload by Maslach and Leiter (2006) and also Palice (2020). According to Chang (2009) the reason for this emotional exhaustion in teachers might be the result of intensive emotional labour required in teaching. Unfortunately, in the teaching profession, educators from various levels have to deal with problems related to society, students' academic skills, individual needs of students and also moral and ethical development of students (Maslach et al., 1996). Accordingly, teaching is amongst the most stressful of all professions (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, 2015) due to the unique interpersonal nature of the classroom environment (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). All in all, this unique nature of teaching is seen as the most rewarding as aspect of teaching; however, it makes teachers vulnerable (Maslach & Leiter, 1999). Thus, it can be concluded that EFL instructors in the present study are affected by the intensive emotional labour required in teaching.

Based on the items in Emotional Exhaustion Scale, it can be concluded that English instructors are experiencing feelings of fatigue ($M= 2.88$, $SD= 1.91$), burnout ($M= 2.10$, $SD= 1.92$) *a few times a month* and stress as a result of working with people *once a month or less* ($M= 2.03$, $SD= 1.70$). These values corroborate the findings of Okay (2018) who found that EFL teachers consider their profession advantageous and do not have any problems communicating with their colleagues. She put forward that teachers in Turkey do not have higher levels of burnout and they are satisfied with their job due to some factors such as salary, reasonable working hours and more holiday opportunities. The frequency ranges in the present study reveal that even though instructors are showing some signals of emotional exhaustion, there is a lack of a severe case. In line with this tendency, participants

are *rarely* having the feelings like frustration ($M= 1.85$, $SD= 1.73$) and “they are at the end of their rope” ($M= 1.61$, $SD= 1.60$). In other words, despite suffering from moderate level of emotional exhaustion, instructors do not feel trapped. The reason for this situation might be the fact that teaching offers both close relations with colleagues and students and also positive emotional experiences including joy, hope, excitement, passion and pride (Chang, 2009).

The second dimension of burnout is depersonalization which is simply a negative and callous approach towards others as well as loss of idealism (Maslach, 1999). According to the benchmark range of MBI-ES, English instructors are exhibiting *average* degree of depersonalization ($M= 1.50$ $SD= 1.48$). In the literature, it has been acknowledged that emotional exhaustion which represents the individual stress dimension of burnout is unable to explain all aspects of relation people have with their work (Maslach, 1998). As a reaction to excess emotional exhaustion, individuals’ first response is to protect themselves by using detachment strategy; however, there is a risk of turning detachment into dehumanization (Maslach, 1998). Wood and MacCarthy (2002) pinpoint that as teachers spend the majority of their time interacting with students, not their colleagues who can understand their needs, teaching includes a larger amount of isolation which put teachers at risk of depersonalization. Underlining this isolation and depersonalization, De Heus and Diekstra (1999) express that “classrooms may be crowded yet schools can be lonely places” (p. 284).

When items in the Depersonalization Scale were scrutinized, the highest average mean score belongs to the item that emphasizes the teaching profession is hardening educators emotionally ($M= 2.05$ $SD= 1.94$). Accordingly, it is possible to say that educators are experiencing the feeling of depersonalization *once a month or less*. On the other hand, based on the lowest means score, it can be concluded that they *rarely* feel callous toward people ($M= 0.95$ $SD= 1.51$). This finding is pleasing because excessive detachment causes the individuals to behave clients in negative, callous and dehumanized ways; thus, in the educational context, if teachers are depersonalized, they might develop negative, cynical and callous attitudes toward students or colleagues (Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982). Once teachers are burnout, their attitudes change and depending on this students perceptions of teacher and intrinsic motivation drastically change and this can harm learning and engagement (Shen et al., 2015). Friedman underlines that (1999) students tend to be in need of their teachers’ warmth, closeness, guidance, advice and assistance in order to achieve both professional skills and solve personal/learning problems.

The final dimension of burnout is reduced personal accomplishment which represents one's self evaluation (Maslach, 1999). Individuals who are suffering from reduced personal accomplishment are unhappy and dissatisfied with themselves, with their professional abilities/effectiveness and in the end they lose their confidence (Maslach et al., 2001). In the current study, based on the benchmark range of MBI-ES, EFL instructors are found to be exhibiting *low degree* ($M= 1,63$ $SD= 1.59$) of reduced personal accomplishment. As the Personal Accomplishment Scale has been reversed "low" mean scores represent a potential low level of burnout, resulting from a higher feeling of personal accomplishment. Having evaluated with other dimensions, this finding can be interpreted as the EFL instructors are in a state of transition. In the literature, there are different conceptual models to describe the sequential stages in burnout. Maslach and Leiter (2016) state that first emotional exhaustion appears, and then as a response, if the conditions do not change and emotional exhaustion continues for a while, depersonalization happens. In the end, reduced personal accomplishment which represents feelings of inadequacy and failure appear (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Hence, in the present study even though participants reveal average degrees of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, the last step of burnout, reduced personal accomplishment, has not totally emerged yet. In other words, despite some signs of burnout, the Turkish EFL instructors do not display a severe case of burnout.

A vital finding of the present study is that student-teacher relationship has an important role in teachers' personal accomplishment and this positive relationship might prevent teachers from being burned out. The four items that display the lowest means scores are all related to students and their communication with their teachers. That means student-teacher relationship the instructors are experiencing in this study protects them from the feeling of unaccomplished. Based on the items, it can be concluded that EFL instructors feel they can accomplish to understand students' feelings ($M= 0,92$ $SD= 1.21$), create a relaxed atmosphere ($M= 1,03$ $SD= 1.22$), deal effectively to students' problems ($M= 1,76$ $SD= 1.46$) and they feel exhilarated after working closely with students ($M= 1,39$ $SD= 1.42$). Thus, positive feelings regarding student-teacher relation can be the reason for low personal unaccomplishment among the participants of the present study. This finding is in line with previous studies in the literature (Aloe et al., 2004; Byrne et al., 2013; Chang, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017b). For example, Aloe et al. (2004) conducted a meta-analysis to understand the relationship between students' misbehaviour and teacher burnout and they found that misbehaviour was negatively related to personal accomplishment. Similarly, Vandenberghe

and Huberman (1999) highlight that the student-teacher relationship is the most rewarding aspect of teaching, yet it can also be the cause of emotional draining and discouraging in negative situations. In harmony with the findings of the current study, recently, Corbin, Alamos, Lowenstein and Brown (2019) specifically searched for the role of teacher-student relationships in predicting teachers' personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion, and they found that the relational closeness and conflict were the sources of teachers' personal accomplishment and emotional exhaustion, respectively. Corbin et al. (2019) underlined that when teachers experienced high levels of relational closeness with their students, they were more likely to report feelings and competence in their work; in other words, higher levels of personal accomplishment.

In the PAS, the items that cause EFL instructors to feel unaccomplished are related to not being able to influence other people's lives positively through their profession ($M= 2,30$ $SD= 1.68$) and not being able to accomplish many worthwhile things in their jobs ($M= 2,12$ $SD= 1.74$). Apparently, these two items are parallel, and they indicate that instructors do not feel neither they have accomplished worthwhile things in their jobs, nor they have a positive effect on other people. In the literature, several possible reasons for the feeling of unaccomplished have been listed. First of all, EFL instructors may lack of the feeling of accomplished due to student related factors such as low proficiency and lack of interest/motivation (Akbari & Roudi, 2020; Kyriacou, 2001; Shen et al., 2015; Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021). Students' lack of motivation/ interest to learn English seems to be a reason for teacher burnout. Salahshour and Esmaeili (2021) state that the EFL instructor participated in their study felt anxious and stressed as a result of time and energy they spent to promote the motivation of students. Sometimes the EFL instructors feel under pressure in order to be active and fresh to increase their students' motivation (Salahshour & Esmaeili, 2021). Akbari and Roudi (2020) use the chicken egg relation dilemma to explain the low proficiency and low interest problem. According to them, students' low interest may cause low proficiency, or students' lack of interest may be the reason for their low proficiency and behaviour problems.

