

**T.C.
BAHÇEŞEHİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ**

**TELEWORK AS A TYPE OF FLEXIBLE WORKING: JOB
SATISFACTION IMPLEMENTATION**

Master's Thesis

EMRECAN ÖZDEMİR

İSTANBUL, 2021

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BAHÇEŞEHİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ**

**GRADUATE SCHOOL
MBA PROGRAM**

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Thesis Advisor: Dr. Ender Emre Kanaat

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T.C.
BAHCESEHIR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL

MASTER’S THESIS APPROVAL FORM

Program Name:	Master of Business Administration
Student's Name and Surname:	Emrehan Özdemir
Name of The Thesis:	Telework As A Type Of Flexible Working: Job Satisfaction Implementation
Thesis Defense Date:	25/06/2021

This thesis has been approved by the Graduate School which has fulfilled the necessary conditions as a Master’s thesis.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Burak KÜNTAY
Institute Director

This thesis was read by us, quality and content as a Master's thesis has been seen and accepted as sufficient.

	Title/Name	Signature
Thesis Advisor's	Dr. E. Emre Kanaat	
Member's	Dr. Hakan Aslan	
Member's	Dr. P. Tuğçe Aslan	

PREFACE OF ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Flexible working means working in a way that goes beyond the usual working order in terms of time and/or working from a place outside the workplace. Tele working, which is a type of flexible working, means flexibility in terms of space. According to studies conducted in recent years, remote work positively affects the job satisfaction of the employees. One of the reasons for this positive effect is that the employee can experience more job satisfaction since the possible unfavorable conditions of the working environment are not reflected on the employee. It may bring results such as higher job satisfaction of the employee, trust in their managers, and higher performance; These results can also affect the performance of the organization. Considering the previous statement, it can be argued that job satisfaction is related to organizational performance.

In addition to the fact that the number of studies examining job satisfaction in institutions during the pandemic period is low, it is noteworthy that the number of studies that deal with remote working as a type of flexible working and distance education is even less. The importance of this study lies at this point, and it is aimed to contribute to the few studies in question.

Regarding my thesis, I would like to thank my thesis advisor, Mr. Dr. Ender Emre Kanaat, for his valuable help and support during my studies.

I also want to thank my wife, Deniz. She always motivated me to accomplish this study. Her support during the whole research was invaluable to me.

İstanbul, 2021

Emrecañ Özdemiř

ABSTRACT

TELEWORK AS A TYPE OF FLEXIBLE WORKING: JOB SATISFACTION IMPLEMENTATION

Emrecaan Özdemir

MBA Program

Thesis Supervisor: Dr. Ender Emre Kanaat

May 2021, 99 Pages

In the study I have done, the issue of job satisfaction has been discussed during the pandemic period and considering the way of working remotely. The study was supported by the questionnaire, and the differences between the job satisfaction of the people and the factors related to this satisfaction were examined according to demographic factors such as the age, gender, and educational status of the people who participated in the survey.

In my study, considering the scope of remote work during the pandemic period, data on the demographic characteristics and job satisfaction of these people working in different business lines, different statuses, and ages in 19 provinces throughout Turkey were collected. Reliability analyzes of the data obtained as a result of the survey were made, and then exploratory factor analyzes were performed to analyze job satisfaction statistically. Subsequently, it was investigated whether there was any difference in job satisfaction factors according to demographic elements. In this case, the main purpose of my study is to reveal the relationship between job satisfaction factors and demographic elements.

Keywords: Flexible working, Teleworking, Job satisfaction, Covid-19 Pandemic.

ÖZET

ESNEK ÇALIŞMA TÜRÜ OLARAK UZAKTAN ÇALIŞMA: İŞ MEMNUNİYETİ UYGULAMASI

Emrecaan Özdemir

MBA Programı

Tez Danışmanı: Dr. Ender Emre Kanaat

Mayıs 2021, 99 sayfa

Yapmış olduğum çalışmada, salgın döneminde, uzaktan çalışma biçimi dikkate alınarak, iş tatmini konusu ele alınmıştır. Çalışma anket yöntemi ile desteklenmiş ve ankete katılan kişilerin yaşları, cinsiyetleri ve öğrenim durumları gibi demografik etkenlere göre kişilerin iş tatminleri ve bu tatmin ile ilgili faktörlerinin arasındaki farklılıklar incelenmiştir.

Çalışmamda, salgın döneminde uzaktan çalışma kapsamı dikkate alınarak, Türkiye genelinde 19 ilde, farklı iş kollarında, farklı statü ve yaşlarda çalışan kişilerin demografik özellikleri ve işlerine duydukları tatmin hakkında veriler toplanmıştır. Anket sonucunda ortaya çıkan verilerin güvenilirlik analizleri yapılmış, sonrasında iş tatminlerinin istatistiksel açıdan incelenmesi için keşfedici faktör analizleri yapılmıştır. Buna müteakip demografik öğelere göre iş tatmini faktörlerinde herhangi bir farklılık olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. Bu durumda yapmış olduğum çalışmanın asıl amacı, iş tatmini etkenlerinin demografik öğelerle olan bağını ortaya çıkarmaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Esnek çalışma, Uzaktan çalışma, İş tatmini, Covid-19 Pandemisi.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Today, the effects of technological changes, which are constantly progressing, on the business world are extremely important. While these technological developments make their impact felt in various ways, they also affect the working order in terms of place and time. At this point, the concept of 'flexible work' emerges. The concept of flexible working means going out of the ordinary in terms of place and time in the working order. Flexible working seems to be a system that gives employees the opportunity to adjust their working and private lives within the framework of certain rules by mutual agreement with their employers. For this reason, flexible working has the quality to have a high impact on the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees with their work and private lives, and it is an important element related to the concept of job satisfaction.

It is an undeniable fact that employees need job satisfaction in order to achieve happiness in their working and private lives. Because the employee with a high level of job satisfaction is willing, working efficiently, and showing commitment to the institution. In addition, job satisfaction plays a supportive role in terms of maintaining the healthy private life of employees. Today, the continuous changes in many economic and technological fields undoubtedly affect working life. In this case, businesses have to maintain their competitiveness in order to continue their existence. For this, the necessity of businesses to value their human power is an important issue to be considered. The way to do this is to be aware of the importance of job satisfaction of the employees and to try to create the necessary conditions for providing job satisfaction.

In the light of this information, in the first part of the study, information about the concept of flexible working, flexible working methods, flexible working practices in Western countries, and flexible working in terms of Turkish working life will be given. In the second part, job satisfaction factors, measurement techniques, and results of job satisfaction will be discussed. In the last part, the relationship between the job satisfaction factors of employees with different characteristics and demographic factors will be examined.

2. FLEXIBLE WORKING

2.1 FLEXIBILITY CONCEPT IN TERMS OF WORK LIFE

Today, information, technology, politics, economics, socio-cultural elements, and so on, there are constant changes in many issues. Changes in these issues also work-life effects. According to one view, those who cannot keep up with these changes in their work and private lives while being punished by unemployment and poverty; those who adapt to changes and changes those who appreciate the opportunities it offers are rewarded with prosperity and wealth (Ekin 1999, p. 7). As it is possible to evaluate all these considerations from the perspective of individuals, individuals are from the point of view of groups, organizations, societies, and even countries that it has formed together (Leonard 2009, p. 41). In this context, the year 2000 November and 2001 February in our country, considering the crises in all segments, the thought that it is deeply affected and that those who are unable to cope with the crisis are seriously hurt it comes to mind. To overcome all these problems in an economic context with minimal damage, especially those who can adapt to the environment, base their competitiveness on this adaptation and their employees a business approach that allows them to be employed sustainably. It turns out that it should be referred.¹

All the elements mentioned in the previous paragraph are also directly related to the concept of flexibility in terms of working life. Because the concept of flexibility is defined as the ability to keep up with changes and advances occurring in economic, social, and technological fields in terms of working life (Yorgun 1999, p. 216), today, flexibility can be considered as reorganizing, considering all kinds of sudden changes and developments, including crises (Çağan 1999, p. 18).

As can be seen, *changes* were considered when defining the concept of flexibility. In its most general form, *change* means that an organization changes a number of its characteristics to respond to pressure from outside. Another concept, *transformation*,

¹ Türkiye Metal Sanayicileri Sendikası 2002, p. 8.

refers to deep-rooted updates (differentiation) made in the organization as a result of the desire arising from the organization itself (Ayrancı & Öge 2010, p. 39). In this context, the concept of flexibility can be seen as dependent on a process of change or transformation. For example, shortening the employer's working hours to keep up with the economic crisis means flexibility for those who work, and this flexibility means a change caused by pressure from the external environment. On the other hand, it is also flexible for an employer who wants to work more efficiently, to make changes to their working time, but this shows a transformation. Currently, the concept of flexibility can be defined as making some changes or transformations within the business and, therefore, in the working patterns of employees. In all these changes and transformations, it should be considered not only changing the working time, but also changing the amount of work, the place of work, and various similar elements. It can be assumed that the definitions just made in the context of change and transformation also have an important goal: to harmonize jobs and work-life with current conditions.

It is noted that various elements are considered as the purpose of synchronizing the literature. For example, enabling employees to have alternatives in terms of work patterns, increasing the motivation of employees and therefore allowing them to devote themselves more to their work, improving work efficiency (Karakoyunlu 1999, p. 3), ensuring that the employee is happy, the employee more effective groups and teams ensuring that they are directed to their work, so that they can balance between their work and private lives help and enable employees to show their performance at their best such goals can be mentioned.

Another definition of flexibility is that the enterprise considers its internal environment (especially capacity) and external environment (especially economic, social, cultural, legal aspects), and makes several adaptations to the employment conditions it offers based on its internal and external environment (Gonçalves 2010, p. 245). Considering that there are many principles and standards for the management of differences in today's modern business world (Ayrancı 2008, p. 69) and the provision of humane working conditions (Ayrancı 2007, p. 95), it is obvious that adaptations in the context of employment, that is, flexibility, cannot be forced. If a more detailed definition of flexibility is desired based

on this point, flexibility can be expressed as the sum of regulations that can comply with individual or collective agreements and environmental conditions agreed upon between employees and the employer (Evren 2007, p. 26). The individual or collective agreements mentioned also reveal that flexibility has a legal basis for determining the working conditions for the parties (Ekonomi 2008, p. 6). When all the definitions of the concept of flexibility, both mentioned in the literature and put forward considering the concepts of change and transformation, are collected, it becomes clear that flexibility can be used as a tool to adapt to internal and external environmental conditions in terms of employment. In some studies, it is stated that if managers provide flexibility to their employees in terms of time, those who work are more willing (Ayrancı 2011a, p. 54), while flexibility in terms of work is also associated with job satisfaction of employers and managers (Ayrancı 2011b, pp. 95-96). Such studies also support the idea that flexibility is also a managerial issue.

So far, several definitions have been made of the concept of *flexibility in terms of working life*. Considering the sources in which all these definitions are found, it can be suggested that the concept of flexibility is modern and necessary in terms of business life.

Then it would be reasonable to explain in what ways the concept in question is useful. One benefit of flexibility relates to the issue of employment. Instead of being completely unemployed, a person who has a job can work for certain hours, days, periods in the workplace, work on a project or work basis, or perform their duties without actually being in the workplace. Thus, it cannot be claimed that the concept of flexibility will be a complete solution to the issue of unemployment, but it can be said that this concept assumes a quality that reduces unemployment (Yavuz 1999, p. 98) or at least prevents the increase in the number of unemployed (Karakoyunlu 1999, p. 3). For example, a woman prefers to work at certain hours to devote time to her house, herself, or her children, if any; A man can work multiple jobs, considering different working hours, if he needs more income. Flexibility is then a tool that can be used to help balance in the context of the different roles and needs that the employee undertakes. This is supported by the argument in the literature that flexibility is seen as a tool to help the worker get to the point he wants in the quality of work and daily life (Yorgun 1999, p. 214). Providing employers with

flexible working opportunities considering the wishes and needs of employees also means the disappearance of traditional employer employment relations (Topcuk 2006, pp. 76-77).

In other words, considering that economic, social, political, ethnic, and some elements are roaming around the world, crossing the borders of countries (Kavi 1999, p. 51), it can be argued that flexibility can also be used as a tool to regulate the costs, income, and profitability of enterprises due to globalization. Indeed, some studies in the literature (Kutal 2007, p. 24) show that large and multinational companies advocate flexibility in terms of working in order to provide economic interests. Flexibility can be used not only to provide economic benefits but also to ensure that an enterprise can maintain its competitiveness without firing its employees (Kurt 1999, p. 63). Accordingly, flexibility, as mentioned earlier, can be used as a managerial tool, as well as a tool that the business can benefit from in an economic context. The fact that flexibility is also associated with the competitiveness of enterprises leads to the idea that this concept can also affect the competitiveness of countries.²

Flexibility in terms of working life is seen as a useful concept. Accordingly, flexibility benefits in terms of the following elements (Şimşek 2012, p. 6):

- i. Creating a system of doing business based on the agreements of the parties, rather than the tougher provisions that may be in the Labor Code,
- ii. Increasing employment and creating new job opportunities,
- iii. To make working conditions and duration satisfactory for both parties with employer and employer contract,
- iv. Employee to work exactly when and in the amount of time needed,
- v. Ensuring that the employee can perform different jobs and perform different tasks within the enterprise, ensuring that they can adapt to changing technology and eliminate their shortcomings by supporting them in ways such as in-service training,

² Türkiye Metal Sanayicileri Sendikası 2002, p. 10.

- vi. Businesses have the freedom to adjust their wage arrangements according to the situation of the changing labor market and in a way that does not reduce the tenacity of employees to work,
- vii. Performing the service or production as desired by employing other employees in other workplaces outside the enterprise or in the enterprise,
- viii. The ability of those who work in economic crises to survive without losing their jobs.

At this point, it would be correct to mention a number of elements on which the concept of flexibility, which can be used as a tool of adaptation and also has an economic nature, is based inside and outside the business (Kurt 1999, pp. 65-67). *Internal factors*, business, size of the business, business culture, and its needs of the enterprise, the duration of the study, employees' age, gender, income, qualifications of employees, management style, organization, being open to change, technological equipment, such as priority factors. *Non-business elements*, employment status, market conditions, customers, legal framework, demographic development, social values, technological development are priority elements such as.

Today, flexibility is important, and the links between certain types of flexibility and economic performance are generally positive but complex (Şimşek 2001, p. 5). This indicates that it is not possible for all enterprises or countries to turn to flexible working with the same understanding, so flexible working understandings specific to the enterprise or even the country should come into play.³

2.2 WAYS OF FLEXIBLE WORKING

There are many different types of flexible working. If a generalization is made, it seems possible to group all flexible working forms under four main approaches. According to the literature, flexible working patterns include numerical flexibility, functional flexibility, removal strategies, and wage flexibility.