Once teacher burnout is the issue, the features of the participant group and the educational context should be taken into consideration. Similar to Salahshour and Esmaeili's study (2021), the participants of the present study are EFL instructors who teach English in EFL contexts. Salahshour and Esmaeili (2021) suggested that students' reluctance to invest in English and students' tendency to see English only as a course to pass the class were detected

as reasons for EFL teachers' burnout. Two different reports published by British Council and TEPAV (2013, 2015) focused on problems related to teaching English in Turkey. These reports express that in the Turkish context where the use of English is only restricted among the classroom walls and the teacher is the only speaker of English around the students, EFL instructors tend to be more stressed because of various responsibilities (British Council & TEPAV, 2013, 2015). In addition, many of preparatory year students start their English classes from the elementary level at university and after years of language education, starting from primary school, they cannot reach higher levels of proficiency (British Council & TEPAV, 2015). The reason for this problem might be traced back to the fact that students do not find learning in English necessary since they cannot use it in their daily lives (British Council & TEPAV, 2013). In line with these reports, Kazımlar and Dollar (2015) underlined that only quarter of the EFL instructors in their study feel they are accomplished, and the rest feel unaccomplished and ineffective.

Moreover, these days, students expect their teachers to know every idiom and expression they come across in the web sites, movies and etc. and they lose their trust in their teachers' qualities when they see any kinds of hesitation in their teachers (Akbari & Roudi, 2020). Thus, it can be concluded that foreign language teachers in a foreign language context (e.g., Turkey) are subject to burnout as they have to overcome various barriers in language education (Pennington & Ho, 1992). This unpleasant fact might also put extra pressure on EFL instructors working at Turkish universities. On the other hand, Güneş and Uysal (2019) put forward that there is a negative correlation between teacher socialization and teacher burnout. In their study, they found out that English instructors who were successfully socialized into their organization revealed lower levels of burnout. That is, teacher socialization might be the reason why Turkish educators do not suffer from serious degrees of burnout.

All in all, in the current study, English instructors revealed average degree of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and low degree of reduced personal accomplishment. This finding can be interpreted as a lack of a severe case of burnout, although EFL instructors showed some signals of burnout especially in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Although this result contradicts with those found by a number of studies (Akbari & Roudi, 2020; Güneş & Uysal, 2019; Lacritz, 2004), it is in line with others (Byrne et al., 2012; Kavanoz & Kırkgöz, 2020; Palice, 2020; Öztürk, 2013). It has been acknowledged that educators are the most valuable and costly aspect of education systems (Maslach & Leiter,

1999). However, related literature put forward that burned out teachers are unable to form student-teacher relation, likely to feel inefficacious, irritated, depressed, and contemptuous as burnout cause them to feel less sympathetic, intolerant and more anxious (Burke et al., 1996; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Kavanoz & Kırkgöz, 2020). Based on research studies conducted by Maslach et al. (1996), especially organizational factors (e.g., participation in decision-making, social support networks) contribute to educators' burnout; thus, organizational factors were focused in this current study. Similar to other stages of education, universities have an important mission, which is making a contribution to the social and economic well-being of countries by educating future researchers, scientists and businesspeople (Kırkgöz, 2013). However, this important mission of universities cannot be achieved without creating a stress-free environment and working conditions for academic staff.

5.3. What is the job satisfaction level of the Turkish EFL instructors at the tertiary level?

In the present study, educators' job satisfaction is conceptualized as "teacher's affective reactions to their work and their teaching role" (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, p. 1061). To gauge educators' job satisfaction, the short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) designed by Weiss et al. (1967) was utilized. The MSQ consists of three scales: Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale (12 items), Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale (6 items) and General Satisfaction Scale (20 items). Responses will be given on a 5-point scale with anchors 'very dissatisfied' (5 points) and 'very satisfied' (1 point) and higher scores represent higher degree of satisfaction. Instead of an overall measurement tool of job satisfaction, the MSQ was preferred as the data collection tool as it provides detailed information about participants' tendencies in terms of various aspects involved in job satisfaction such as creativity, independence, responsibility, etc.

To begin with, the average mean score for satisfaction was calculated to comprehend the general situation in Turkey. The overall data of the present study indicate that Turkish EFL instructors feel *slightly satisfied* with their profession ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .76$). This finding is a bit surprising since most of the research studies in the literature have reported that academics experience high (Al Tayyar, 2014; Byrne et al., 2012; Demirel, 2014b; Malik et al., 2010) or moderate degree of job satisfaction (Amarasena, 2019; Arnold, 2017; Baş &

Ardıç, 2002; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Stankovska et al., 2017; Tahir & Sajid, 2019; Tezcan, 2010).

There might be several reasons for this finding but the most outstanding reason why the English instructors participating in this study were found to feel slightly satisfied might be traced to the fact that these participants are working as instructors at universities. In the great majority of the previous studies, the participants were faculty members such as assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors. However, the participants of the current study are EFL instructors and instructors working at universities are viewed as part of academic staff not faculty members. According to this classification, faculty members can be considered at the top of the academic ladder; on the other hand, academic staff such as instructors and research assistants can be considered at the bottom of the academic ladder (Eyupoglu & Saner, 2009). In his study, Oshagbemi (2003, p. 1216) defined this classification as “academic rank” which is about the job status of an individual and this rank represented academics’ job level or job seniority in a particular occupational classification. Tayfur-Ekmekci et al. (2021) define the working conditions of academic staff as “precarious employment”; in other words, although all faculty members and academic staff have civil servant positions, only professors and associate professors have tenure and job security in Turkey. Thus, academic staff including instructors tend to have relatively higher levels of job insecurity which might cause dissatisfaction (Baş & Ardıç, 2002; Tayfur-Ekmekci et al., 2021). Bilge et al. (2007) examined the factors in job satisfaction of academics in Turkey and they found out that academic status corresponded to higher level of job satisfaction. Hence, the academic status of EFL instructors might be the underlying reason why they feel slightly satisfied but not reveal higher degrees of satisfaction.

The results of this study accord with the findings of other studies which were conducted in different levels of educational setting (Bil, 2018; Köse, 2020). In his master’s thesis, Köse (2020) searched for the relationship between occupational professionalism and job satisfaction of 150 English teachers working at different levels including primary, secondary, and high schools. Teachers were found to have high level of professionalism and be partly glad about their occupation. Among the English teachers in Köse’s study (2020), 40% of them defined job satisfaction as “the spiritual pleasure achieved only in return for work done” yet 60% of the participants defined job satisfaction as “both material gain and moral pleasure in exchange for the work done” (p. 87). During the interview sessions, seven factors affecting job satisfaction of English teachers appeared: student-teacher relationship,

relations with administrators/colleagues, school's physical/social/cultural environment, motivation, salary, and rewards (Köse, 2020). Likewise, Bil (2018) explored relationship among the learning organization, organizational trust and job satisfaction. The participants were 408 teachers working at different types of Anatolian high schools. Bil's study (2018) revealed that teachers feel partly satisfied with their jobs and teachers showed higher intrinsic satisfaction than extrinsic satisfaction.

The job satisfaction literature has improved and become more sophisticated as intrinsic (motivator factors) and extrinsic (hygiene factors) facets of satisfaction emerged (Herzberg, 1966; Scruton, 2013; Weiss et al., 1967). Intrinsic satisfaction is associated with job content or the work itself and involves factors such as independence, creativity, nature of work itself; in contrast, extrinsic satisfaction is associated with job context or the work environment including company policy, supervision, salary, and advancement (Gruneberg, 1979). In the present study, the data revealed that English instructors showed the highest average mean score in *intrinsic satisfaction* ($M= 3.56$, $SD= 0.74$) which can be considered they are *slightly satisfied* with intrinsic factors related to their job. On the other hand, extrinsic satisfaction is associated with factors that are beyond the control of employee; for instance, pay, physical working conditions, job security, supervision, promotion opportunities, etc. (George & Zakkariya, 2018).

In the current study, the average mean score for *extrinsic satisfaction* ($M= 3.15$, $SD= 0.96$) is lower than intrinsic satisfaction which is just above the *neither* option. That is to say, EFL instructors feel *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied* with the extrinsic factors related to their job. Finding that teachers have higher intrinsic satisfaction than extrinsic satisfaction is not surprising since this finding is consistent with previous research (Karavas, 2010; Lam & Yan, 2011; Scott et al., 2001). A substantial body of research has revealed that teachers' job satisfaction emerges as a result of intrinsic factors including the joy of teaching, working with children (Perie & Baker, 1997). When the items in the intrinsic satisfaction dimension are further investigated, it can be observed that the highest mean score in the whole questionnaire belongs to the item "The chance to do things for other people" ($M= 3.88$, $SD= 0.91$). That is to say, EFL instructors feel satisfied with helping students improve themselves, teaching English in this case. This is a pleasing finding since it emphasizes the fact that EFL instructors give the most importance to the development of their students and this aspect of the teaching profession makes them contend and increase their satisfaction. This finding is

consistent with those of earlier research (Demirel, 2014b; Köse, 2020; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). Several researchers pinpoint that the main source of job satisfaction in educators is intrinsic factors including assisting the growth of students, developing good relations, and experiencing self-growth (Karavas, 2010; Lam & Yan, 2011; Scott et al., 2001). Especially student-teacher relationship has been found one of the most powerful factors that affect teacher job satisfaction (Chang, 2009; Köse, 2020; Kyriacou, 2001) because teachers' intrinsic rewards are associated with working with students and following their progress (Polatcan & Cansoy, 2019). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015) emphasize that all the teachers participated in their study on teacher job satisfaction mentioned the joy of teaching/working with children, and the joy of having a meaningful job.

Another facet of intrinsic satisfaction that EFL instructors are satisfied with is *being part of a community* with the second highest mean score in the scale ($M= 3.77$, $SD= 0.99$). For EFL instructors, being a part of a community may have two aspects. The first one is the relationship with colleagues or co-workers which has been defined as a vital issue in the literature (Baluyos et al., 2019; Köse, 2020; Polatcan & Cansoy, 2019). Robbins (2005) claims that a task in an organization occurs because of a group effort rather than an individual effort, thus job satisfaction is connected to how friendly and supportive the co-workers are. The situation is not different in educational organizations. According to Baluyos et al. (2019) unity among teaching staff will provide a significant effect to schools as they will embody the sense of responsibility of their actions. Köse (2020) reported that relationships with administrators and colleagues were the second most repeated response by teachers in his study in terms of factors affecting teachers' job satisfaction. In their systematic review, Polatcan and Cansoy (2019) examined the factors that predicted teachers' job satisfaction based on the data they obtained from twenty-seven different research studies. According to the results of their systematic review, collaboration, creating team spirit, a culture of trust, and sustaining communication/interaction with administrators/other teachers were defined as ways of ensuring teachers' job satisfaction (Polatcan & Cansoy, 2019). Thus, it is possible to say that EFL instructors in the present study feel satisfied with the people they are working with and have a close bond with them.

The second aspect of being part of a community might be related to the social status of working at a university. Even though English instructors might seem at the bottom of the academic ladder, they might still be proud of working at a university or being part of an academic team. Baltacı (2019) tried to define the situation of instructors and concluded that

instructors are stuck somewhere between “quasi academic” and “full time teacher” and they have an interwoven identity of being a teacher and academician. Supporting the findings of the current study, Okay (2018) suggests that being an instructor at a university is commonly regarded more prestigious when compared with being a teacher working in primary, secondary or high school. In their innovative study, Demir, Kapukaya and Özfıdan (2015) investigated the problems EFL instructors encountered in their profession. They put forward that 61% of EFL instructors that participated in their study defined themselves as moderately and highly satisfied. When the EFL instructors were asked the main reasons for career choice, the most common response was “the status of instructors”. That is, according to EFL instructors, working at university is a prestigious status in society. In line with this perception, Safari (2020) reported that EFL instructors working at university had higher satisfaction and lower burnout levels than teachers who work in schools. Accordingly, it can be observed that EFL instructors in this current study have positive feelings regarding their status as academic staff and this positive attitude contributes to their job satisfaction.

In terms of intrinsic factors in the current study, English instructors are satisfied with *creativity* ($M= 3.69$, $SD= 1.08$), *independence* ($M= 3.68$, $SD= 0.95$), *ability utilization* ($M= 3.66$, $SD= 1.11$), and *variety* ($M= 3.48$, $SD= 1.03$) their job provides them. These facets all show very close average mean scores. Spector (1997) clarifies that in the MSQ the nature of work itself is reflected in several facets, including creativity, achievement, independence, variety, and ability utilization. Accordingly, all these four facets that EFL instructors are satisfied with can be considered under the heading of the nature of work itself. Work itself refers to “the extent to which the job provides the individual with stimulating tasks, opportunities for learning and personal growth, and the chance to be responsible and accountable for results” (Robbin et al., 2003, p. 77). In simpler terms, Castillo, and Cano (2004) suggest that work itself is the *content* of the work. In alignment with the current study, researchers have found that the work content/work itself is usually a prominent factor of educators’ job satisfaction (Angı, 2002; Bilge, 2006; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Tahir & Sajid, 2019) because individuals desire creative and challenging work atmosphere (Arnold, 2017) where they can be creative, independent, and have the opportunity the make use of their abilities in various tasks.

Under the umbrella term work itself, EFL instructors in the present study are satisfied with *creativity* ($M= 3.69$, $SD= 1.08$) and *independence* ($M= 3.68$, $SD= 0.95$) facets of their profession. Firestone and Pennell (1993) described schools as ‘loosely coupled

organizations'; that is to say, it is hard to control what is going on inside the classroom. Although there is a fixed curriculum, the EFL instructors are free to use their own way to teach and this gives them chance to be creative and independent which can be regarded as an opportunity to be autonomous. In many developed countries around the world, lack of professional autonomy has been found a salient factor in accounting for teachers' dissatisfaction (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Bellamy et al. (2003) questioned the reasons for academics' intention to stay with their universities in spite of deteriorated working conditions, and they found out that autonomy and flexibility appeared to be the most important factors for becoming academics and remaining in academia. Likewise, in Schulze's study (2006) the majority of items that contributed to the job satisfaction of academic staff were found to be related to independence, autonomy, and creativity such as choosing courses according to their interest; preserving their autonomy; choosing the direction of their own research; being able to continue learning. When there is too much control, instructors may lose the feeling of autonomy and the lack of autonomy was found to be the one of the reasons for job dissatisfaction, stress and burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009, 2015). In agreement with Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015), Baluyos et al. (2019) contented that once heads supervised the teachers very closely, teachers tended to perform less in their job as a result of their unwillingness to be tightly controlled by the heads. As for the *ability utilization* facet, it can be concluded that English instructors feel satisfied with opportunities their job provides them as they can make use of their abilities ($M= 3.66$, $SD= 1.11$). Supporting this idea, Angı (2002) suggests that when individuals are given a chance to use/practice their skills and abilities, their job satisfaction will be likely to promote as they develop.

Two other facets that showed very close mean values to the threshold of *satisfied* option ($M= 3.50$) are *variety* ($M= 3.48$, $SD= 1.03$) and *moral values* ($M= 3.42$, $SD= 1.04$). Based on the variety scores, it can be concluded that English instructors are slightly satisfied with the chance to do different things from time to time. This might be related to the fact that EFL instructors encounter different students every year. Additionally, the dynamic nature of teaching might be one of the reasons for variety as thanks to the teaching profession, teachers experiment new teaching methods or teachers have the freedom to vary their work (Angı, 2002). Another facet that EFL instructors was slightly satisfied was *moral values*. Moral values are about being able to do things that do not go against instructors' conscience. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) call this concept *value consonance* and define it as "the degree

to which teachers felt that they share the prevailing norms and values at school” (p. 369). Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) found a positive relation between value consonance and teachers’ job satisfaction and claimed that value conflicts were mostly related to lack of autonomy and lack of faculty influence (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). In the current study, EFL instructors seem to be slightly satisfied with the match between prevailing educational goals/values and their own educational values and beliefs. According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015), value conflicts may stem from national curriculum, goals and values emphasized at school or problems related to colleagues.

In the Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale, the lowest mean scores belong to items that are related to *responsibility* ($M= 3.26$, $SD= 1.17$) and *authority* ($M= 3.33$, $SD= 0.93$) which can be concluded that English instructors do not feel satisfied with these aspects, instead they are *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied*. Responsibility which denotes the freedom to use EFL instructors’ own judgment revealed the lowest mean score in the intrinsic satisfaction dimension. This finding is not surprising because instructors are not involved in decision-making phase regarding the educational decisions at their universities (Baltacı, 2019; Demir et al., 2015; Tezcan, 2010). Baltacı (2019) suggested that the EFL instructors participated in his study felt unvalued and powerless when they were excluded from decision-making system of their universities. In a similar vein, Demir et al. (2015) highlighted that EFL instructors expected to be seen as the authority in their job and would like to be involved in the decisions on matters affecting them. Likewise, the findings of Tezcan (2010) indicated that freedom of to use one’s own judgment was found to be an important factor for not only intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction but also the organizational commitment of EFL instructors. That is to say, EFL instructors who were more involved in the decision-making process felt more committed and satisfied with their jobs compared with their counterparts who did not (Tezcan, 2010).