³ Türkiye Metal Sanayicileri Sendikası 2002, p. 93.

One of these approaches is called *numerical flexibility* (Ekonomi 2008, p. 13). In short, numerical flexibility is to make some updates in the number of employees, the number of wages of employees, or the type and number of employee characteristics according to changing conditions and fluctuations in the market (Şimşek 2012, p. 8). In short, numerical flexibility is to make updates to several numerical elements related to working conditions. Instead of the concept of numerical flexibility, *expressions of external flexibility* or *employment flexibility* can also be used, and non-standard (atypical) forms of work, such as part-time work, job sharing, which will be mentioned in the future, can also be considered in the application of numerical flexibility (Yavuz 1995, pp. 15-16).

Another flexibility approach is *functional flexibility*. Functional flexibility means that those who work turn to other functions within the business, in other words, to other tasks (Evren 2007, p. 88). Accordingly, it can be suggested that attention is paid to the qualifications of those who work in this flexibility. To provide functional flexibility, employees are allowed to go beyond job descriptions (Rifkin 1995, p. 7), and applications such as job rotation, job enrichment, job expansion are taken (Uyargil 2008, pp. 85-86). In this way, it is aimed to get more productivity from those who work and to prevent the labor force from wasting time. There are also various subspecies of functional flexibility, including horizontal job mobility, horizontal flexibility between groups, horizontal and Vertical Group integration, vertical functional integration, and integrated teamwork (Şimşek 2102, pp. 17-18).

Horizontal job mobility is the displacement of those working in similar jobs if necessary without the need for additional training. *Horizontal flexibility between groups* is that employees who have close qualifications can replace each other by maintaining their basic qualifications. *Horizontal and Vertical Group integration* is a horizontal group integration in which employees who have close qualifications perform each other's work, resulting in a kind of teamwork. Also, to reduce costs, the reduction of qualification and talent levels is Vertical Group integration. *Vertical functional integration* is that employees work as a team, considering the differences between skilled and semi-skilled. *Integrated teamwork* is the creation of a team spirit, ensuring the collective work of those who work in the sense of commitment to the business.

Functional flexibility should be preferred in simpler and, therefore, non-specialized jobs because it would not be appropriate for a worker who specializes in a particular branch of advanced technical work to be assigned to another specialty (Başkan 1999, p. 42). In this context, it may be considered that functional flexibility is not appropriate in enterprises in the pharmaceutical, information technology, space, and aerospace sectors.

A third general flexibility approach is called *subcontractor strategies*. In this context, the work that the business should do is undertaken by those who work outside the business (Tarcan, 2000: 10). It is possible that works can be done at lower costs thanks to suspension strategies (Yavuz, 1995: 19). *The transaction cost approach* is to compare the costs of a business doing its business itself with the costs of doing its business to other businesses (Ayrancı 2007a, p. 47). *Using external resources* means that an enterprise does the work that it needs to do to external experts (Koçel 2010, pp. 385-386), and in this context, it can be considered as an external ready supply of the capabilities that the enterprise needs to do the work (Solak 2002, p. 46). Another example is the practice of subcontracting (subcontracting), which is also a form of using external resources aimed at suspension strategies. In this practice, the business transfers certain activities to another business (Mucuk 2003, p. 184). In general, suspension strategies are advantageous both in terms of increasing the efficiency of the business and in terms of transferring the legal, technical and similar responsibilities of the business's employees to an external expert or business (Başkan 1999, p. 42).

The last of the flexibility approaches is *wage flexibility*. Wage flexibility is the approach of enterprises to dynamically update their wage strategies and, therefore, their wage understanding according to changes in the economy and labor market (Evren 2007, p. 70). Due to wage flexibility, it includes the ability to dynamically change the forms and amounts of remuneration, not only according to changes in the economy and labor market but also by considering the performance, abilities, competencies, and knowledge of employees (Şimşek 2102, p. 9). Accordingly, it becomes a tool that can be used to adapt wage flexibility according to both the internal and external environment of the enterprise. On the other hand, for example, in the Halsey compensation system, a premium is given

due to the time savings that occur if the employee finishes the job before the specified time, and this premium is shared between the employee and the employer (Yürürdurmaz 2006, p. 44). This can mean wage flexibility related to the internal environment, as it is based on the performance of the employee. In short, wage flexibility is an important issue in terms of effective use of wages, rewarding qualified workers, and bringing qualified labor into the business in the market (Yavuz 1995, p. 18).

As can be seen, four main approaches to flexible working can be mentioned. It is believed that all four main approaches may have points where they converge. For example, a business may contract with a subcontractor and assign its subcontractor to different jobs in different places. In addition, another example may be that a business assigns its employees to different activities and uses different pricing systems in the context of these activities.

In these four flexibilities, different ways of working can also be mentioned (Alkan, 2007: 50-51):

- i. Flexible working hours (flexibility in terms of duration),
- ii. Remote working
- iii. Agency Working
- iv. Working on Call
- v. Telecommuting

From the next title, these different ways of working will be explained.

2.2.1 Flexible Working Hours

Flexibility in terms of time is differentiation during the start and end hours of work, ensuring that the distribution of standard working time differs by working below or above the normal weekly working time, or in other words, flexibility (Bölükbaşı 1999, p. 152). Given this definition, it can be stated that flexible working times are, in the simplest terms, outside of standard working times, and in doing so, the compression or extension of working times.

One form of flexible working time is the *compressed workweek*. A compressed working week means working in the context of fewer days, working longer each day without changing the total working time per week (Yavuz 1999, p. 91). Thanks to the compressed workweek, it is possible for employees to work hard, for example, for three to four days, and on increasing days, to address their needs, and therefore this application is in demand for employees.⁴

The compressed workweek is popular with employers. In this way, greater opportunities arise in the context of time for maintenance and repair work of the enterprise, overhead costs decrease in terms of when employees are not working, and therefore the savings opportunity of the enterprise increases (Şimşek 1999, p. 16). On the other hand, the compressed workweek can cause the employee to wear out due to the need for excessive work of the employee.

Another form of flexible working time is called the flexible time model. Several concepts stand out in this model (Yavuz 1999, pp. 91-92):

Core time means the time that all employees need to work, and this time is determined according to economic developments. Although it seems to be a standard for everyone, the fact that the definition of this standard time is based on economic, environmental conditions reveals the idea that the concept of Core time is flexibly determined.

Flexitime means a time period in which employees can make decisions about working or not working, and if they are going to work, they can also determine how long they will work.

Workday span means the total time, including flexible time and mealtime. During this period, the business is open and continues its activities.

Contracted attendance hours are a concept that is determined by the law by Collective and individual employment contracts and includes how long employees will work.

⁴ Directgov, 2012, Advantages to flexible working.

The accounting period, the calculation period, is the period in which employees work to ensure compliance with legal and contractual rights. If flexibility is applied in working times, The Daily or weekly working order and duration of the employees may vary from each other. By collecting these different periods, it is necessary to calculate the total length of time they are at work in certain periods. This period is called the calculation period.

The calculation period can be considered on an annual basis; this is called the Flexible Year Model (Büyüksülu 2004, p.113). Again, another concept related to the calculation period is called the current account system. In this system, it is specified in advance what the total working time will be during the calculation period, and if the employee works less or more than the Working Time set during this period, the debt or receivables record will be deducted from the current account to be opened for the employee (Yavuz 1999, p. 95).

Sliding work time is the third form of flexibility in terms of working times. It means that the employee can determine the hours of starting and finishing work himself, provided that the daily working time is constant. In the literature, it is noted that sliding work time is divided into simple sliding work time and skilled sliding work time. According to the simple sliding work period, the person who works on a daily basis determines the hours of entry and exit and rest, while the skilled sliding work period includes the person who again determines the hours of entry and exit and rest, as well as the daily working time (Aktay 1999, p. 57).

When it is called flexibility in terms of working time, it can be suggested that perhaps the most known and oldest form is shift work. Accordingly, those who work are divided into groups, and each group is employed by adding end-to-end times to follow each other (Aktay 1999, p. 60). Shift work may be preferred, especially in cases where the business wants to make continuous production or wants to work its employees for a partial period (Özmen 2006, p. 28).

Another form of flexibility in terms of working times is called part-time work (Kuşaksız 2006, p. 25). Features of partial work include short working time, based on a certain agreement (employment contract), and the basis of a regular working relationship (Kuşaksız 2006, pp. 21-22). Factors such as the shift of the economy towards the service sector, the increase of the female labor force, and the need for the young population in education to earn money can be counted as reasons that require partial work today (Ekin 1999, p. 14). As with other flexibility in terms of working time, thanks to partial work, the person who works can have time to devote to himself (Centel 1994, p. 251). Also, in some jobs that require expertise (lawyer, doctor, etc.), part-time work is important because those who work may also need to work in their own offices at certain times of the day and outside at other hours (Şimşek 1999, p. 21).

2.2.2 Remote Working

A definition of working outside the workplace is the production of goods or the provision of services in accordance with a contract, usually in the employer's own home, in a place chosen by the employer or the employee (Yavuz 1995, p. 60). In this practice, the employer usually provides the necessary factors for production, and jobs are performed on the initiative of the employee (Aktay 1999, p. 60). The work in this form seems quite suitable for many business areas. For example, areas of work such as authorship, translation, editing, and even simple textile work can be considered (Şimşek 1999, p. 42).

In the flexibility of working outside the workplace, work is usually handled according to the amount of production, and a piecemeal approach is used (Şimşek 1999, p. 119). For this flexibility of work, which can also be called *working at home*, there is a report prepared by the Council of Europe, and according to this report, there are three important criteria for working in this way (Özmen, 2006: 28):

- i. The employee's workplace is usually his or her own home.
- ii. Ability to work for a fee, depending on one or more employers.
- iii. It is the fact that the employer does not have its own separate market for goods produced.

One possible disadvantage of working outside the workplace is that the employment contract signed by the employer and the employee may fall outside the occupational health laws and may involve the use of incapacity and, therefore, incapacity insurance (Alkan 2007, pp. 50-51).

2.2.3 Agency Working

The concept of an agency working has many definitions based on the construction of partnerships in terms of doing business. (Arslanoğlu 2005, p. 53). According to a definition, the labor of an employee working in connection with an employer's contract of Service is provided to another employer for a temporary period (Şimşek 1999, p.47). According to another definition, agency working is that an employer temporarily transfers the right to request the execution of work from their employer to another employer for some time (Topcuk 2006, p. 31). Agency working is a business that assumes the right to request a job from the employee, as well as the obligation to protect the employee, a business that borrows (Özer 2006, p. 33). Volunteering in agency working is essential. In other words, it is necessary to obtain the approval of the employee to be loaned (Aktay 1999, p. 62). From a legal point of view, there is an employment contract between the loaner employer and agency worker, while there is also a legal contract between the loaner and the agency worker, and there is even a legal relationship between the borrower employer and the agency worker (Arslanoğlu 2005, pp. 56-57).

There is a close relationship between agency working and the concept of subcontracting. In subcontracting, there is also the transfer of work that a business can do to another business so that it is usually performed at a lower cost, and therefore *lending work* (Uyargil 2008, p. 594).

2.2.4 Working on Call

The working on-call is also called “kapovaza” (Aktay 1999, p. 55). This working type is that the employee is called to the workplace when needed by the employer (Turan 2005, p. 31). This approach in itself is divided into two types. According to one of them, it is

decided how long to work under an employment contract and within the agreement of the employer; according to the other, the total amount of work during the specified period is determined by the employer (Topcuk 2006, p. 32). According to this understanding of work, the employer must inform the employee before the moment he needs his labor. Working on call should not be provided by a collective bargaining agreement because both a personal agreement can be made and a partial-term working relationship can be mentioned in terms of structure (Aktay 1999, p. 56).

2.2.5 Telecommuting

Telecommuting has been a determined mode of work, especially in the light of technological developments. Basically, telecommuting is a way of working outside the business. The employee exhibits work outside the business but are also in contact with the business (Yu 2008, p. 31). *Tele-Communication* and *Electronic Home Communication* can be considered as other names of telecommuting (Alkan 2007, p. 53). According to a general definition, telecommuting means that work is done far from the business center, considering the new technologies that are emerging in working life thanks to the transition from an industrial society to an information society.⁵ According to another definition, *telecommuting* means that the employee's work-related activities are carried out far away from the enterprise through electronic media (Tıngöy 2002, p. 62). According to another definition, the generally accepted definition of telecommuting in the European Union is as follows: it is a form of work that employees do in a place far from customers, employers, and workplaces, and effectively uses communication with information technologies (Tokol 2003, p. 16).

Telecommuting has some advantages, for example, it can take advantage of the capabilities of employees living in remote places, and benefits such as commuting and saving on overhead can be considered (Yu 2008, p. 31). On the other hand, telecommuting, which provides employment opportunities for home-dependent people, has an effect on increasing the labor force participation rate (Alkan 2007, p. 53). A literature review shows that there are many subspecies of telecommuting. As the types of

⁵ Soysal, T., 2011, *Tele Çalışma*.

telecommuting, many concepts such as *Home-Based Telecommuting*, *Tele-Center-Based Telecommuting*, *Mobile Telecommuting*, *Neighboring Work Centers*, *Electronic Service Offices*, *Satellite Offices*, *Home Offices* Appear. In the next paragraph, the remote working methods in question will be explained.

The most common form of telecommuting is *Home-Based Telecommuting* (Yavuz 1995, p. 65). Other names for Home-Based Telecommuting are also called the office at home or electronic working at home, while it essentially means that the employee performs his or her work with an electronic communication network in his or her home (Garrett & Danziger 2007, p. 45). An important condition of Home-Based Telecommuting is the use of different information skills and technological tools while jobs are seen, and the employee works in connection with the business as required by the business to which he is connected (Şahin 1999, p. 41).

Another type of telecommuting is *Tele-Center-Based Telecommuting*. Tele-Center-Based Telecommuting also refers to the work of employees in centers with technological equipment in a place far from the workplace, and there is also an administrator who supervises those who work (Yavuz 1995, p. 65). Tele-Center-Based Telecommuting also has an advantage over Home-Based Telecommuting. Instead of providing individual technological equipment for each employee's home, it is more reasonable to gather employees at a lower cost.⁶ Another advantage of Tele-Center-Based Telecommuting is that it emerges from the point of view of those who work. Employees who want to maintain their connection to the business but live too far away can save both road and time by working in a Tele-Center that is closer to them, and can also meet their social needs because they work in a social environment (Meşhur 2007, p. 269).

Mobile Telecommuting is another approach. Accordingly, work environments can include quite different places, such as planes, trains, hotels, and customer offices, while those who work continue to work outside the business, and those who work from all these places also have the opportunity to be connected to the business at any time. This type of work is especially preferred by professionals and senior managers (Şahin 1999, p. 42).

⁶ Soysal, T., 2011, Tele Çalışma.

Another concept of Telecommuting is called *Neighborhood Work Centers*. The concept of Neighboring Work Centers refers to the work environments in which employees work outside their own business centers, which are used jointly by multiple employers (Yavuz 1995, p. 65). Thanks to this understanding, employers can share the costs of common areas and therefore save money, while employees can also benefit from the context of moving costs and save money (Şahin 1999, p. 42).

As can be seen, there are many different forms of working outside the business. When the literature is scanned, it is seen that there are concepts of *transborder* work and *offshore* work; transborder work means that employees participate in activities while they are located in neighboring countries, and offshore work means that work is performed in foreign countries where there is a lower labor cost (Tokol 2003, p. 17).

Although there are so many different forms of work outside the business, a number of advantages and disadvantages of this understanding of work can be mentioned. Considering the literature described so far, it can be suggested that working outside the business provides an advantage in terms of providing external ready-made talent, meeting the growing need for work, reducing overhead costs, reducing staff costs, and preventing the inability to come to work due to weather opposition. (Yu 2008, p. 33)

On the other hand, when the literature mentioned so far is scanned, it is also revealed that working outside of business has a number of disadvantages. For example, not working at the center of the business will prevent the sharing of organizational culture by all employees. In this context, the employee's commitment to the organization may be weak. Another disadvantage that may arise from the point of view of business discipline the lack of disciplined work of those who work outside the center of the business may harm the business. As of this point, the studies mentioned so far have been considered, and the advantages and disadvantages of working outside the business have been examined. In addition, some negative aspects are also revealed in the literature. As an example of these negative aspects, in other words, the measures taken by the employees for the dangers of doing business in the business center may not apply outside the business (Aktay 1999, p.

60). Another disadvantage is that there may be uncertainty in terms of status among employees working far away from the business (Özmen 2006, p. 28). Several deficiencies may also occur, especially in terms of establishing social relationships with colleagues (Topcuk 2006, p. 40).

2.2 APPLICATIONS FOR FLEXIBLE WORKING IN SOME DEVELOPED WEST COUNTRIES

Under this heading, examples of regulations and practices aimed at flexible working in some Western countries that have developed in the West are given. In the future, applications for flexible working in our country will also be transferred.

The first example of flexible working in terms of developed Western countries has emerged in Germany. Flexible working times were introduced in 1967 at the Messerschmidt-Bölkow-Blohm enterprise in Federal Germany (Aydınlı 2007, p. 3). Flexible working times, which spread rapidly among European countries in the 1970s, began to be implemented by five thousand European enterprises (Yavuz 1999, p. 90). Flexibility in terms of work in Germany is legally regulated in terms of periods, and the Working Time Law, adopted for the first time on 6 June 1994, is applied (Şahin 1999, p. 55). Laws such as the law on Occupational Safety of young people and the protection of the mother are also linked to the law on working times and include elements related to the regulation of public holidays with improving working conditions (Prinz 2006, p. 191). Employees who have to work on public holidays and a Sunday when work is prohibited, based on exceptions in the law, have the right not to go to work on a designated day for the next two weeks or four weeks (Gümüş, 2005: 54). As can be seen, in Germany, flexibility in terms of work is more applied in the context of flexibility for time. In this context, applications such as overtime, shift work, sliding work time are common in Germany, but it is also noted that a spatial basis is flexible (Prinz 2006, p. 192). In addition, it is observed that within the framework of German law, special attention is given to the remote work of some professional groups (academics, doctors, etc.) (Tuncay 1999, p. 91). Germany's highly educated workforce, those that do are also common due

to having more than one area of activity gain expertise in job sharing and work-sharing between those who can implement different functions (Şahin 1999, p. 49).

Many other European Union countries in terms of the degree of flexibility of work in Portugal it seems to be lower than its country because it protects employment in Portugal legal regulations are very strict about enabling flexibility (Gonçalves 2010, p. 247). Maximum time of ten hours when flexibility is considered in terms of duration daily working time can be exceeded by two more hours, and weekly working time is forty it ranges from five to fifty hours (Gümüş 2005, p. 54).

In the Netherlands, flexible working is used as a policy to support labor force participation and to encourage labor force participation, especially of women, the elderly, young people, and ethnic minorities (Hoven 2007, p. 152). Like in Germany, the Netherlands civil code in the Netherlands, Central, and local government personnel Act through regulations such as flexibility in terms of time because fifteen percent of the men paid special attention to seventy percent of Dutch women work part-time (Hoogendoorn 2007, p. 231). Again, just as in Germany, the Netherlands has a Working Time Law (Gümüş 2005, p. 54). Sharing the business functions mentioned in the previous paragraph, in other words, in the context of functional flexibility, the Netherlands is also one of the leading European countries (Şahin 1999, p. 44).

In Denmark, there is a special contract called *the basic contract*, which is a long-term employment contract that regulates basic business relationships, and also considers flexibility (Gregersen 2006, p. 206). Daily working times can be extended from eight hours to ten hours, but it is necessary to sign a collective bargaining agreement to exceed this period, while it is necessary to be careful not to exceed an average of eight hours in a week (Gümüş 2005, p. 54). Eighty-five percent of Danish workers are covered by a collective bargaining agreement, and working relations in this country are quite smooth (Gregersen 2006, p. 207).

In Italy, working conditions have been discussed in great detail, and how the working relationship can start and the end is arranged in detail (Minicone 2007, p. 201). It is worth

noting that flexibility is evaluated in the context of a business relationship rather than in the context of duration. Accordingly, daily and weekly working times are guaranteed by law (Gümüş 2005, p. 54), and practices such as basing apprenticeship practice on apprenticeship contract, introducing the concept of the temporary working relationship, and partial working have been adopted (Minicone 2007, p. 202).

Employers who implement flexible working times in the UK said that with practice, the loss of time in business decreases, and those who work come to the workplace faster and start working, and reported that flexible working time increases productivity in the workplace. In the UK, part-time work is defined as "work that is 30 hours or less per week, excluding meal breaks and overtime periods." A quarter of the workforce is employed on a part-time basis. More than half of those working in the service sector and four out of ten women work part-time. The ratio of part-time employees to total employment is 24.9 percent, according to 2000 data (Şahin 1999, p. 46).

In France, the weekly working time is arranged as 35 hours. The 35 hours app is not available for managers, sales representatives, carers. Large companies, in particular, implement flexible working hours so employees can evaluate alternative hours.⁷ In France, the application of flexible working hours began in the 1980s. Many of the employees have barely kept up with the practice of flexible working hours. Going to work during irregular working hours has made it more difficult for employees to establish their work and life patterns. Especially working parents have had problems adjusting their children's school and service patterns. Childcare services were also born with public assurance for those who did not receive grandparent support, and childminders began to work with flexible time practices.⁸ It is defined in the French labor law as a form of work in which working times are determined in collective agreements concluded at the workplace/workaholic level or less than a fifth of monthly or weekly legal working hours. A partial exemption to social security premiums has been introduced for part-time employees since 1992. There was a significant increase in part-time work in 2001. The ratio of part-time employees to total employment is 16.9 percent (Şahin 2011, p. 52).

⁷ JustLanded, 2021, Working Salaries, working hours and holidays.

⁸ Eydoux, A., 2013, Crises and gendered trends in work, unemployment and social policies.

In the United States, traditionally, employees are used to working all day, from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m., they have recently opted for a flexible working model. Although the way they come to work at a certain time of day has entered their normal lives due to the natural course of their work, they see the flexible working practice as an alternative to the practice of coming to work and leaving work at different hours (Beers 2000, p. 35).

European Union countries expanded flexible working throughout Europe in the 1990s. It aimed to solve the problem of unemployment with flexible working, increase economic and social compatibility, and also ensure equality of opportunity between men and women in terms of work (Perrons 1999, p. 395). It is worth noting that EU member states differ in terms of labor law, and common rules for flexibility may extend beyond the country's press (Büyüksulu 2004, p. 48). In this context, the Council of the European Union adopted Directive EU-93/104 on 23 November 1993. Flexibility in this directive 16th article is addressed in the article. Flexibility is addressed in Article 16th of the directive. In addition, arrangements are made for flexibility in working times (Ulucan 2003, p. 62). In short, the directive includes daily weekly rest periods, annual paid leave, weekly work periods, shifts, as well as flexibility in terms of time, such as Compressed Work Periods, sliding work periods (Şahin 1999, p. 55). The basis of this directive is the 118th article of the E.U. articles of association. Based on this article. Directive 118th said. He also proposes some principles considering the article (Ulucan 2003, p. 62):

- i. Cultural, ethnic, and religious factors of the member states are considered in determining the weekly working period.
- ii. The principles of the International Labor Organization should also be considered in determining working time.
- iii. For different sectors, different work times and different working conditions must be applied.
- iv. Flexibility has started to be applied in working times, considering issues such as employee health, life safety, and job characteristics.

2.3 FLEXIBILITY IN TERMS OF TURKISH WORK LIFE

The most important legal regulation in Turkey is the Labor Act of Law No. 4857. Article 63rd of the law concerns working time. According to this article, the weekly working time is no more than forty-five hours and is applied evenly divided in the context of the working days specified at work. But if a different decision has been made, the distribution of the time in question over the days may vary. It is worth noting that the decision on this different distribution can be taken completely freely, but eleven hours a day cannot be exceeded by the agreement of the employer and the employee.

Labor Act of Law No. 4857 brought with it the standard working models under the International Labor Convention No. 158. According to Article 46th of the law, the norms of the European Union are also considered, and employees are given the right to rest for at least twenty-four hours (week holiday) without interruption within a seven-day period, provided that they work on working days before public holidays. According to Article 41th of the law in question, the employee can receive overtime as an increased wage, as well as use an hour and fifteen minutes of time as free time in exchange for each hour of overtime. Article 64th of the law also adds the possibility of compensation for flexible working. Accordingly, the employee can make compensation work for periods in which he cannot work within two months. Compensation work cannot be more than three hours a day, provided that it does not exceed the daily working time, as well as compensation work cannot be performed on holidays.

Also, Article 65th of the law. Its article also has the quality of being a solution to the economic recessions that are seen in our country due to the economic crises that we have often experienced in past years. If there is a need for a significant and temporary reduction in weekly working times due to the economic crisis, the employer shall notify the Turkish Employment Agency and the trade union, which is a party to the collective bargaining agreement, if any, in a letter. After the determination made by the Ministry of Labor and Social Security, the necessary applications are passed.

Another point of note is that it is possible to provide unemployment insurance benefits for those who work in short-term working situations for a period when they are not working (Ulucan 2003, p. 67). Accordingly, the law does not only include regulations for flexible working but also provides assurance in the context of flexible working.

In addition to the partial work specified in Article 13th of the Labor Act of Code 4857 and the fixed-term employment contracts in Article 11th, it is seen that work on the call mentioned earlier in Article 14th of the law is made possible; in Article 7th, the concept of Temporary Employment Relations is put forward. Finally, in the second article of the law, sub-employer (subcontracting) practices are also regulated.



3. JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION

3.1 DEFINITION OF JOB SATISFACTION

The word 'satisfaction' is used in the sense of ensuring the realization of something desired, reaching for heart saturation, satisfaction.⁹ Accordingly, the concept of satisfaction can be considered to have a very close relationship with the concept of "satiation." Dictionary meaning reputation satiation refers to the state of satisfaction with what you have.¹⁰ According to another definition, the feeling of satisfaction is a state of happiness that a person feels as a result of meeting their needs and is an important factor in achieving an individual's inner peace (Karcıoğlu, Timuroğlu and Çınar 2009, p. 61).

According to literature, the concept of job satisfaction dates back to almost the early 1910s (Münsterberg 1913, p. 2), and a leading study, including job satisfaction, is based on experiments conducted by Elton Mayo and other scientists in the 1920s at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company (Telman 1988, p.78). Also, in 1935 Hoppock of 'job satisfaction' has made important studies on the subject of the present article, and Turkish in the literature, job satisfaction, job attitude, and job satiation were frequently used concepts such as (Özdemir 2009, p. 4).

Looking at the definition of the concept of job satisfaction, it is noted that there are different definitions, but these definitions are quite similar to each other. According to a definition made by Kornhaus in the early 1930s, job satisfaction refers to the state of mental health that a worker is in due to the work he or she is doing (Telman 1988, p. 80).

Defines job satisfaction as the perception of an employee's job or work life as a situation that is pleasing to him, while he considers a negative perception of work as a factor that will lead to job dissatisfaction (Mertol 1993, p. 4).

⁹ TDK, 2021. Tatmin, <https://sozluk.tdk.gov.tr/>.

¹⁰ TDK, 2021. Doyum, <https://sozluk.tdk.gov.tr/>.

Job satisfaction should be considered bi-directional. It should be considered in the context of the employer's work-related requests and the compliance of the work with these requests. Accordingly, to the extent that the work overlaps with the wishes of the employee, the employee feels satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his job (Davis 1988, p. 34). There are three important considerations for job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a complex concept that outweighs the emotional aspect, considers the harmony between the employee's expectations and the job, including elements such as the job itself, wages, management understanding, and the attitude of colleagues (Luthans 1995, p. 44).

According to another approach, the concept of job satisfaction is considered bidirectional (satisfaction - dissatisfaction), and the expectation that the employee perceives about their job is defined as the resulting balance of results (Saylan 2008, p. 4). According to another study, job satisfaction is evaluated as the sum of the employee's attitudes towards work and all business-related issues (Kirel 1999, p. 55).

Given the definitions made so far, it turns out that job satisfaction is generally based on a certain degree of emotional elements and many work-related elements and is also associated with feelings of satisfaction and discontent. In some other studies, satisfaction - dissatisfaction in the context of sensuality and meeting expectations is considered and used to define the concept of job satisfaction (Kirel 1999, p. 56).

3.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION

As mentioned earlier, competition comes to the fore in today's business world. Achieving and maintaining an advantage in competition depends on the assets of the business that can be strategic, rare, difficult or impossible to replace, difficult or impossible to imitate (Barney 1991, p. 118). Therefore, considering assets that have these characteristics should be important from the point of view of sustainable competition. In the literature, some studies suggest that human resources can provide all these qualities and therefore lead to a sustainable competitive advantage of the enterprise. In these studies, under the heading of strategic human resource management, it is noted that job satisfaction is also important in the contribution of human resources to the business (Huselid 1995, p.642).