Apart from intrinsic factors, there is a need to examine the extrinsic factors in order to comprehend every aspect of job satisfaction. In the present study, the average mean score for extrinsic satisfaction ($M= 3.15$, $SD= 0.96$) is just above the *neither* option. In other words, EFL instructors feel *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied* with the extrinsic factors related to their job. Extrinsic factors are as important as the intrinsic ones since the main reasons for job dissatisfaction are mostly related to extrinsic factors. Lam and Yan (2011) suggest that it is not possible to explain job satisfaction only with teachers’ love of teaching, yet extrinsic factors should also be taken into account such as manageable workloads. In spite of the

motivational power of intrinsic forces, extrinsic factors affect teachers' satisfaction and their desire to remain in this profession (Perie & Baker, 1997).

When extrinsic factors are taken into consideration, the items concerning *supervision* revealed the higher mean scores, but the scores are still between the ranges of *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied* and *satisfied*. Thus, although the participants do not reflect any negative thoughts, they are not really satisfied with the managing style of their supervisor ($M= 3.25$, $SD= 1.22$) and supervisor's competency in decision-making process ($M= 3.28$, $SD= 1.15$). Satisfaction with supervision was one of the strongest predictors of academic staff's overall job satisfaction (Byrne et al., 2012), therefore, lack of supervision might be one of the reasons why EFL instructors do not show higher levels of job satisfaction. In line with the findings of this study, the importance of supervision has been emphasized in many studies in the literature (Baluyos et al., 2019; Baş & Ardiç, 2002; Borkowski, 2009; Byrne et al., 2012; Chan, 2015; Song & Mustafa, 2015; Stankovska et al., 2017). For instance, Baluyos et al. (2019) found out that supervisors and job security were crucial factors in teachers' job satisfaction and teachers need autonomy instead of constant follow-up from their school heads. Tahir and Sajid (2019) claim that rather than pay some other factors including prestige, sense of self-esteem, independent working style and loose supervisory controls make teaching an attractive profession.

Likewise, in their research studies Bogler and Nir (2015) and Byrne et al. (2002) found out that the quality of interaction between educators and their supervisor was found to be one of the most influential predictors of job satisfaction. In Turkish contexts, Demir et al. (2015) reported that when EFL instructors were asked to list the most problematic issues they encountered, managerial problems (ineffective managers, managers' inability to motivate instructors, etc.) were found to be the most frequent response. Related to the supervision facet, English instructors feel *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied* with the way *policies* are put into practice ($M= 3.08$, $SD= 1.12$). Similar to the findings of this study, Eyupoglu and Saner (2009) reported that all academics from different ranks including professors and lecturers indicated dissatisfaction with university policies and practices. This is an expected finding since EFL instructors are generally not involved in the decision-making process in their institutions. Supporting this finding, whether decisions at the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages were made in a collaborative manner or not was questioned, Yaylı (2019) reported that the EFL instructors did not have an influence on policies or practices because most decisions were made by administrators and instructors were expected to abide these

decisions. Hence, it can be concluded that managerial issues such as the relationship between the supervisor, the managing style, and the way company policies put into practice are significant due to their strong effect on job satisfaction.

In the Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale, the lowest mean scores belong to *advancement* ($M= 3.05$, $SD= 1.17$) and *recognition* ($M= 3.09$, $SD= 1.24$) facets. Concerning the advancement facet, it is not surprising to find out that EFL instructors are not satisfied with the chances for advancement in their job. As a consequence of their academic status, EFL instructors do not have any opportunities for promotion. According to the Council of Higher Education, instructors are only supposed to give classes (12 hours compulsory workload) but nothing more (Demir et al., 2015). In fact, Demir et al. (2015) even claimed that instructors were prevented from pursuing a Ph.D. Bilge (2006) stated that academicians who perceived their jobs meaningful, who had opportunities for professional development, and who could assume the responsibility for their jobs were more motivated and experienced less burnout (Bilge, 2006). However, Baltacı (2019) highlighted that EFL instructors could not claim the ownership of an academic identity although they were working in an academic environment; thus, they were not given any opportunities for advancement. Concerning the *recognition* facet, EFL instructors feel *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied* with the praise they get for doing a good job ($M= 3.09$, $SD= 1.24$). In alignment with the findings of the current study, Soleimani and Bolourchi's (2021) study displayed that EFL teachers in Iran feel discouraged when they were criticized for their faults, but never got positive feedback when they performed well. Appreciation is a human need and employees would like to feel appreciated for their good work (Spector, 2006). In harmony with basic human needs, Demir et al. (2015) stated that one of the problems listed by the EFL instructors participated in their study was the need of appreciation. According to Rezaee et al. (2018) once English teachers are valued and praised, their satisfaction and performance rise, and they work harder to maintain or improve their performance. Accordingly, it is possible to conclude that the lack of advancement and recognition might be one of the reasons why EFL instructors feel slightly satisfied with their profession.

In conclusion, the findings of the current study revealed that Turkish EFL instructors feel *slightly satisfied* with their profession. This finding contradicts with findings of a number of previous studies (Al Tayyar, 2014; Amarasena, 2019; Arnold, 2017; Baş & Ardiç, 2002; Byrne et al., 2012; Castillo & Cano, 2004; Demirel, 2014b; Malik et al., 2010; Stankovska et al., 2017; Tahir & Sajid, 2019; Tezcan, 2010); however, in line with the findings of a few

studies (Bil, 2018; Köse, 2020; Tezcan, 2010). In the present study, in alignment with the literature, the intrinsic satisfaction of EFL instructors is higher than their extrinsic satisfaction. The participants show the highest satisfaction with facets related to work itself yet lowest satisfaction with extrinsic factors such as advancement, recognition and the way policies are put into practice. In other words, despite their dissatisfaction with the extrinsic factors (context), they give importance to intrinsic factors (content) especially having the chance to do things for other people. In the Turkish context, the School of Foreign Languages have a significant mission which is preparing students for their future career and contributing their academic skills by teaching them English. In order for EFL instructors to perform better, there is a need to enhance their job satisfaction since it is not possible to expect them to work effectively when they are not satisfied with their jobs (Rezaee et al., 2018).

5.4. What is the nature of the relationship among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction of the Turkish EFL instructors at tertiary level?

In this dissertation, the relationships among three latent constructs, namely organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction of English instructors were examined. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was preferred as a statistical tool as it is an advantageous tool when the constructs are latent, which means these constructs cannot be directly observed (Hoyle, 1995). A two-step approach has been adopted in this study. As for the first step, a measurement model was specified to see the connections between observed variables and their underlying latent variables by means of confirmatory factor analysis (Ho, 2006). Before applying the CFA, all the scores are standardized. Additionally, the scores of the questionnaire items, which belong to the sub-dimensions (NC, AC, CC, EE, DP, PA, IS and ES) of organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction, were averaged so as to turn these sub-dimensions into observed variables of three latent constructs. In order to comprehend how well the collected data correspond with the theoretical model, goodness-of-fit indices were examined, and all the values of the selected fit indices consistently indicated that hypothesized measurement model fits the data well.