In other words, the job satisfaction of employees plays an important role in the direct success of the business due to its competitiveness (Yücel 2006, p. 101). Because those who work with higher job satisfaction work more, do their jobs better, become more connected and compatible with their businesses; as a result, the continuity of those who work in the workplace increases, and the employee turnover rate is decreases (Mucuk 2003, p 347).

Low job satisfaction can lead not only to performance and business competitiveness but also to employees experiencing various problems. Low job satisfaction leads to several mental and emotional disorders such as insomnia, headache, unhappiness, stress, restlessness in workers (Kök 2006, pp. 295-296). In this context, it can be suggested that there is an opposite relationship between stress elements and job satisfaction (Çakmak 2008, pp. 78 - 79).

Low job satisfaction not only causes employees to experience stress but also the problem of alienation from their businesses and leads to problems such as the employee not coming to work or even leaving work (Kök 2006, p. 295). Job satisfaction is also important, especially in the context of businesses adapting to the environment and engaging in innovative activities, because the new business structure (organization) resulting from adaptation, as well as the acceptance and implementation of activities, as well as innovative steps, are associated with job satisfaction of employees. In summary, job satisfaction is an important concept for employees not to have health problems in the context of the business environment, to be happy, to do their work selflessly, and therefore to be effective and efficient (Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 124).

3.3 FACTORS BASED ON JOB SATISFACTION

The factors on which job satisfaction is based can be addressed with two different understandings. According to an understanding, job satisfaction can be considered in the context of a person being a business manager and/or business owner in a business environment. More specifically, job satisfaction can be evaluated by considering the official role and title of the person in the work environment. According to other

understanding, job satisfaction can be considered on an individual, group, and organizational basis.

In the literature, there are many studies that deal with the job satisfaction of employees, managers, and business owners and relate the job satisfaction of these people to a number of demographic elements. In addition, there are studies that examine what factors job satisfaction is based on. In these studies, approaches that consider job satisfaction, role, and title mentioned in the previous paragraph, as well as individual and group basis, can be found. In the literature, the relationship between job satisfaction and demographic elements was examined, and the following results were obtained. Positive directional relationships were found between the level of education and job satisfaction of employees (Verhoftstad and Oney 2003, p. 14), and similarly, positive directional relationships were found between the ages of managers and job satisfaction (Chandrah, Agrawal, Marrimuthu and Manuharam 2003, pp. 11-12). Studies that show that gender causes a number of differences in job satisfaction also draw attention. In addition, it is revealed that the job satisfaction of employees is affected by elements such as their role. In addition, it is revealed that the job satisfaction of employees is affected by elements such as their role, the characteristics of the job, the attitude towards the employee in the business environment, and remuneration. It is found that managers' job satisfaction also depends on remuneration, relationships with others in the business environment, and the job itself, the characteristics of the job, the attitude towards the employee in the business environment, and remuneration. It is found that managers' job satisfaction also depends on remuneration, relationships with others in the business environment, and the job itself (Koh and Boo 2001, p. 321).

On the other hand, business owners' job satisfaction was found to be higher than those of businesses and managers in general. As a result of his study, in which the factors that reveal business owners' job satisfaction are similar to the factors mentioned in the literature that make up the job satisfaction of managers, he found that business owners' job satisfaction is based on seven factors (Andersson 2008, p. 232). Five of the seven factors in question are quite similar to the factors that make up the job satisfaction of managers and employees that are frequently mentioned in the literature; two factors

(satisfaction with the image of the business and satisfaction of the business owner in the context of their duties, responsibilities, and behavior) are specific to the person owning a business. (Ayrancı 2011a, p. 88).

3.4 ORGANIZATIONAL CONCEPTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

According to studies in the literature, job satisfaction is a very wide-ranging issue. Motivation has been associated with many organizational issues, such as leadership, organizational culture, discrimination, cynicism, psychological harassment, organizational citizenship behavior, and workplace spirituality. Under this heading, the relationship of job satisfaction with these issues is briefly examined (Özkalp and Kirel 2009, p. 80).

Incentive and desire words are used in our language as the equivalent of the word motivation. If a more detailed definition is made, motivation is the individual's actions in accordance with his thoughts, beliefs, and wishes. The reason why Motivation occupies an important place in business life is that it is a factor that helps the employee provide a high level of benefit to the institution in which they work. In order for the employee to be useful to the institution in which he works, that is, to ensure his motivation, the employee's needs and needs must be met (Ağırbaş, Çelik & Büyükkayıkçı 2005, p. 329). The motivation of the employee whose requirements are met is provided, so the job satisfaction of the employee who feels good and contributes to the institution in which he works also occurs.

To briefly mention the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction, leadership is the ability to organize a group of people according to a specific goal. Therefore, the leader must have the knowledge and ability to influence people (Akdeniz 2010, p. 7). A leader's behavior affects those who work and affects organizational success. At this point, it is also worth noting an important ability that a good leader should have. A successful, effective leader should be able to apply different leadership styles in accordance with the situations he or she faces (Gezici 2007, p. 61).

Another important concept related to job satisfaction is *cynicism*. Cynicism is the negative emotion that the employee feeds into the institution in which they work. This is a lack of faith in the integrity of the organization in which the employee works, in other words, the insecurity of the institution in which he works. As a result of cynicism, employee job dissatisfaction will occur (Memduhoğlu and Yılmaz 2010, pp. 390-391).

Another concept of job satisfaction that has recently gained importance is psychological harassment. In the literature, the concept of psychological harassment is referred to as mobbing in its best-known expression. In addition, concepts such as daunting, intimidation, isolation, and ignoring are also used (Yapıcı 2008, p. 5). In a workplace, it is usually the conduct of another employee or employee against the employee, showing continuity and frequency, emotionally damaging behavior. Job satisfaction of the employee who is a victim of psychological harassment will undoubtedly be negatively affected. After a while, physiological and psychological health problems may also occur. Therefore, in the face of these undesirable situations, employees will experience dissatisfaction in their personal life as well as dissatisfaction in the face of job dissatisfaction (Memduhoğlu and Yılmaz 2010, p. 401).

As mentioned earlier, job satisfaction is a concept that can be based on many factors and is also related to a person's motivation in the work environment. Accordingly, it is necessary to briefly introduce motivational theories. In general, motivation theories are divided into two groups *content* (scope) and *process* theories. According to the basic assumption of content theories, when considered in the context of job satisfaction, managers will have more motivation for the job and will work more willingly and become satisfied with their job if they can understand the needs that cause the behavior of the jobseekers and exhibit behavior according to these needs (Özdemir 2009, pp. 12-13).

One of the content theories is Maslow's hierarchy of needs approach. Accordingly, needs are a source of motivation in determining behavior (Toker 2007, p. 96), and while unsatisfied needs cause discomfort, a person feels psychological and/or physical relief as a result of satisfying needs. According to Maslow's work, there are five types of needs, and there is a hierarchical relationship between these needs (Telman 1988, p. 95):

- i. Physiological needs: these are the necessary things that need to be met in order for a person to survive.
- ii. Security needs: include protection from physical, material, psychological, emotional, and economic hazards.
- iii. Social needs: these are needs such as social interaction, love, and acceptance.
- iv. Self-actualization: the need for a person to use their full potential at the highest level and go to the highest point that they can reach.
- v. The need for status and dignity: these are the needs that a person feels, such as respect, attention. (Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 282)

Another content theory in the literature is the ERG theory put forward by Clayton Alderfer. This theory reduces Maslov's five types of needs to three groups:

- i. Existence: To exist needs to meet to secure the presence of the person.
- ii. Relatedness: It must be associated, a person's social interactions and belonging to a social group.
- iii. Growth: The development of the person in need of information by using their experience and intelligence comprises the development of skills and competencies (Yücel 2006, p. 102).

Another notable content theory is Mc Clelland's Needs theory. According to this theory, people are born with three types of needs, and over time one type of need becomes dominant over the others (Oksay 2005, p. 29). A type of need is the need to achieve and involves the person setting a goal for himself and trying to achieve this goal (Torun 2007, p. 118). The need for power is the need of a person in the context of being able to influence others (Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 289). Finally, the need to establish a relationship is the need in the context of a person interacting with others and having strong social relationships (Torun 2007, p. 118).

According to Herzberg's double factor theory, there are motivator and hygiene factors for needs. Motivating factors include elements such as the work itself, responsibility, and status, which are directly related to the work and allow motivation to strengthen when they increase. On the other hand, hygiene factors are environmental factors that are not

directly related to work, and they are factors that reduce motivation when they become negative, such as wages and the behavior of others towards the employee (Akdeniz 2010, p. 65). In the absence of hygiene factors, it also becomes almost impossible for the employee to be motivated, and therefore hygiene factors must be provided at a minimum (Toker 2007, p. 96).

On the other hand, process theories are essentially theories that involve operational conditioning. Operational conditioning is a learning theory and concerns the consideration of the consequences of that behavior when a person adopts a certain behavior. How a person's motivation is formed and its reasons are examined within the framework of process theories (Yücel, 2006: 102).

An important process theory is Victor Vroom's *expectation theory*. According to vroom's expectation theory, four concepts are important:

1. It's the consequences of behavior that's about doing the job, like not coming to work.
2. A situation in which primary consequences occur, such as punishment.
3. Valens is a concept that expresses the degree of desire for the purpose of an individual.
4. The expectation is that the individual knows that their behavior will lead the individual to certain results (Akdeniz 2010, p. 70).

Another process theory is the 'Equality theory ' developed by Adam (Özdemir 2009, p. 25). According to this theory, a person compares what they get for their work with what other people get based on elements such as age, experience, education, skills that they have (Yücel 2006, p. 105). At this point, fair treatment of individuals is the basis for ensuring the satisfaction of the individual (Akdeniz 2010, p. 72).

Another theory is the 'purpose theory ' developed by Edwin Locke (Torun 2007, p. 127). According to this rule, the higher the goal the individual has, the more effort he makes to achieve his goal, and his performance gets better. Therefore, the level of job satisfaction differs according to the goals of individuals. It can be said that performance is moving in a positive direction with the goal of growth (Oksay 2005, p. 34).

Lawler and Porter further developed Vroom's expectation theory in improved expectation theory (Günbatan 2006, p. 60). In theory, the relationship between performance and job satisfaction is examined (Torun 2007, p. 126). In addition, importance is given to the relationship between expectations and results (Çakmak 2008, p. 93). Studies show that a person can achieve job satisfaction if the reward they receive as a result of their performance is fair (Günbatan 2006, p. 61).

3.5 MEASURING TECHNIQUES OF JOB SATISFACTION

In recent years, research has been carried out frequently on the satisfaction of employees, which is the most important force of enterprises, and many methods of measuring job satisfaction have been developed. The purpose of these measurements is to have an idea of the satisfaction and commitment of the employees in the institution in which they work. In this way, the business can evaluate itself according to the elapsed time and have an idea about the dismissal or absence of employees. An important consideration at this point is that the business should give the employee the necessary importance and be careful about confidentiality when conducting these measurement studies. With these studies, the business can identify aspects in which it is weak or superior in many issues, such as Human Resource Management, Internal Communication, Management, and the working environment, and strengthen itself in the necessary issues (Yücel 2006, p. 109). Developments on issues such as business enrichment, business expansion, and employee participation in decision-making can be determined as a result of these surveys (Özdemir 2009, p. 27).

Attitude scales are generally used to measure job satisfaction, and one of the most important scales is the Likert attitude scale (Akdeniz 2010, p. 82). Questions on the Likert attitude scale are answered on five or seven scales, and many of the developed surveys focus on these scales. Some models developed as a result of job satisfaction studies are as follows: The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Porter Needs and Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ).

3.5.1 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Common among job satisfaction scales is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), developed in 1965 by Weis, Dawis, England, and Lofquist. There are two different forms of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire; one is the long-form with 100 items, and the other is the short form with 20 items (Özdemir 2009, p. 28). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is a scale developed by the influence of MSQ, Minnesota Job Satisfaction theory, and Herzberg's double Factor Theory. The purpose of using this job satisfaction scale is to determine to what extent the employee's business needs are met in the business environment and to what extent their values are reciprocated. The MSQ, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire measures individuals' internal, external, and overall satisfaction levels. Inner satisfaction focuses on work and what an individual feels when doing their job. In other words, it includes internal factors such as responsibility, achievement, and recognition. External satisfaction includes considerations such as wages that are indirectly related to work. General satisfaction, on the other hand, includes considerations such as coworkers, working conditions that are excluded from them (Muter 2008, p. 48). In MSQ, evaluation is carried out with a five-point Likert type scale:

- i. I am not satisfied at all
- ii. I am not satisfied
- iii. I am undecided
- iv. I am satisfied
- v. I am very satisfied are the answers (Akdeniz 2010, p. 84).

3.5.2 The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin in 1969. JDI allows you to evaluate five business-related issues. These considerations are as follows: work, wages, a form of management, opportunities for growth, and colleagues (Özdemir 2009, p. 27). Employees are asked what aspects of their work they are or are not satisfied with, so job satisfaction is measured (Yücel 2006, p. 110).

3.5.3 Porter Needs and Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ)

The Porter Needs and Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ) establishes an interest between the conditions that the employee perceives in the workplace and the conditions that he desires or considers ideal (Özdemir 2009, p. 29). Developed by Porter, this scale is a question form that measures the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the employee by taking advantage of some dimensions of job satisfaction. This scale is usually used for executive employees, so questions are usually directed at the problems faced by the executive employee (Akdeniz 2010, p. 83). Table 3.1 provides an example of The Porter Needs and Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Table 3.1: Example of porter needs and satisfaction questionnaire

1. A sense of security in your business	Select one of the numbers
a) How much now?	(Least) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (Most)
b) How much should it be?	(Least) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (Most)
c) How important is this to me?	(Least) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (Most)
The answer to question a) is subtracted from the answer to question b). A small difference indicates the height of job satisfaction. In addition, the importance of the requirement is measured by the answer to question c).	

3.6 FACTORS AFFECTING JOB SATISFACTION

Factors affecting job satisfaction can be examined in two headings as individual and organizational factors. Below, the factors in question are mentioned.

3.6.1 Individual Factors

Age, gender, education level, and personality traits were mentioned as individual factors.