This first step, the measurement model, is crucial in SEM studies as it provides an assessment of convergent and discriminant validity (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010) by testing whether items in the questionnaire really measure what they intended to measure. In the measurement model of the current study, affective commitment was found to be the strongest indicator of

organizational commitment with 0.96 factor loading and this finding is in line with literature (Arı, 2021; Bohorquez, 2016; Boylu et al., 2007; Chen, 2008; Töremen & Erol, 2015). It can be concluded that EFL instructors feel emotionally attached to their organizations and their commitment stems mostly from their own desire to stay with the organization (affective commitment) rather than feelings of obligation (normative commitment) or need (continuance commitment). As far as burnout is concerned, emotional exhaustion was found to be the strongest indicator with 0.94 factor loading which is also consistent with the previous studies (Azeem & Nazır, 2008; Byrne et al., 2012; Kavanoz & Kırkgöz, 2020; Öztürk, 2013; Palice 2020). This finding is anticipated as emotional exhaustion is accepted as the core dimension of burnout (Maslach, 1999) and it is the first step of burnout develop in the individuals (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Although the overall burnout scores revealed a lack of a severe case of burnout, it is possible to say that EFL instructors showed some signals of burnout especially in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions. Concerning job satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction was the strongest indicator with 0.88 factor loading; however, the factor loading of intrinsic satisfaction was also very close to the extrinsic satisfaction with a factor loading (0.80). This finding may be an indication of the importance of extrinsic factors as well as intrinsic ones. Even though the majority of teachers' job satisfaction is linked to intrinsic factors (Karavas, 2010; Lam & Yan, 2011; Scott et al., 2001), this dissertation puts forward that extrinsic factors (e.g., supervision, advancement opportunities) were found to be as valid as intrinsic ones in the job satisfaction of the EFL instructors.

As for the second step of SEM, a structural model was specified to investigate the interrelations among latent constructs spontaneously, including the measurement errors. Having defined the model, standard estimates of the model, t-values that give information about the significance of the values and the goodness-of-fit indices were estimated. When the relationship among the latent variables is considered, the generated model by SEM revealed that there is a mediocre negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout (-0.47) (Hypothesis 1). In addition, based on the R^2 values, it was found out that organizational commitment explained 22% variance of burnout. That is to say, the findings of the hypothesized structural model revealed that as the EFL instructors are more committed to their organization, they are less likely to suffer from burnout. This result accords with the findings of Akdemir's (2019); Bohorquez's (2016); Palice's (2020); and Tezcan's (2010)

which indicated a significantly negative relationship between organizational commitment and burnout.

Another researcher who discovered the negative relationship between teachers' burnout levels and organizational commitment was Akdemir (2019). According to her findings, Akdemir (2019) emphasized that teachers' perceptions related to organizational commitment had an important place as a predictor of teachers' perceptions of burnout. Additionally, Karakus et al. (2014) claimed that the direction of the relationship between organizational commitment and burnout showed mixed results in the literature and after testing some models they reached the conclusion that it is more reasonable to think that burnout is the consequence of organizational commitment. Therefore, Karakus et al. (2014) concluded that committed faculty members are less likely to suffer from emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Likewise, Bohorquez (2016) mentioned the antecedent-outcome dilemma between organizational commitment and burnout and then reported that organizational commitment is an antecedent of burnout syndrome in Colombian faculty members. In accordance with the findings of the current study, the results of Bohorquez's study indicated a strong negative correlation between three dimensions of organizational commitment and the two burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Palice (2020) stated that especially affective commitment had a strong effect on organizational commitment, and it was determined that as the affective commitment levels of academics increased, their perception of professional burnout decreased. From a different perspective, it can be concluded that as individuals' burnout increases, their desire to internalize and integrate the goals and values of the organization or to make meaningful contributions to the organization, in other words, their affective commitment decreases. Consequently, based on the results of the present study and reviewed literature, it can be implied that English instructors with organizational commitment will be more resistant to burnout than their counterparts who are not committed to their organizations.

The hypothesized model put forward that there is a strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (0.61) (Hypothesis 2), and it was found out that organizational commitment had a total effect of 0.74 on job satisfaction. In addition, based on the R^2 values, it could be concluded that organizational commitment and burnout explained 59% variance of job satisfaction. In other words, the findings of the hypothesized structural model indicated that the more committed the EFL instructors are to their

organization, the more satisfied they are likely to feel with their jobs. It is observed that the results of this study show similarities with studies of Arı (2021); Arslan (2019); Bogler and Nir (2014); Chen (2008); Farris (2012); Kamaylar (2018); Malik et al. (2010); Mathieu and Zajac, (1990); Nagar (2012); Tezcan (2010). Some of the studies signified that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of organizational commitment (Malik et al., 2010; Nagar, 2012) yet others suggested that organizational commitment is a predictor of burnout (Arı, 2021; Arslan, 2019; Chen, 2008; Kamaylar, 2018; Tezcan, 2010). In the current study, organizational commitment was identified as the predictor of job satisfaction since Mowday et al. (1982) claimed that organizational commitment develops slowly over time, yet job satisfaction shows more immediate reactions to particular aspects of work, thus organizational commitment is more stable than job satisfaction. In accordance with the findings of the present study, Malik et al. (2010) searched for organizational commitment and job satisfaction of academics in Pakistan and reported a significant positive relationship between these constructs. They also underlined that higher education is not immune to the problem of low satisfaction. The results of Malik et al.'s study revealed that academics' satisfaction with work-itself, quality of supervision and pay had a significant positive effect on organizational commitment of academics. Similarly, Nagar (2012) pinpointed that very little research has been conducted on the factors that enhanced job satisfaction and the subsequent effect of higher job satisfaction on the commitment of educators toward their institutions. The findings of Nagar's study (2012) proved that when teachers are satisfied with their job, they tend to be happy and show a stronger will to work harder and become more effective and successful in their profession. This feeling of satisfaction promotes the feeling of commitment toward the organization; therefore, teachers with high satisfaction are more likely to indicate higher level of organizational commitment. (Nagar, 2012).

In the Turkish context, Arı (2021) found out a significant positive relationship between teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, he has concluded that affective, normative and continuance commitment showed a significant relationship with job satisfaction, therefore, teachers' organizational commitment was a predictor of job satisfaction. Likewise, Tezcan (2010) searched for the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of English instructors working at state and foundation universities. Her findings indicated that there was a moderate relationship between overall job satisfaction and commitment of instructors and also organizational commitment was found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Tezcan (2010) claimed that a strong commitment would

increase job satisfaction and at the same time it would also have a positive effect on dissatisfaction. In line with the previous studies, the findings of the current study revealed that organizational commitment and job satisfaction were closely related to each other. Once the EFL instructors feel committed to their universities, they also felt satisfied with their profession. This result is important because teachers' satisfaction is highly related to performance, school success and well-being of teachers at work and it has a direct effect on teachers' commitment to their profession (Caprara et al., 2006), thus both teacher commitment and satisfaction are accepted as vital factors to organizational success (Bogler & Nir, 2015).

Finally, the hypothesized structural model revealed a negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction (-0.27) (Hypothesis 3). That is to say, the model indicated that the more burned out the EFL instructors feel, the less satisfied they are likely to feel with their jobs. This finding is also anticipated because Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) stated that previous studies using MBI indicated that job satisfaction is negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization yet weakly correlated with personal accomplishment. The findings of the current study accord with the findings of Atila's (2014); Atmaca's (2017); Bilge's (2006); Güneş et al.'s (2009); Koustelios and Tsigilis' (2005); Nagar's (2012); Samadi et al. (2020); Skaalvik and Skaalvik's (2009, 2011) which indicated a significantly negative relationship between teacher burnout and job satisfaction.

The relationship between burnout and job satisfaction has attracted researchers' attention since the beginning of the 1990s. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) analysed this relationship and found a negative correlation. They reported that depersonalization had the highest correlation with job satisfaction followed by emotional exhaustion and personal achievement; moreover, intrinsic factors seemed to correlate more highly to job satisfaction than extrinsic factors. Accordingly, it can be said that all the dimensions of job satisfaction and burnout are related to each other. Recently, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009, 2010, 2011, 2015, 2017a, 2017b) conducted several research studies on the effect of different variables on burnout and job satisfaction of teachers and the interplays among them. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) suggested that teachers' job satisfaction was directly (job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion/reduced personal accomplishment) and indirectly related to teacher burnout. According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011), teacher job satisfaction was the strongest predictor of motivation to leave the teaching profession and they underlined that

studies in various cultural settings proved that teacher burnout predicts health, motivation and job satisfaction of teachers.