3.6.1.1 Age

In most studies of job satisfaction, 'age' has been the most studied factor. Herzberg, Mausolner, Peterson, and Capweel have suggested that there is a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction. According to the authors, young employees who have just started work have high job satisfaction, falling rapidly after a few years of work, but their satisfaction increases as they continue to work. Accordingly, it was determined that the first satisfaction was due to the innovation of the job, and then the dissatisfaction began rapidly due to the lack of seniority and trust and uncertainty, and over time, satisfaction increased again for reasons such as job acceptance, security (Demir 2007, p. 120; Karaca 1994, p. 73). Another reason why employees increase satisfaction with their jobs as they age compared to young people is that older employees increase adaptation to work as a result of the gains and experience they get from their jobs (Baştemur 2006, p. 27). Therefore, the level of satisfaction may increase as a result of the employee adapting to the job, accepting the job, and adopting it.

3.6.1.2 Gender

Different findings have emerged in studies that attempt to explain the relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Some of the studies found no significant differences between satisfaction levels depending on gender; some found that women and other men achieved higher job satisfaction (Demir 2007, p. 122). It has been suggested that job satisfaction for women depends on different factors than for men. In addition, the fact that a woman has a different point of view than men because of her maternal role, as opposed to the fact that responsibilities related to her home and children are in men, making her happy can also be considered as a factor (Çakmak 2008, p. 102).

In some studies, it has been found that men make more effort than women to succeed and provide more satisfaction. Men make more effort than women; women take more economic responsibility, which can be caused by difficulties in conditions and lack of opportunities.

3.6.1.3 Education level

The relationship between education and job satisfaction can be addressed in positive and negative aspects. The positive effect of education on job satisfaction is that those with a high level of education are more satisfied with their job by finding work in better working conditions. The negative effect of education on job satisfaction is manifested by the increase in expectations of employees as the level of education increases.

3.6.1.4 Personality characteristics

Research has shown that personal differences in job satisfaction levels are effective. People whose abilities are limited and unable to adapt to the environment show job dissatisfaction, while those who are confident provide more satisfaction (Çalışkan 2010, p. 11). Therefore, for job satisfaction, it can be said that the personality traits and abilities of those who work should coincide with the work they do.

3.6.2 Organizational Factors

As organizational factors, working conditions, salary, employees, management and control, quality of work, and promotion opportunities to rise were mentioned.

3.6.2.1 Work conditions

Individual working conditions affect job satisfaction. Because individuals want to work in environments where they can feel comfortable (Gezici 2007, p. 44), it can be considered that the work environment is suitable for work from maintenance such as heat, light, ventilation, and cleaning, which increases the employee's job satisfaction.

3.6.2.2 Salary

Research has shown that salary plays an important role in ensuring job satisfaction. Employees are satisfied with the rate of wages and similar payments they receive in

exchange for their work. The main reason why wages are so important is that money is the main tool for meeting the needs of individuals (Çalışkan 2010, p. 11).

Employees want to get paid fairly. Job satisfaction may decrease for those who believe that they cannot get their work paid off. In the same business, if individuals working under the same conditions receive different salaries, the fact that a low-paid employee notices the situation can negatively affect job satisfaction. Conditions such as working hours and performance are equal, and salaries are not equal will negatively affect the job satisfaction of the workers. Job satisfaction may be high for those who know that they are paid above average.

3.6.2.3 Employees

The structure of the group in which the employee is together is an important factor in job satisfaction. A business group that supports each other has a moderate effect on employee satisfaction. If the employee's Group provides support, advice, and work assistance to the employee, this type of environment positively affects job satisfaction (Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 118). A work environment without assistance and support can negatively affect the employee's job satisfaction.

3.6.2.4 Management and control

It has been observed in studies that excessive control of people with a form of strict control reduces individual flexibility, and this type of executive employee relationship creates a negative attitude (Çalışkan 2005, p. 12). The feeling that it will be controlled at any moment can negatively affect job satisfaction, creating psychological pressure on the employee.

3.6.2.5 Quality of work

Factors that make up the nature of the work are the meaning, learning opportunities, and responsibilities that the employee carries for himself. The fact that the work is interesting,

the person who works while doing the work feels good, the work is not boring, and the status of the individual increases job satisfaction (Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 116). It can be said that the satisfaction of those who work in a job that meets their individual qualifications will be high.

3.6.2.6 Promotion opportunities

Promotion opportunities play an important role in terms of job satisfaction. Frequent rises have a positive impact on job satisfaction, but it is important that the promotion is done fairly. The promotion of an employee who does not deserve it negatively affects job satisfaction, while there is someone who deserves it more. (Özkalp and Kirel, 2010: 117) Employees who have agreed to stay in their positions are not interested in promotion. Those who do not expect to rise have more job satisfaction than those who expect to promote and think they will promote. Satisfaction levels can be increased by offering career opportunities to those who work. An increase in employee satisfaction will be achieved as a result of them becoming more valuable and individually professional for their profession by enabling them to carry out their professional training at an advanced level (Demir 2007, p. 137).

3.7 RESULTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Studies have shown that the physical and mental health of those who work with high job satisfaction is much better, as well as their learning potential is also good. It has been found that employees with high job satisfaction learn new jobs in a short time, have low rates of accidents at work, and stay away from conflicts, and are employees who help others, exhibit participatory behavior (Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 120).

It can be said that those who have high job satisfaction have positive attitudes and behaviors such as adopting their workplaces, being open to more selfless work, and being in good communication with employees and customers.

The results of job satisfaction can be examined under the following headings: motivation, success, performance, productivity.

3.7.1 Performance

In their work on the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, Schwab and Cummings (1970) and Nord (1976) gathered the main opinions in three groups (Demir 2007, pp. 189-191):

- 1 Satisfaction gives rise to performance.
- 2 The performance gives rise to satisfaction.
- 3 The satisfaction-performance relation is related to multiple factors.

3.7.1.1 Satisfaction gives rise to performance

An opinion that acknowledges that satisfaction gives rise to performance emphasized individual happiness at work. He argued that the degree of job satisfaction felt by the employee determines the performance of the employee; that is, job satisfaction causes performance. It has been suggested that the employee's productivity can be linked to their happiness, and instead of dealing directly with the employee's performance, it would be more satisfying to try to increase the level of happiness.

3.7.1.2 The performance gives rise to satisfaction

According to this view developed by Porter and Lawler, job satisfaction is a result of performance. Job satisfaction is considered a function of performance-related awards; performance leads to an award, and the award constitutes satisfaction. Performance determines satisfaction through rewards.

Cherrington observed in Reitz and Scott's reviews that the performance of the subjects awarded based on their performance was significantly higher than that of the subjects awarded regardless of their performance.

3.7.1.3 The satisfaction-performance relation depends on multiple factors

Triandis suggested that pressure to increase production can reduce satisfaction and increase productivity, which can reduce the statistical relationship between satisfaction and performance. Harman noted that performance and satisfaction could be expected if employees have control over their productivity. The professional group tested variables such as the difficulty of work, self-respect, and the need for success, and the variable that attracted the most attention was “Rewards.” Pette, CM Gee, and Cavender studied the relationship between job satisfaction and performance between 1964 and 1983. Accordingly, the relationship between job satisfaction and performance for upper-tier employees supports the view that performance satisfaction gives rise to performance satisfaction. If employees perceive the rewards that are the result of performance as unfair, the dissatisfaction that will occur will lead to a decrease in effort and poor performance in the future.

3.7.2 Job Dissatisfaction Results

3.7.2.1 Absenteeism

Absenteeism is a condition that businesses and managers often encounter, affecting the efficiency of the business and relations between employees. In studies conducted to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism, the opposite relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism was determined (Demir 2007, p. 180). Accordingly, the absenteeism of those with high job satisfaction will be minimal, and the absenteeism of those with low estimated jobs will be many.

Individual differences play an important role in the absentee-satisfaction relationship. The degree to which employees care about their work and the degree to which they find it valuable is decisive in the relationship between satisfaction in absenteeism. It has been observed that those who find their work valuable do less absenteeism than those who do not find it. A study conducted among civil servants found that the absence rate was very

low in officers who considered their work important and high in officers who did not consider it important (Demir 2007, p. 181; Özkalp and Kirel 2010, p. 120).

3.7.2.2 Turnover

From the findings obtained on job satisfaction results, the findings determined on turnover are compatible. A negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover or dismissal has been found in research conducted on employees belonging to different professional groups. As job satisfaction increases, the staff turnover rate decreases. Job satisfaction can be the determining factor in the employee's level of performance in the relationship with dismissal. The rate of dismissal of high-performing employees is low (Demir, 2007: 183). Employers may not want to lose high-performance employees, while low-performance employees may have high rates of dismissal, and the employer may not want to include a low-performance person.

3.7.2.3 Resign

According to the model developed by W.H. Mobley, those who are not satisfied with their work think about resigning, while those who are satisfied with their work do not think about resigning. In this model, job dissatisfaction leads to the thought of quitting. It evaluates the benefit and cost of resigning from a job and starts looking for a job as a result of this assessment. It makes the decision to leave his job or stay in his job by comparing business alternatives to his current job (Demir 2007, p. 183).

Although there is a link between the intention to resigning and job satisfaction, the impact of social and economic conditions is also great. Advantages or disadvantages such as economic satisfaction, working environment, social status, and salary, seniority that can be obtained from employment opportunities and opportunities are factors that are very effective on the decision to leave the job. Employees with job dissatisfaction seek new jobs, but if their employment opportunities are limited, they will continue their work even if they are dissatisfied in the workplace.

3.8 LITERATURE REVIEW: APPLIED METHODS OF STUDIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Baş's research on determining the job satisfaction profiles of faculty members compared the satisfaction levels of each job dimension of the groups with the help of arithmetic mean statistics, and the significance of the differences was tested by the T-test method (Baş 2002, p. 25).

In their studies on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in higher education, Baş and Ardiç used the 'width of change' Statistic found with the formula ' $DG=X_{Max}-X_{min}$,' which is the simplest measure of variability in evaluating research data. It has also been noted that the change width statistic, which is easy and understandable, is sensitive to extreme values and can give misleading results in nonlinear series. Therefore, the results obtained were confirmed by the 'correlation coefficient' (Baş and Ardiç 2002, pp. 76-77).

Yüksel temporary computer operators employed in the study of the difference between the averages of the continuous component's status and job satisfaction, job satisfaction and distinctive components employed in permanent and temporary components depending on the status of those who work distinguished employed by those who expected to work in permanent and temporary status was developed. The components of job satisfaction that fall into the discriminant model in the research are the degree of assurance that the job provides, the opportunity for personal development and growth that the job provides, the sense of appreciation that is felt during the work, and the opportunity to compete in the workplace. Variables included in the model were computer operators employed in continuous status and computer operators employed in temporary status, with job satisfaction components related to assurance and development. As a result of research; received the degree of assurance that provides heat, the number of wages and promotion of the work and personal development to rise, the fair distribution of the money that is received in exchange for the work done and perform to expectations for the future of the workplace in relation to the degree of job satisfaction components on average, according to a continuous operator employed in a temporary status who are employed in the computer status was found to be higher on those (Yüksel 2002, pp. 186-203).

Ağırbaş and others conducted a study on motivational tools and job satisfaction in the hospital where the chief medical assistants of the Social Insurance Institution (SSKB) work. Factor analysis, multiple regression analysis, and correlation analysis were used in the analysis of the data (Ağırbaş, Çelik and Büyükkayıkçı 2005, p. 327).

In a study conducted by Çalışkan on the job satisfaction of nurses working in public institutions in Malatya, information was collected using the survey method. The survey was carried out by the instructor personally to the nurses. Positive findings were found that 64 percent of nurses were at a young age, their professional experience was adequate, and 63 percent were college graduates. Most nurses complain about not being able to participate in management, the form of supervision, working conditions, and, most importantly, not getting enough wages. In order to increase the efficiency of health services in our country, public managers need to stop complaining about nurses who have an important place in the health sector (Çalışkan 2005, p. 18).

Bayrak's study aimed to determine the relative importance of job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors of academics working at Pamukkale University. The level of job satisfaction was measured by 17 questions based on the Minnesota job satisfaction scale. Research results based on empirical analysis show significant differences between factors affecting job satisfaction and factors that academics consider to have an impact on job satisfaction. Research results, it seems that "fee" and "academic environment" factors have the most impact on the job satisfaction of faculty members (Bayrak 2006, pp. 292-311).

Taşlıyan, the relationship between employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction in the tourism and travel industry: A field study in Kahramanmaraş', in forensic work, and travel agencies tourism employee satisfaction with the level of service was from here investigated the relationship between the satisfaction of the customers. A survey method was used in the study. As a result, customers who buy services from tourism and travel agencies expect quality service, most employees do their work with love, but the level of

satisfaction with their work should be increased with various improvements to the working conditions (Taşlıyan 2007, p. 186).

In Toker's study, the aim is to measure the job satisfaction of employees in accommodation businesses with the job identification scale and to examine the effects of demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, education on job satisfaction. Because the customer who buys the service and the employee who offers the service are intertwined, face-to-face, the workforce, and especially job satisfaction is of great importance in the hospitality enterprises in the tourism sector. Because the job satisfaction of employees in hospitality enterprises directly affects the customer's satisfaction, the quality of Service, and the success of the business. As a result of the study, it was found that job satisfaction differs in terms of age, education, tourism education variables (Toker 2007, pp. 93-104).

In the study of Aşan and Erenler, the job satisfaction survey, called 'JSS,' was used to evaluate job satisfaction in nine dimensions. In the study, there was a relationship between work and life satisfaction, but there was no difference in terms of the 'gender' variable (Aşan and Erenler 2008, p. 211).

Bozkurt and Bozkurt used the survey method due to the superiority of the ability to obtain and analyze standard data in the study of 'Field Research aimed at evaluating internal factors affecting job satisfaction from the point of view of the education sector (Bozkurt and Bozkurt 2008, pp. 2-19).

Bektaş and Tayyar's study aimed to determine the relationship of job satisfaction with information management. Based on one hundred and seventy-seven available surveys, factor analyses were applied primarily to determine the main factors, and then canonical correlation was applied to examine the relationship between these two structures. In order for the canonical correlation coefficient to be positive, it has been revealed that there is a positive directional relationship between job satisfaction and information management (Bektaş and Tayyar 2009, p. 40).

Gül and Oktay's study was conducted to investigate the relationship between salary expectations and career opportunities and job satisfaction of civil servants and managers working in public institutions. The effects of demographic traits such as age, seniority, and gender on variables were also studied. Factor, reliability, correlation, t-test, ANOVA, and regression analyses were used to test relationships. It was applied to 116 employees who served in the Karaman Governorate. As a result of the research, it was found that only the level of Education differentiates the level of wages, careers, job satisfaction, and performance of employees (Gül and Oktay 2009, p. 224).

Yürür and Keser's study 'the role of emotional exhaustion in the relationship between work-related tension and job satisfaction' aimed to investigate the effect of work-related tension on job satisfaction and to analyze the role of emotional exhaustion in this relationship. The study used the work-related tension scale developed by Revicki et al. (1991), the job satisfaction scale developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), and the Maslach "emotional exhaustion" sub-scale of the burnout scale. In a study involving 350 primary and high school teachers working in public schools, it was found that work-related tension negatively affects job satisfaction (Yürür and Keser 2010, p. 166).

Yazıcıoğlu's study 'relationship between Job Satisfaction and job performance in organizations: comparison of Turkey and Kazakhstan' investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and the performance levels of teachers in Turkey and Kazakhstan. Sample diameter surveys prepared using the simple random sample Method were applied to 1042 teachers in Turkey and 420 teachers in Kazakhstan who were randomly selected. The data obtained were analyzed in the SPSS package program. The study found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the performance of Turkish and Kazakh teachers. The differentiation of the relationship between job satisfaction and performance in terms of gender and year-of-work variables has also been found (Yazıcıoğlu 2010, p. 244)

A survey method was used in the study of Örucü and Esenkale to determine the factors affecting the satisfaction of employees working in accommodation enterprises by comparing City and coastal hotels with each other. The data obtained from the survey

conducted at both hotels were analyzed in the SPSS 11.5 statistical program, and it was found that family relations and professional commitment factors affecting employee satisfaction were effective at both hotels 41, while the reward factor was effective at Bandırma, which is an example of a city hotel, while physical conditions and professional training factors were effective at the hotel in Erdek, which is an example of a coastal hotel (Örücü and Esenkal 2010, pp. 142-143).



4. TELEWORK AS A TYPE OF FLEXIBLE WORKING: JOB SATISFACTION IMPLEMENTATION

4.1 THE AIM AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

In this study, the elements of flexible working and job satisfaction of individuals working in different business lines during the Covid-19 pandemic were considered. In this context, the satisfaction of employees working in various jobs was examined. The study also examined whether job satisfaction factors from these tasks differ according to demographic characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, number of children, home city, educational status, business sector.

Job satisfaction is an issue that is addressed quite often. What makes this research different from others is that the concept of job satisfaction is addressed at a rare time, such as the Covid-19 pandemic period. During this period, the mandatory transition of companies to flexible working means that the samples are more homogeneous in terms of business lines. This, in turn, causes the reality of the flexible working part of the study to be at the maximum level.

4.2 SOURCE OF DATA AND SAMPLING

In the thesis, from February to April 2021, Turkey's people from different cities, different levels of education, and different professional groups are targeted. In this context, the main mass consists of two hundred and fifty-eight people. One hundred of these people are men, and one hundred and fifty-eight are women. The cities of the people sampled are nineteen and their names are; Adana, Amasya, Ankara, Antalya, Aydın, Balıkesir, Bursa, Çanakkale, Erzincan, Eskişehir, Giresun, İstanbul, İzmir, Kars, Kırklareli, Kocaeli, Muğla, Niğde and Tekirdağ. In this context, from East to West to North to South, employees from all over Turkey were used as examples. Most of the contributors were from İstanbul.

4.3 METHODOLOGY

The survey was selected as the data collection method in the study. There are two sections in the survey forms. In the first part, job satisfaction is examined, and a short version of the *Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire* is used. *Exploratory factor analysis* has been applied to job satisfaction elements, and thus it is discussed how the information obtained from the inventory will exhibit a statistical structure. The other part of the survey includes demographic elements such as gender, age, marital status, number of children, home city, educational status, business sector. Demographic characteristics were encoded, gender was *Female* (1), *Male* (2); age was *18-24* (1), *25-34* (2), *35-44* (3), *45-54* (4), and *55 and above* (5); marital status was *Single* (1), *Divorced/Widow* (2), *Married* (3); the number of children was *1* (1), *2* (2), *three or more* (3), *None* (4); educational status was evaluated as *High School* (1), *Associate Degree* (2), *Bachelor's* (3), *Master's* (4), *Doctorate* (5).

The research data were analyzed by SPSS 26.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) statistical program. As stated earlier, reliability and *exploratory factor analysis* were applied to job satisfaction elements. After that, *Levene's test* and *Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)* analyses were applied to job satisfaction factors and whether these factors differed according to the demographic characteristics of the participants. But before all these analyses, *descriptive statistics* were applied to the demographic characteristics of the participants.

4.4 HYPOTHESES

Since no *exploratory factor analysis* has yet been performed in the study, it is not yet known what factors are based on job satisfaction in teleworking. Job satisfaction is considered as a whole, not on the basis of factors. There are two main and seventeen sub hypotheses;

Mains;

H0 Job Satisfaction For Demographic Reasons: There is a statistically significant relationship between demographic characteristics and job satisfaction.

H1 Job Satisfaction For Demographic Reasons: There is no statistically significant relationship between demographic characteristics and job satisfaction.

H2 Job Satisfaction Due To Remote Work: There is a statistically significant relationship between teleworking frequency and job satisfaction.

H3 Job Satisfaction Due To Remote Work: There is no statistically significant relationship between teleworking frequency and job satisfaction.

Subs;

H0A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on their gender.

H1A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on their gender.

H0B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on their educational status.

H1B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on their educational status.

H0C: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on their marital status.

H1C: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on their marital status.

H0D: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on the number of children.

H1D: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on the number of children.

H0E: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on working time.

H1E: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on working time.

H0F: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on salary.

H1F: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on salary.

H0G: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on age.

H1G: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on age.

H0H: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on the job position.

H1H: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on the job position.

H0I: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on the home city.

H1I: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on the home city.

H0J: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on experience.

H1J: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on experience.

H2A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on teleworking frequency.

H3A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on teleworking frequency.

H2B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on remote teleworking.

H3B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on remote teleworking.

H4A: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and IT Support.

H5A: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and IT Support.

H4B: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Physical and Psychological Effects.

H5B: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Physical and Psychological Effects.

H4C: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Staying Focused.

H5C: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Staying Focused.

H4D: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Changing Work Conditions.

H5D: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Changing Work Conditions.

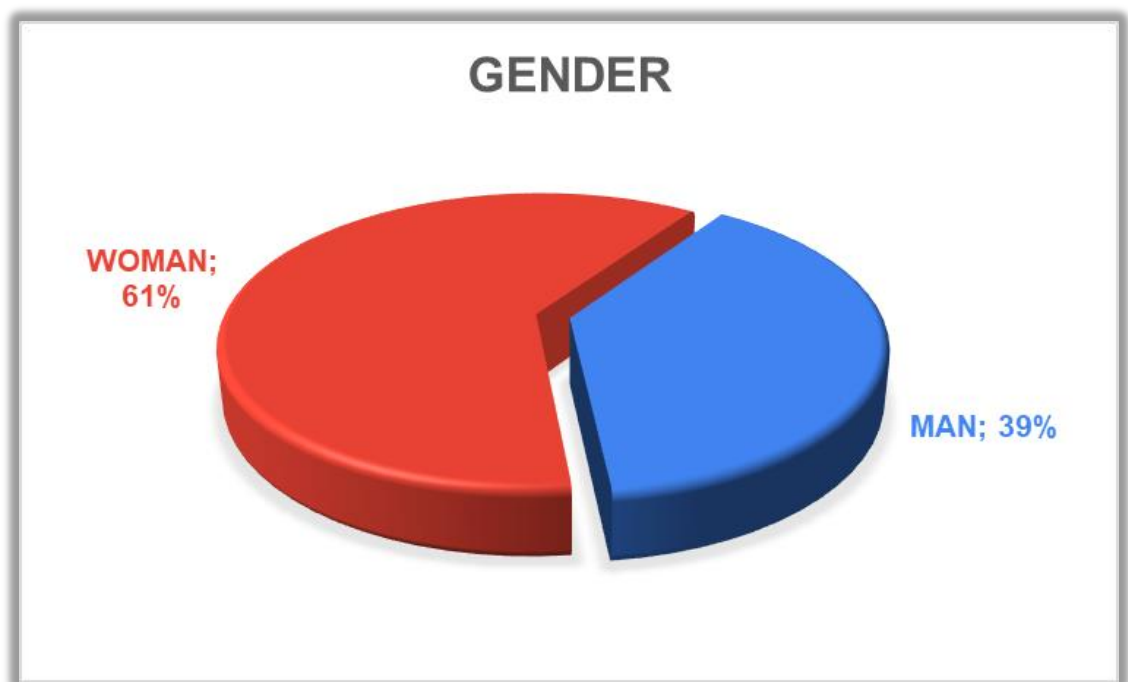
H4E: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Remote Working Barriers.

H5E: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Remote Working Barriers.

4.5 RESULTS OBTAINED BY DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

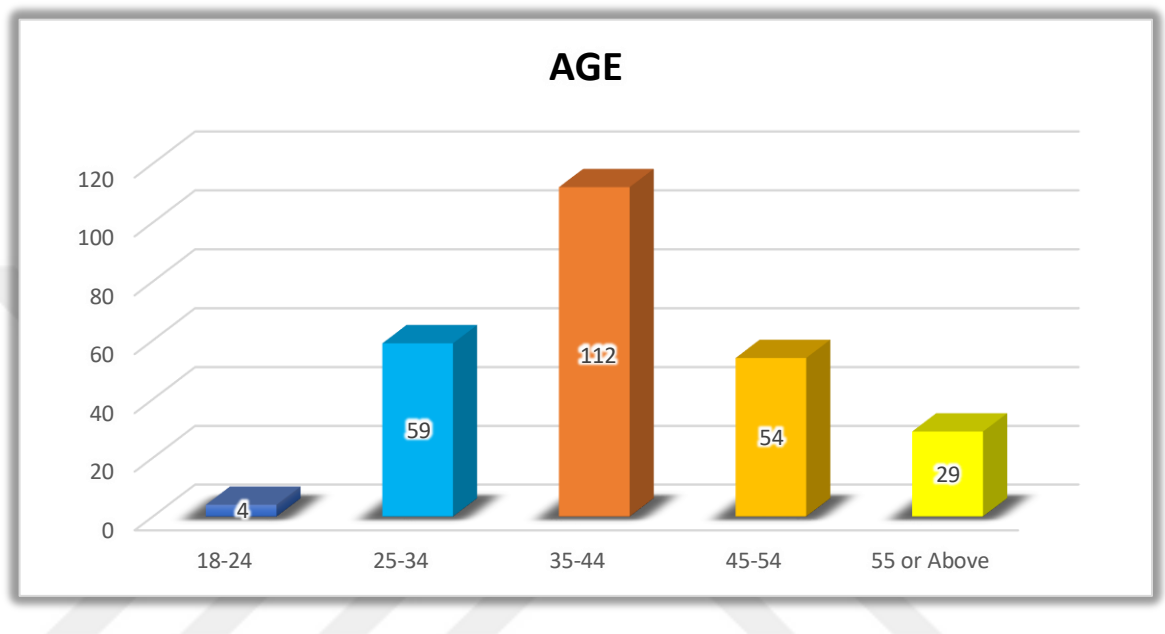
About 61 percent (158 participants) of the participants are female, while 39 percent (100 participants) are male. Figure 4.1 shows the gender distribution of participants.

Figure 4.1: Gender distribution of participants



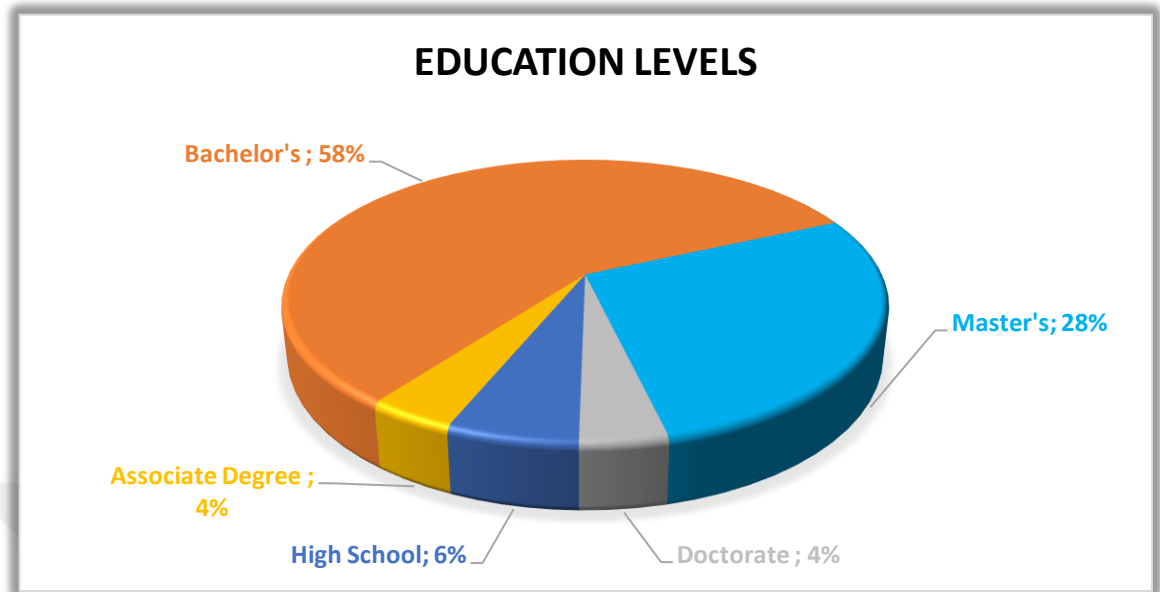
About 43 percent of participants are in the 35-44 age range, and 23 percent of participants are in the 25-34 age range. With the lowest rate, 1.5 percent of respondents constitute the youngest segment. Figure 4.2 shows the age distribution of participants.

Figure 4.2: Age distribution of participants



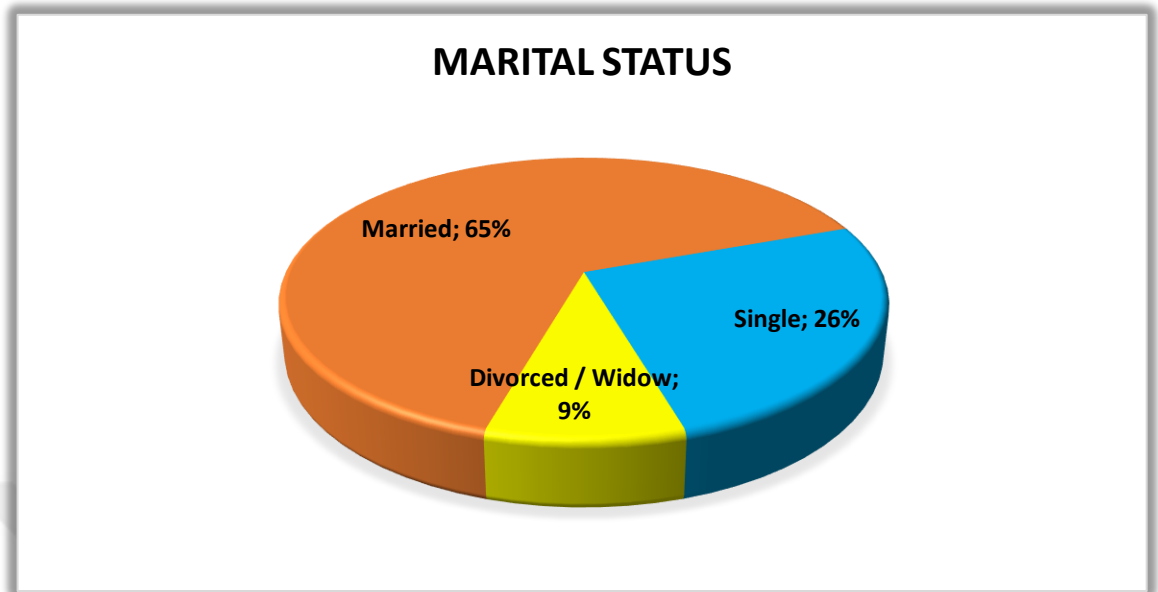
Considering the current education levels of the participants, 6 percent (fifteen participants) are high school, 4 percent are associate degrees (eleven participants), 58 percent are Bachelor's (one hundred and fifty participants), 28 percent are Master's (seventy-two participants), 4 percent holds a Doctorate (ten participants). Therefore, those with Bachelor's education predominate in the main mass. Figure 4.3 shows the education levels distribution of participants.

Figure 4.3: Education levels distribution of participants



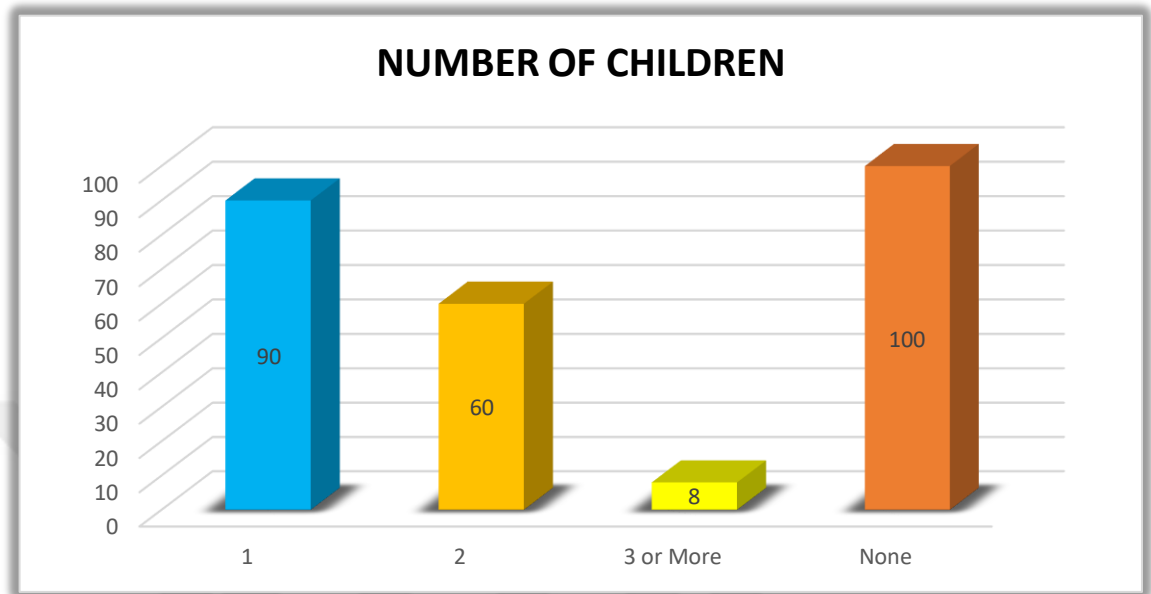
Considering the current marital status of the participants, 26 percent (sixty-seven participants) are single, 9 percent are divorced or widow (twenty-two participants), and 65 percent are married (one hundred and sixty-nine participants). Therefore, those with married status predominate in the main mass. Figure 4.4 shows the marital status distribution of participants.

Figure 4.4: Marital status distribution of participants



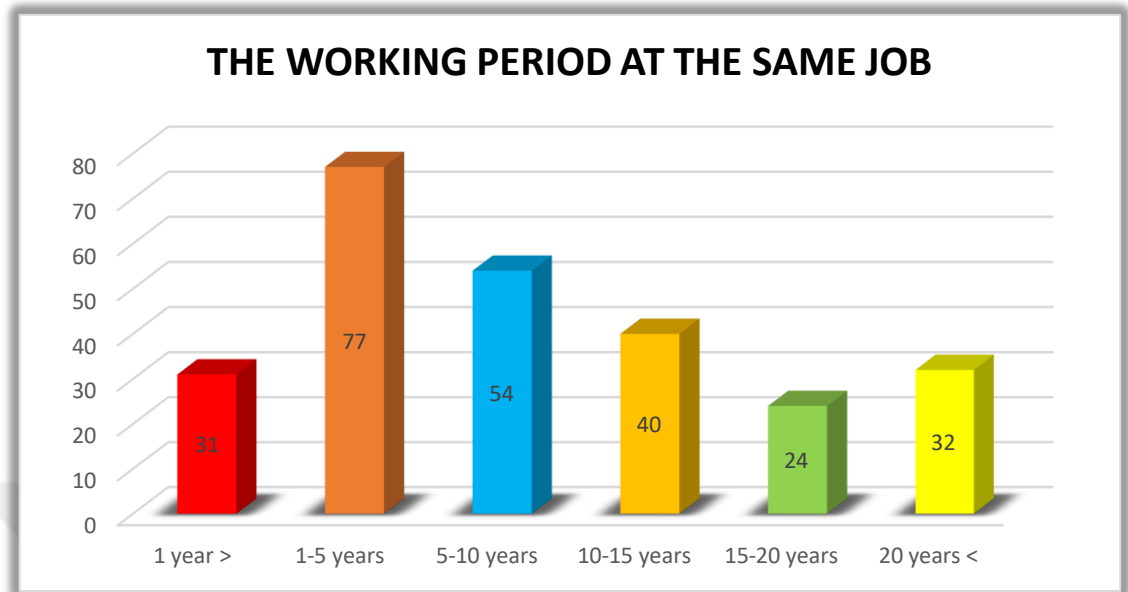
Of the 258 respondents, 90 (thirty-five percent) have 1 child. Of these 258 people, 60 (twenty-three percent) have 2 children, and 8 (three percent) have 3 or more children. The main majority is 100 (thirty-nine percent) people with no children. The main reason for this is that the total number of single people and those who are married but do not have children is 100. The proportion of participants with children to participants without children is 158 percent. Figure 4.5 shows the number of children distribution of participants.

Figure 4.5: Number of children distribution of participants



12 percent of the participants (31 participants) less than 1 year, 30 percent (77 participants) 1-5 years, 21 percent (54 participants) 5-10 years, 16 percent (40 participants) 10 -15 years, 9 percent (24 respondents) 15-20 years, and 12 percent (32 participants) have a total working time of 20 years or more at your current workplace. Figure 4.6 shows the working period at the same job distribution of participants.

Figure 4.6: The working period at the same job distribution of participants



Collar colors are named white, blue, and gold collars according to the nature of the job, and this naming is done by considering income, job field, and education. However, when these individuals are categorized in academic, social class studies, they are treated as working-class members, such as highly skilled workers, unskilled workers.

White-Collar, this term was used by Upton Sinclair, an American writer, in the 1930s in connection with clerical, administrative, and managerial functions. White-collar workers are often referred to as office workers who work in a commercial, nonprofit organization. White-collar workers work at a desk with more mental power than physical strength. A wide range of groups from civil servants to managerial positions is included in this scope.

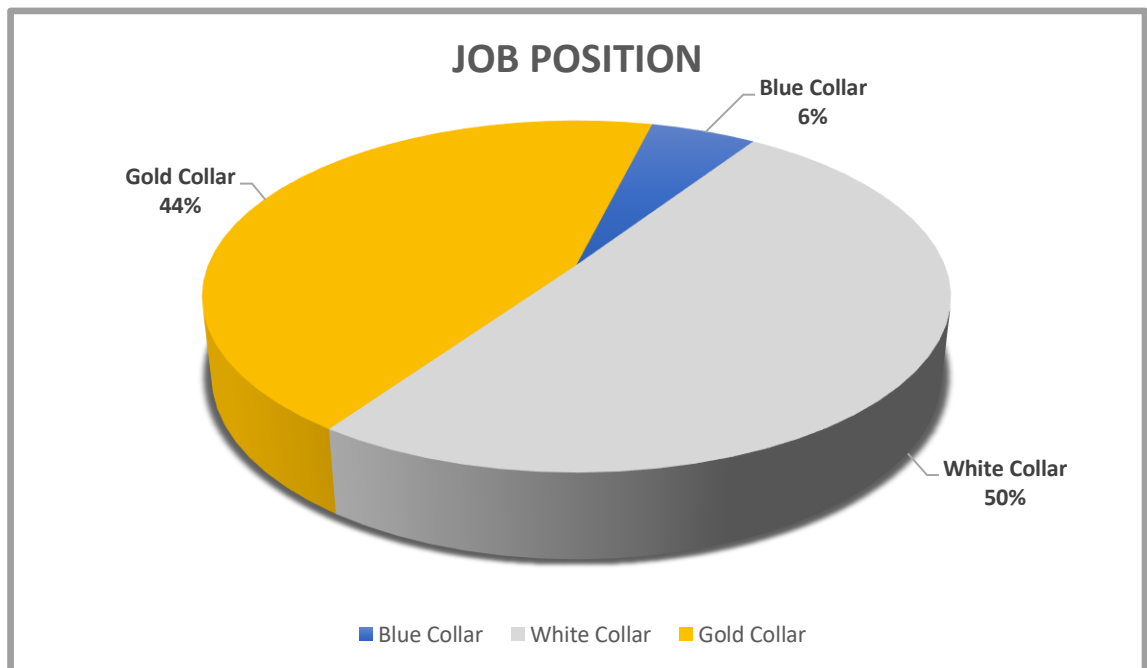
A blue-collar worker, a member of the working class, is the name given to workers who do manual work and are paid per hour or paid for the amount of work done. This term was first used in 1924. Blue-collar workers consist of workers who work with physical strength for a salary or fixed wages. Blue-collar workers work in manual labor. Blue-collar workers who work one-on-one in an enterprise that produces goods or services, in the field, on the field, or at the production counter, and who work in jobs that rely more

on physical strength than mental strength, may also be charged per piece, hourly or per diem.

In recent years, the concept of gold-collar employees has emerged in addition to white-collar and blue-collar employees. Gold-collar is a term used for high-level white-collar workers who are well educated, highly skilled, and can use technology very well. The most important features of those included in this class are their ability to use the available high-tech communication facilities, computers, and all kinds of tools that work with technology. They are transferred and employed with large wages in areas where technology is used at a high level and in companies with problems, and they generally work autonomously.¹¹

Looking at the participants in terms of job position, white-collar workers have the highest rate with 50 percent. White collars are followed by gold collars with 44 percent and blue collars with 6 percent.

Figure 4.7: Job position distribution of participants



¹¹ Kaya, A., 2018, Yaka Renkleri ve Anlamları, <https://www.tech-worm.com/yaka-renkleri-ve-anlamlari-beyaz-mavi-ve-altin-yaka/>.

4.6 RESULTS OBTAINED BY INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

In this section, *reliability*, *exploratory factor analysis*, and *Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)* analyses were performed. The results of these analyses were examined.

4.6.1 Reliability and Exploratory Factor Analysis About Job Satisfaction

As shown in Table 4.1, there are a total of 6 statements related to job satisfaction from working in teleworking, and *Cronbach's Alpha* value is 0.857. In this case, the job satisfaction statements in question have credibility.

Table 4.1: Reliability analysis of job satisfaction statements in teleworking

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,857	,859	6

Statements of job satisfaction from teleworking, which appear to have reliability in Table 4.1, can be continued with *exploratory factor analysis*. Table 4.2 contains the results of the *KMO* and *Bartlett* analyses to examine the suitability of the relevant statements for exploratory factor analysis.

Table 4.2: KMO and Bartlett's test results of job satisfaction statements related to teleworking

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,711
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2126,543
	df	435
	Sig.	,000

As Table 4.2 reveals, the KMO value is 0.711. Looking at Table 4.3, this value shows that the data is actually middling for factor analysis. At the same time, in this research, the main mass was studied; that is, all available data were used. It is shown in Table 4.2 that the Bartlett test value (Sig.<0.05), which is another suitability test for factor analysis, is significant and normally distributed.

Table 4.3: KMO Criterion Measurements Table

Criterion	Explanation
$1,00 \leq KMO \leq 0,90$	Marvelous
$0,90 \leq KMO \leq 0,80$	Meritorious
$0,80 \leq KMO \leq 0,70$	Middling
$0,70 \leq KMO \leq 0,60$	Mediocre
$0,60 \leq KMO \leq 0,50$	Miserable
$0,50 \leq KMO$	Unacceptable

In Table 4.2, it was seen that the data were suitable for exploratory factor analysis. See. Expressions ANNEX 1: Table 4.19 shows the results of exploratory factor analysis of the aforementioned data. Factors with an eigenvalue above 1 were considered in the analysis, and principal component analysis was applied. There are four statements that are not above 1 (Statement 7, 10, 16, and 22), so these statements were extracted in this analysis. The principal component analysis is shown in Table 4.4. Accordingly, six factors emerged, and these six factors explain 87.87% of the total variance.

Table 4.4: Communalities Statements Table: Principal Component Analysis

	Initial	Extraction
Statement 1	1	,664
Statement 2	1	,453
Statement 3	1	,563
Statement 4	1	,555
Statement 5	1	,380
Statement 6	1	,619
Statement 8	1	,556
Statement 9	1	,578
Statement 11	1	,507
Statement 12	1	,469
Statement 13	1	,557
Statement 14	1	,721
Statement 15	1	,392
Statement 17	1	,522
Statement 18	1	,674
Statement 19	1	,531

Statement 20	1	,606
Statement 21	1	,547
Statement 23	1	,549
Statement 24	1	,671
Statement 25	1	,550
Statement 26	1	,497
Statement 27	1	,640
Statement 28	1	,786
Statement 29	1	,606
Statement 30	1	,750
Statement 31	1	,292
Statement 32	1	,682
Statement 33	1	,532

The six factors that appear in Table 4.19: Rotated Component Matrix are:

IT Support: This factor covers all kinds of IT-related issues, from providing the necessary equipment and infrastructure for the company's employees to work at home to the necessary training.