In Turkish contexts, Atila (2014) searched for the burnout and job satisfaction levels of 40 English teachers (K-12 level) and 40 EFL instructors working at a state university. In accordance with the findings of the present study, she reported that burnout was negatively correlated with the dimensions of job satisfaction, which means if the job satisfaction of these educators were increased, they would be less likely to suffer from burnout in the future. In her comprehensible study, Atila (2014) emphasized that job satisfaction and burnout were among the significant factors deteriorating the quality of education. Atila (2014) suggested that regarding the negative working conditions in Turkey (e.g., crowded classes, inefficient physical conditions, lack of technical devices, etc.), teachers needed more support so that they could experience less burnout, be successful and increase their job satisfaction. Similarly, Atmaca (2017), who found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and burnout out of English teachers, opined that English teachers experiencing burnout as a result of administrative occupational, professional or personal issues. She used the analogy of a see-saw to describe the relationship between these two constructs: a see-saw has two ends and when one side goes up, the other goes down. Similar to a see-saw when burnout level increases, job satisfaction decreases or vice versa (Atmaca, 2017). Accordingly, in accordance with the research, the generated SEM model in the present study showed that when Turkish EFL instructors experience higher degree of burnout, they feel less satisfied with their jobs. This finding is meaningful once the responses of previous research questions (1 and 2) are considered. That is, the English instructors participated in this study revealed moderate level of burnout in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions, which might be reason for why they exhibited lower level of satisfaction than expected.

In educational context, another study which searched for the relationship among burnout, organizational commitment and job satisfaction was conducted by Nagar (2012). This study is important as it was the first attempt to develop and test a model for burnout and its effect on job satisfaction and the subsequent effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. The participants were 153 academics working at an Indian university. Three questionnaires were utilized as data collection tools. The results of the proposed model indicated that job satisfaction was a significant predictor of academics' commitment to their organization. Additionally, all dimensions of burnout led to decreased job satisfaction. Finally, higher levels of job satisfaction contributed to the organizational commitment of

academics. Different from the participants of the current study, Nagar's participants were not language instructors and they were all working at the same university. The findings of Nagar's study support the notion that all these three constructs are linked, and they affect each other in positive and negative ways. Nagar (2012) underlines that academics are a valuable resource of educational institutes and thus management should invest in both physical and mental environment of academics to boost the quality of service.

In sum, this study attempted to generate and test a model for organizational commitment, burnout of job satisfaction of EFL instructors. The results verified the hypothesized model and showed that there is a strong and positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, whereas there is a negative mediocre relationship between organizational commitment and burnout. Furthermore, burnout is weakly and negatively related to job satisfaction. The SEM analysis also revealed that the model has a good fit to the data, which means the hypothesized relations were significant, and these three constructs significantly affected each other at a considerable level. Finding that the hypothesized model is working proves that these three latent constructs are related to each other in the Turkish context. The detailed information can be used to interpret job-related feelings and wellbeing of Turkish EFL instructors who can be considered the main actors in the language learning adventure of students at the tertiary level.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This final chapter of the dissertation summarizes the study and presents the most important findings related to Turkish EFL instructors' organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction. The practical implications and suggestions for further research are also discussed.

6.1. Summary of the Study

This present study had two main aims. The first one was to report the English instructors' organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction levels at the tertiary level in the Turkish context in order to report the general situation in the country. The second one was to investigate the possible direct and indirect relationships among these constructs through the use of structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM was preferred since it is an advantageous scientific method of hypothesis testing to enhance one's understanding of the complex relations among the constructs by testing theoretical models (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). This dissertation adopted a quantitative research design and benefitted from three validated scales which were Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES), and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The researcher tried to reach the great majority of the universe which was 5000 EFL instructors working at the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages. An online questionnaire link was sent to the e-mail addresses of 4.000 EFL instructors, which were obtained from the websites of their universities. In addition to the directly sent e-mails, 400 online questionnaires were sent to English instructors through the directors of preparatory schools and professional contacts. Therefore, the online questionnaire was estimated to reach

approximately 4.400 English instructors in Turkey. At the end of the data collection procedure, 426 online responses were gathered from EFL instructors from (at least) 98 different universities, which means the return rate for the online questionnaire was roughly 10%.

As for organizational commitment, the overall data revealed that Turkish EFL instructors were slightly committed to their organizations; in other words, although they accepted the values of their organizations, they still preserved their own personal values. Concerning the components of organizational commitment, EFL instructors were found to experience moderate level of affective and continuous commitment but had neutral feelings related to normative commitment. This finding was intriguing as the most desirable order is to have high affective commitment, followed by normative and continuance commitment, respectively (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In line with the literature, the strongest kind of commitment was affective commitment which signified that English instructors were emotionally attached to their organizations and tended to stay with their organizations because they wanted to. This finding was pleasing as affective commitment is the most desirable component and EFL instructors agreed that they felt like part of the family in their organizations and tended to spend the rest of their career with their organizations. In contrast to previous research, Turkish EFL instructors indicated higher continuous commitment than normative commitment. Once the possible reasons for the discrepancy were explored, several possible reasons emerged such as the low academic status of instructors and scarcity of alternative job opportunities in Turkey. Concerning normative commitment, although English instructors indicated some amount of loyalty to their organizations, they were reluctant to agree on the idea that they owed a great deal to their organizations and they were found to be indecisive in leaving their organization when it was to their advantage. The reason why EFL instructors revealed lower levels of normative commitment than anticipated might be traced to the fact that they were not content with the people they were working with. Considering this finding, it could be concluded that EFL instructors' commitment was affected by problems related to collegial support and managerial problems.

Regarding burnout, the findings put forward that Turkish EFL instructors were experiencing average degree of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, but low degree of reduced personal accomplishment. The highest mean score of burnout belonged to emotional exhaustion dimension, and EFL instructors were experiencing the feeling of used up and drained once a week; however, they rarely experienced negative feelings such as fatigue,

frustration, and being trapped. This finding was in accordance with the literature which emphasized that teaching is one of the most stressful professions because of the interpersonal nature of classroom yet this unique nature of teaching is also the most rewarding aspect (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). In terms of depersonalization dimension, participants were suffering from depersonalization once a month or less, but they rarely felt callous toward people. This finding was pleasing since depersonalized teachers can develop negative and cynical attitudes towards students, which may harm learning and engagement in the classroom (Shen et al., 2015). As for the last dimension of burnout, the EFL instructors did not seem to suffer from reduced personal accomplishment because the positive student-teacher relationship protected them from being burned out, but the participants were not content with the amount of effect they had on other people's lives. According to literature, the possible reasons for this problem might stem from not being able to take part in decision-making process or student related problems such as low proficiency, lack of motivation, and the challenge of being a language instructor in an EFL setting (Chan, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017b). All in all, this study revealed that English instructors showed some signs of burnout but there was a lack of a severe case. In addition, in harmony with the literature, it could be concluded that the close relations with colleagues and students, and the positive emotional experiences that were results of these positive relations hinder the feeling of being burned out.

Concerning job satisfaction, EFL instructors were slightly satisfied with their profession. When different aspects of job satisfaction were questioned, it was clear that participants were satisfied with the majority of intrinsic factors related to the work itself (content) including teaching English, being part of a community, creativity, independence/autonomy, being able to use their abilities, and variety. This finding was in line with literature as the majority of studies highlight that teachers' job satisfaction stemmed mostly from intrinsic factors such as good relations, students' growth, the joy of teaching and working with children (Karavas, 2010; Lam & Yan, 2011; Perie & Baker, 1997; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). However, the participants did not show any positive or negative tendency in terms of responsibility and authority aspects of intrinsic satisfaction. In other words, they felt neutral regarding issues about their role in decision-making processes. As for extrinsic satisfaction, EFL instructors were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with supervision, advancement opportunities, recognition, and the way policies put into practice. Accordingly, it can be concluded that extrinsic factors which were related to the context of work were the main reasons why EFL

instructors did not reveal higher degrees of satisfaction with their profession. In accordance with the findings of intrinsic aspects, items related to extrinsic aspects revealed that English instructors had higher expectancies about supervision, advancement, recognition, and involvement in decision-making processes. In a nutshell, it is possible to say that in spite of instructors' dissatisfaction with extrinsic factors, they felt satisfied with intrinsic factors which involved the main elements of being a teacher.

So as to examine the relationships among organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction of Turkish EFL instructors a two-step approach had been adopted. Firstly, a measurement model was specified to provide the link between the scores of the measurement instruments and the underlying constructs they were designed to measure. Secondly, having ensured the reliability and validity of the measurement tools, a structural model was specified to investigate interrelations among latent constructs spontaneously, including the measurement errors. Standard estimates, t-values and goodness of fit indices were used to examine the relations. The hypothesized model put forward that there was a strong, positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, yet there was a negative mediocre relationship between organizational commitment and burnout. Finally, there was a weak, negative relationship between burnout and job satisfaction. That is to say, as the EFL instructors are more committed to their organizations, they are less likely to suffer from burnout. Moreover, the more committed the EFL instructors to their organization, the more satisfied they are likely to feel. In addition, the model revealed that the more burned out the EFL instructors feel, the less satisfied they are likely to be with their jobs. Considering the R^2 values, it was found out that organizational commitment explained 22% variance of the burnout; organizational commitment and burnout explained 59% variance of job satisfaction; organizational commitment had a total effect of 0.74 on job satisfaction. Thus, the hypothesized relations were found to be significant, and organizational commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction significantly affected each other at a considerable level.

6.2. Implications

This study provides some implications for educational administrators of the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages, senior administrators of universities, policymakers, and researchers. Having investigated English instructors' organizational

commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction, it is obvious that there is a need for improvement for some issues. Even though the English instructors participated in this study were emotionally attached to their organizations and tended to stay with their organizations due to their own desire, they were not content with the managerial style of their organizations. The major reason might be related to the quality of administrative staff. In Turkish universities, directors of the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages need to have an academic title, thus, academicians from other faculties are usually authorized as directors, and these academics do usually not have much experience in language learning/teaching. Hence, this situation makes it difficult for English instructors to get contact with the directors and reach a consensus on educational issues. In order to provide a healthy and stress-free environment where English instructors feel valued and understood, it might be better to assign the directors of Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages from language-related faculties. Additionally, based on the questionnaires, the managerial style of administrative staff is one of the determinant factors in English instructors' commitment and job satisfaction. In line with the literature, it can be said that adopting a participative, transparent, fair and democratic managerial style in the management of universities might promote commitment and satisfaction of instructors.

Another problem that English instructors were faced with is not being involved in the decision-making processes, and this situation seemed to harm their commitment and job satisfaction. In order to increase the instructors' commitment to universities, they may be given the right to take part in at least the teaching-related decisions. Holding some meetings at the beginning, during, and the end of each semester can give instructors some opportunities to express their ideas. Another way might be implementing questionnaires about the education, testing, materials, and managerial style. As English instructors are the ones who will implement the programme throughout the academic year, they would like to hear their own voices in the curriculum, material development, and testing. In addition, some different boards such as book evaluation board might be created for involving instructors in decision-making process because they are not satisfied with the amount of responsibility, authority, and autonomy they are given. This kind of teamwork can also foster collegial relations as instructors mostly work in isolation in their classrooms and contact students much more than their colleagues.

The findings of the study in hand put forward that English instructors enjoyed their profession since they liked the idea of positively affecting students' lives yet the lack of

recognition of their success was another key issue that instructors were not satisfied with. In most Turkish universities, especially in state universities, there is no mechanism which recognizes instructors' success. In some of the foundation universities, successful instructors get higher payment, but it is not a common implementation. Giving some certificates or other symbolic rewards to successful English instructors can increase their motivation and help them feel valued and respected. Furthermore, English instructors may be invited to the meetings where the language policy, objectives of preparatory classes are discussed to understand the rationale behind the decisions taken by the university board.

The results of this study indicated that English instructors participated in this study were satisfied with being part of a community, working at a university in this case. However, they were not satisfied with the advancement opportunities owing to the rank/status of English instructors. In most Turkish universities, instructors are considered at the bottom of the academic ladder and not given an opportunity to pursue a Ph.D. Even after they completed their Ph.D., it is not very likely to have a permanent position of assistant professor for an EFL instructor. Instead of restraining EFL instructors' desire to improve themselves, it could be more motivating and beneficial for organizations to support their academic staff in various ways such as arranging an off-day for their academic studies. At the end of the day, having a well-trained academic staff will improve the quality of education given in the Schools/Department of Foreign Languages.

In a similar vein, despite the fact that English instructors participated in the present study were content with several aspects of their profession including independence, ability utilization, variety, and creativity, they were not satisfied with professional development opportunities. In most universities, English instructors do not have any opportunities to attend educational events such as workshops, conferences, and seminars due to time restrictions, heavy workload, and budget constraints. However, when instructors are not given enough professional development opportunities, they may feel out-of-date, monotonous, and eventually burned out. Today university students belong to generation Z and they have different interests and needs from previous generations. Accordingly, English instructors might need some new educational ideas to get better contact with their students. For instance, as generation Z is very familiar with the use of technology, English instructors may need some support in order to improve their technological knowledge such as integrating social media in English classes. Briefly, English instructors should be given the opportunity to attend professional development activities according to their needs to

overcome the difficulties they encounter and reduce the stress they feel. A need analysis can be conducted by the directors of Foreign Languages and experts might be invited to assist instructors about the problematic subject areas.

Lack of job opportunities was another factor that deteriorated English instructors' commitment. Except for the metropolitan cities of Turkey (e.g., Ankara, İstanbul and İzmir), there is one or at most two universities in most of the cities. In order to be attained as English instructors, teachers have to pass several exams and when instructors would like to work at another university, they need to take all the exams again. This makes it difficult to resign from a university and start working at another one. The Council of Higher Education might develop an exchange programme for instructors. Thanks to an exchange programme, it might be possible for English instructors to work at a different university temporarily or permanently. Once there is a scarcity of job alternatives, instructors have to continue working at the same organization in spite of their problems and this feeling of being trapped might cause burnout and degrade the quality of education. Thus, new legal regulations might be made to foster the mobility of English instructors across the country.

The well-being of English instructors is a very complex issue that involves many work-related feelings and attitudes. These feelings and attitudes (commitment, burnout, and job satisfaction) of English instructors are the elephant in the room and are mostly ignored in the research studies. This research study is based on the premise that all these constructs are affecting each other in positive and negative ways. To increase the quality of education, the educators need to be willing to do more than their job description, and this can be managed by increasing organizational commitment. These findings of the study signify that if a university aims to enhance instructors' commitment, they can search for ways to increase job satisfaction. Another important concept which harms not only instructors and their colleagues but also the students and the organization as a whole is burnout. This study put forward the negative relation between organizational commitment and burnout, hence, strategies to diminish burnout can be benefitted to protect instructors from being burned out, and also to enhance their commitment. Maslach and Leiter (2017) emphasize that it is cheaper and easier to prevent burnout before it emerges because it is costly and time consuming to treat individuals after they suffer from burnout. Moreover, in order for organizations to thrive, prevention of burnout is not enough, but there is a need to foster work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2009) which can be defined as the positive antithesis of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2017). Therefore, raising awareness about engagement might be

a solution to fight against negative feelings towards job. Finally, based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that preventing burnout may promote job satisfaction. Previous studies underline that satisfied instructors tend to be physically and psychologically healthier and more successful. The most valuable and costly aspect of education systems are people who are teaching. Especially instructors working at universities have great importance as they have a significant role in their students' success in learning English which will affect their following education in their faculties and work life after graduation, thus, it is crucial to maintain the well-being of English instructors.

In a nutshell, based on the findings of the current study, it is possible to make some suggestions to policymakers, researchers, the Council of Higher Education (YOK), senior administrators of universities, educational administrators of Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages, and English instructors:

- The directors of the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages should be assigned from language-related faculties.
- The directors of the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages should adopt a participative, transparent, fair, and democratic managerial style.
- English instructors working at the tertiary level should be involved in the decision-making processes in their organizations.
- A recognition mechanism needs to be developed either by the Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages or the Council of Higher Education to reward English instructors' success.
- Academic studies of English instructors need to be supported by their colleagues, supervisors, and the Council of Higher Education.
- The Schools/Departments of Foreign Languages should organize educational events such as workshops, conferences, and seminars according to the needs of their instructors.
- The Council of Higher Education should develop exchange programmes (such as Mevlana) to increase English instructors' mobility.
- Researchers in the field of education should conduct more studies that are focusing on the well-being and job-related feelings of instructors.
- Finally, English instructors should be more aware of the importance of their role in the future of Turkish youth and try to find more ways to improve themselves.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research

As this research aims to report the general situation in the country, there is a need to reach high numbers of participants, thus, a quantitative design was adopted. In future studies, qualitative dimensions of main variables may also be searched to reach English instructors' feelings and ideas by using interview sessions. To listen to English instructors' work-related feelings from their own words can change researchers' perspectives. Furthermore, a similar study might be conducted with teachers from others stages of education (e.g., primary school) since they have dissimilar working conditions. Additionally, as the main constructs are complex by nature, different structural equation models can be created to test the different relations. Finally, since the working conditions and status of instructors may differ in state and foundation universities, comparative studies may be carried out to examine the similarities and differences of the instructors' work-related feelings.