Satisfaction: The content of this factor addresses issues such as participants' job satisfaction, motivation, work and leisure, and work-related policies.

Staying Focused: includes topics such as work discipline, time use, working times, work environment, and concentration.

Changing work conditions: includes topics such as workload, reporting, meetings, and time spent at work.

Physical and psychological effects of working remotely: It includes topics such as flexibility of working hours, slowing down of work, physical and psychological problems, sleep balance, disruptions in working order, anxiety.

Remote working barriers: office equipment, remote connection performance problem, problems in using the program are in this group.

4.6.2 Hypothesis Tests Involving Job Satisfaction Factors and Demographics Related to Teleworking

As a result of the application carried out to measure the job satisfaction of the employees from their duties with remote working, analyzes were made about whether each of the factors that emerged differs according to demographic characteristics such as gender, education status, marital status, and under this heading, the said analyzes and their results.

All hypotheses relate to job satisfaction felt in terms of working remotely:

H0A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on their gender.

H1A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on their gender.

In Table 4.5, Levene and difference analyses of the hypothesis were performed. As can be seen in Table 4.5, the variations of gender elements with job satisfaction felt in terms of teleworking are homogeneous. Based on the results of the difference analysis, job satisfaction from the point of view of teleworking does not differ by gender.

Table 4.5: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between gender and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Female	158	,0314327	1,05738999
	Male	100	-,0496636	,90486726
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
		F	Sig.	t

REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Equal variances assumed	,886	,347	,634
	Equal variances not assumed			,656

The analyzes between job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and educational status are given in Table 4.6. According to Levene's statistics, variances are not homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, education status does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on their educational status.

H1B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on their educational status.

Table 4.6: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between educational status and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	3,569	4	253	,007
	Based on Median	2,154	4	253	,075
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2,154	4	221,104	,075
	Based on trimmed mean	3,4	4	253	,010
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,115	4	1,529	1,542	,191
Within Groups	250,885	253	,992		
Total	257	257			

The analyzes between job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and marital status are given in Table 4.7. According to Levene's statistics, variances are not homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, marital status has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0C: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on their marital status.

H1C: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on their marital status.

Table 4.7: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between marital status and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	3,772	2	255	,024
	Based on Median	1,887	2	255	,154
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,887	2	223,117	,154
	Based on trimmed mean	3.523	2	255	,031
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,043	2	3,022	3,070	,048
Within Groups	250,957	255	,984		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and the number of children is given in Table 4.8. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous.

According to the difference analysis, the number of children does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0D: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on the number of children.

H1D: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on the number of children.

Table 4.8: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between the number of children and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	1,559	3	254	,200
	Based on Median	1,231	3	254	,299
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,231	3	235,539	,299
	Based on trimmed mean	1,462	3	254	,225
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,464	3	1,488	1,497	,216
Within Groups	252,536	254	,994		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and working time is given in Table 4.9. According to Levene's statistics, variances are not homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, working time has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0E: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on working time.

H1E: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on working time.

Table 4.9: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between the working time and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	2,633	5	252	,024
	Based on Median	2,362	5	252	,041
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2,362	5	235,539	,041
	Based on trimmed mean	2,646	5	254	,024
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16,471	5	3,294	3,451	,005
Within Groups	240,529	252	,994		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and salary is given in Table 4.10. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, salary has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0F: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on salary.

H1F: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on salary.

Table 4.10: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between salary and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	2,193	4	243	,070
	Based on Median	1,690	4	243	,153
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,690	4	230,400	,153
	Based on trimmed mean	2,176	4	243	,072
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14,780	4	3,695	3,807	,005
Within Groups	235,830	243	,970		
Total	250,611	247			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and age is given in Table 4.11. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, age does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0G: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on age.

H1G: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on age.

Table 4.11: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between age and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	Based on Mean	1,475	4	153	,210

REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Median	1,443	4	253	,220
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,443	4	245,140	,220
	Based on trimmed mean	1,526	4	253	,195
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,338	4	,585	,581	,677
Within Groups	254,662	253	1,007		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and job positions are given in Table 4.12. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, job position does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0H: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on the job position.

H1H: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on the job position.

Table 4.12: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between job position and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	,694	7	250	,677
	Based on Median	,505	7	250	,831

	Based on Median and with adjusted df	,505	7	228,599	,830
	Based on trimmed mean	,625	7	250	,735
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,885	7	,698	,692	,679
Within Groups	252,115	250	1,008		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and the home city are given in Table 4.13. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, the home city does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0I: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on the home city.

H1I: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on the home city.

Table 4.13: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between the home city and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	2,292	1	256	,131
	Based on Median	,773	1	256	,380
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	,773	1	235,547	,380

	Based on trimmed mean	1,891	1	256	,170
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,002	1	,002	,002	,961
Within Groups	256,998	256	1,004		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and experience is given in Table 4.14. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, experience has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H0J: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on experience.

H1J: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on experience.

Table 4.14: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between experience and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	1,417	4	252	,229
	Based on Median	1,023	4	252	,396
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,023	4	243,827	,396
	Based on trimmed mean	1,305	4	252	,269

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13,312	5	2,662	2,753	,019
Within Groups	243,688	252	,967		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and teleworking frequency is given in Table 4.15. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, teleworking frequency has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H2A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on teleworking frequency.

H3A: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on teleworking frequency.

Table 4.15: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between teleworking frequency and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Based on Mean	,716	2	255	,490
	Based on Median	1,227	2	255	,295
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,227	2	243,215	,295
	Based on trimmed mean	,915	2	255	,402
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,081	2	3,540	3,612	,028

Within Groups	249,919	255	,980		
Total	257,000	257			

The analysis of job satisfaction in terms of teleworking and remote teleworking is given in Table 4.16. According to Levene's statistics, variances are homogeneous. According to the difference analysis, remote teleworking does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H2B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking does not differ depending on remote teleworking.

H3B: The job satisfaction of employees in terms of teleworking differs depending on remote teleworking.

Table 4.16: Homogeneity and difference analysis of variances between remote teleworking and job satisfaction in terms of teleworking

	Remote Teleworking	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Yes	174	,1098717	,9879688
	No	84	-,2275913	,99205426
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
		F	Sig.	t
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 2	Equal variances assumed	,977	,324	2,567
	Equal variances not assumed			2,564

Regression and Pearson Correlation test results are given in Table 4.17 and Table 4.18. Table 4.17 shows the Coefficients results, and Table 4.18 shows the Correlation results. In the light of these data, the following can be said;

According to the correlation analysis, IT Support has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H4A: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and IT Support.

H5A: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and IT Support.

According to the correlation analysis, Physical and Psychological Effects do not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H4B: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Physical and Psychological Effects.

H5B: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Physical and Psychological Effects.

According to the correlation analysis, Staying Focused has a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H4C: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Staying Focused.

H5C: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Staying Focused.

According to the correlation analysis, Changing Work Conditions does not have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H4D: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Changing Work Conditions.

H5D: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Changing Work Conditions.

According to the correlation analysis, Remote Working Barriers have a significant effect on job satisfaction in terms of teleworking.

H4E: There is a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Remote Working Barriers.

H5E: There is no significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Remote Working Barriers.

Table 4.17: Coefficients tables for job satisfaction between factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	Job Satisfaction (Constant)	,108	,072		1,503	,135
	REGR factor score IT Support	,251	,072	,253	3,489	,001
	REGR factor score Physical and Psychological Effects	-,014	,072	-,014	-,196	,845
	REGR factor score Staying Focused	-,162	,072	-,164	-2,262	,025
	REGR factor score Changing Work Conditions	,015	,072	,016	,216	,830

	REGR factor score Remote Working Barriers	-,173	,072	-,175	-2,412	,017
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Table 4.18: Correlations tables for job satisfaction between factors

		REGR factor score Job Satisfaction	REGR factor score IT Support	REGR factor score Physical and Psychological Effects	REGR factor score Staying Focused	REGR factor score Changing Work Conditions	REGR factor score Remote Working Barriers
REGR factor score Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	,253**	-,014	-,164*	,016	-,175*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,001	,852	,031	,838	,021
	N	258	173	173	173	173	173
REGR factor score IT Support	Pearson Correlation	,253**	1	0	0	0	0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001		1	1	1	1
	N	173	173	173	173	173	173
REGR factor score Physical and Psychological Effects of Remote Working	Pearson Correlation	-,014	0	1	0	0	0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,852	1		1	1	1
	N	173	173	173	173	173	173
REGR factor score Staying Focused	Pearson Correlation	-,164*	0	0	1	0	0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,031	1	1		1	1
	N	173	173	173	173	173	173

REGR factor score Changing Work Conditions	Pearson Correlation	,016	0	0	0	1	0
	Sig. (2- tailed)	,838	1	1	1		1
	N	173	173	173	173	173	173
REGR factor score Remote Working Barriers	Pearson Correlation	-,175*	0	0	0	0	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	,021	1	1	1	1	
	N	173	173	173	173	173	173



5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Along with the changing world order, there have been changes in working times and places. Alternative applications have been added to the standard working methods. Flexible working hours, which have been implemented for years in various European countries such as England, have started to be implemented in our country as well. For example; Flexible working forms such as telecommuting, working on-call, and remote working provide the opportunity for employees to coordinate their work and private lives as they wish. For this reason, it is preferred especially for female employees, employees who cannot actively participate in working life due to their physical disabilities, and students who continue their education.

As stated, flexible working styles offer the opportunity for employees to work at a suitable time and place. In the face of this situation, the satisfaction that employees get from their work is an important concept in terms of happiness in their business and private life. Job satisfaction, which expresses the satisfaction of the employees with their job, the environment, and working conditions, results in the willingness of the employees and their commitment to their jobs. There are many individuals and organizational factors that affect the job satisfaction of employees. When these factors are of a nature to ensure job satisfaction of the employee, they create positive results such as efficient work for the employer and the employee and low employee turnover; Employees who do not have job satisfaction are not committed enough to their jobs, they work reluctantly, and they have the motivation to change jobs with the thought that job satisfaction will be higher in case of finding a job with better conditions. This situation creates negative consequences for the employer, such as the high turnover rate.

Employees with high job satisfaction have high motivation and productivity levels. Employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs and have low job satisfaction do not have enough trust and commitment to the institution they work for, they have to continue to work due to the difficulty of changing jobs due to difficult economic conditions, and this can lead to negative results that may lead to psychological disorders. This situation causes

an increase in the number of employees who are unhappy in their business and private life.

In this study, it was tried to determine the effects of demographic characteristics such as gender, educational status, marital status on job satisfaction in the care of teleworking during the pandemic period. For this purpose, a survey study was conducted to measure the job satisfaction of the employees. The data obtained from the questionnaire were evaluated in the SPSS statistical program. Six factors were found related to the job satisfaction of employees as a result of teleworking.

The six factors obtained from the survey statements are as follows;

- i. Changing work conditions
- ii. Physical and psychological effects of working remotely
- iii. Staying focused
- iv. IT support
- v. Remote working barriers
- vi. Satisfaction

The following results were obtained under the title of Changing work conditions;

The majority of the participants state that their workload has increased as a result of teleworking. Again, looking at the answers given by the majority of the participants, it is seen that their reporting increased as a result of teleworking. Another result is that as a result of teleworking, interviews and meetings have been completely moved to the phone or virtual environment. According to the last changing work conditions factor statement, employees think that their working hours are longer.

The following results were obtained under the title of Staying Focused;

Survey respondents think they save time by working remotely. Another result is that employees work more regularly and are disciplined from home. The participants stated that they both determined their working hours and could not determine their working

hours almost equally. Teleworking offers employees the opportunity to work away from intense stress and noise, and they can concentrate more easily on their work while working remotely.

The following results were obtained under the title of physical and psychological effects of working remotely;

Employees stated that their sleep patterns did not deteriorate during the working from home period, there was no decrease in work disciplines and no tendency to postpone work due to comfort, and their working patterns did not deteriorate. Again, looking at the answers given by the majority of the participants, it is revealed that they experience flexibility in working hours together with teleworking. On the other hand, many employees also stated that they experience physical problems due to the inactivity caused by working from home. The psychological problems caused by staying at home all the time divided the participants into two.

The following results were obtained under the IT Support title;

For employees, their companies provide the necessary equipment to work from home, environments such as online meetings and conferences, and sufficient remote access infrastructure. At the same time, companies provide training on teleworking and necessary training on information security. In this way, workplaces provide information security in the best way.

The following results were obtained under the title of Remote working barriers;

The vast majority of the participants think that home is a suitable environment for doing business. In addition to not having performance problems while accessing the systems necessary for teleworking, the software programs (applications) they use are user-friendly.

The following results were obtained under the title of Satisfaction;

Participants are very satisfied with their current job. Most days, they eagerly go about their business. It certainly doesn't feel like every day at work is going to end. Therefore, they find their work enjoyable.

According to the test results, four survey statements had to be excluded from the study.

As a result of Levene's T-Test and One-Way tests, the following Hypotheses were homogeneous;

- i. H0A and H1A: Relation between job satisfaction and gender
- ii. H0B and H1B: Relation between job satisfaction and educational status
- iii. H0C and H1C: Relation between job satisfaction and marital status
- iv. H0D and H1D: Relation between job satisfaction and the number of children
- v. H0F and H1F: Relation between job satisfaction and salary
- vi. H0G and H1G: Relation between job satisfaction and age
- vii. H0H and H1H: Relation between job satisfaction and job position
- viii. H0I and H1I: Relation between job satisfaction and home city
- ix. H0J and H1J: Relation between job satisfaction and experience
- x. H2A and H3A: Relation between job satisfaction and teleworking frequency
- xi. H2B and H3B: Relation between job satisfaction and remote teleworking

As a result of Levene's T-Test and One-Way tests, the following Hypotheses were not homogeneous;

- i. H0E and H1E: Relation between job satisfaction and the working time

The results of this homogeneity test show us that; The survey I made has almost exactly homogeneous answers. In addition, according to the test results, marital status, working time, salary, experience, and teleworking frequency have an impact on job satisfaction. On the other hand, gender, educational status, the number of children, age, job position, home city, and remote teleworking do not have an effect that will make a difference.

Job satisfaction plays an extremely important role in individuals' ability to establish a work-life balance. Happy employees or satisfied employees who can balance their working and private lives continue to increase their productivity in their working life. On the contrary, this dissatisfaction of individuals who experience job dissatisfaction can spread to their private lives and cause serious consequences that cause them to experience physical and psychological disorders.



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