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APPENDICES



Appendix 1. Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen, Meyer & Smith, 1993)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
2. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
3. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
5. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
6. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
8. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
9. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
10. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
11. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
12. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
13. This organization deserves my loyalty.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
14. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
15. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
16. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
17. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

Appendix 2. Components of Organizational Commitment Scale

Items measuring 'Affective Commitment'
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. 2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. 3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (RS) 4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (RS) 5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (RS) 6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
Items measuring 'Continuance Commitment'
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. 8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. 9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. 10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. 11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. 12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
Items measuring 'Normative Commitment'
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (RS) 14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. 15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. 16. This organization deserves my loyalty. 17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. 18. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Note: RS refers to reverse-coded items

Appendix 3. Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (Maslach, Jackson & Schwab, 1996)

HOW OFTEN							
	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
3. I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
4. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
5. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
6. I can easily understand how my students feel about things.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
7. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
8. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
9. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
10. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
11. I feel burned out from my work.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
12. I don't really care what happens to some students.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
13. I feel very energetic.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
14. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
15. I feel frustrated by my job.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
16. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
17. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
18. I feel students blame me for some of their problems.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
22. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

Appendix 4. Dimensions of Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey

Items measuring “Emotional Exhaustion”
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work. 2. I feel used up at the end of the workday. 3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job. 4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me. 5. I feel burned out from my work. 6. I feel frustrated by my job. 7. I feel I'm working too hard on my job. 8. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me. 9. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.
Items measuring “Personal Accomplishment”
10. I can easily understand how my students feel about things. 11. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students. 12. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work. 13. I feel very energetic. 14. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students. 15. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students. 16. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job. 17. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.
Items measuring “Depersonalization”
18. I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal 'objects'. 19. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job. 20. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally. 21. I don't really care what happens to some students. 22. I feel students blame me for some of their problems.

Appendix 5. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Short Version) (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1977)

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. The chance to work alone on the job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. The chance to be 'somebody' in the community	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. The way my boss handles his man	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. The chance to do things for other people	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. The chance to tell other people what to do	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. The way company policies are put into practice	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. The chances for advancement on this job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. The working conditions	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Appendix 6. Aspects of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Items measuring “Intrinsic Satisfaction”
1. Being able to keep busy all the time 2. The chance to work alone on the job 3. The chance to do different things from time to time 4. The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community 7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience 8. The way my job provides for steady employment 9. The chance to do things for other people 10. The chance to tell other people what to do 11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities 15. The freedom to use my own judgment 16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job 20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job
Items measuring “Extrinsic Satisfaction”
5. The way my boss handles his man 6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions 12. The way company policies are put into practice 13. My pay and the amount of work I do 14. The chances for advancement on this job 19. The praise I get for doing a good job
Items measuring “General Satisfaction”
All of the 20 items above are used estimating the general satisfaction.

Appendix 7. A Sample E-mail Sent to the Participants

2017-01-30 23:34 GMT+03:00 Gülnihal Şakrak <

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Değerli Meslektaşlarım,

Doktora tez çalışmamda Türkiye'de görev yapmakta olan İngilizce Okutmanlarının meslekleri ve çalıştıkları kuruma yönelik duygularını araştırmaktayım. Katılımınız mesleki sorunlarının ortaya çıkarılması bağlamında katkı sağlayacaktır.

Aşağıdaki linkten ankete ulaşabilirsiniz.

<http://www.anket.im/index.php/185147?lang=en>



Appendix 8. Ethics Committee Permission

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 17/04/2017-E.56531



T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Etik Komisyonu



Sayı : 77082166-302.08.01-
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 13/02/2017 tarihli ve 80287700-302.08.01- 22331 sayılı yazı.

İlgi yazınız ile göndermiş olduğunuz, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı **Doktora Öğrencisi Gülnihal ŞAKRAK EKİN'in, Doç.Dr.Cem BALÇIKANLI'nın** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "*Üniversitelerde Görev Yapan İngilizce Okutmanlarının Örgütsel Bağlılık, Tükenmişlik ve İş Tatmini Arasındaki İlişki*" adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun 11.04.2017 tarih ve 04 sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

İlgilinin çalışmasının yapılması planlanan tüm Üniversitelerden izin alınması koşuluyla yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiş ve karara ilişkin imza listesi ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Alper CEYLAN
Komisyon Başkanı

Araştırma Kod No : 2017-151

Ek:1 Liste

anner

Appendix 9. Organizations of Participants

1. Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi
2. Adana Bilim ve Teknoloji Üniversitesi
3. Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi
4. Ahi Evran Üniversitesi
5. Akdeniz Üniversitesi
6. Aksaray Üniversitesi
7. Altınbaş Üniversitesi
8. Amasya Üniversitesi
9. Anadolu Üniversitesi
10. Ankara Sosyal Bilimler Üniversitesi
11. Ankara Üniversitesi
12. Ardahan Üniversitesi
13. Atatürk Üniversitesi
14. Atılım Üniversitesi
15. Bartın Üniversitesi
16. Batman Üniversitesi
17. Beykent Üniversitesi
18. Bilgi Üniversitesi
19. Bilim Üniversitesi
20. Bilkent Üniversitesi
21. Bingöl Üniversitesi
22. Bitlis Eren Üniversitesi
23. Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
24. Bozok Üniversitesi
25. Bursa Teknik Üniversitesi
26. Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi
27. Çağ Üniversitesi
28. Çankaya Üniversitesi
29. Çankırı Karatekin Üniversitesi
30. Çukurova Üniversitesi
31. Dicle Üniversitesi
32. Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi
33. Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
34. Dumlupınar Üniversitesi
35. Düzce Üniversitesi
36. Ege Üniversitesi
37. Erciyes Üniversitesi
38. Erzincan Üniversitesi
39. Fatih Sultan Mehmet Üniversitesi
40. Fırat Üniversitesi
41. Galatasaray Üniversitesi
42. Gazi Üniversitesi
43. Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi
44. Hacettepe Üniversitesi
45. Hasan Kalyoncu Üniversitesi
46. Işık Üniversitesi
47. İnönü Üniversitesi
48. İstanbul Üniversitesi
49. İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi
50. İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi
51. İstanbul Gelişim Üniversitesi
52. İstanbul Kültür Üniversitesi
53. İstanbul Medeniyet Üniversitesi
54. İstanbul Şehir Üniversitesi
55. İstanbul Yeni Yüzyıl Üniversitesi
56. İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi
57. İzmir Yüksek Teknoloji Üniversitesi
58. Kadir Has Üniversitesi
59. Kafkas Üniversitesi
60. Karabük Üniversitesi

61. Karadeniz Teknik Üniversitesi
62. Karamanoğlu Mehmet Bey Üniversitesi
63. Karatay Üniversitesi
64. Kastamonu Üniversitesi
65. Katip Çelebi Üniversitesi
66. Kocatepe Üniversitesi
67. Koç Üniversitesi
68. Maltepe Üniversitesi
69. Marmara Üniversitesi
70. Medipol Üniversitesi
71. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi
72. Mersin Üniversitesi
73. Muş Alparslan Üniversitesi
74. Namık Kemal Üniversitesi
75. Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli Üniversitesi
76. Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi
77. Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi
78. Osman Gazi Üniversitesi
79. Özyeğin Üniversitesi
80. Pamukkale Üniversitesi
81. Sabancı Üniversitesi
82. Sakarya Üniversitesi
83. Selçuk Üniversitesi
84. Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi
85. Sinop Üniversitesi
86. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi
87. Sütçü İmam Üniversitesi
88. TED Üniversitesi
89. Toros Üniversitesi
90. Trakya Üniversitesi
91. Türk Hava Kurumu Üniversitesi
92. Uludağ Üniversitesi
93. Uşak Üniversitesi
94. Üsküdar Üniversitesi
95. Yalova Üniversitesi
96. Yaşar Üniversitesi
97. Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi
98. Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi



GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR...