

**T.C.
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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
KAMU YÖNETİMİ ANA BİLİM DALI
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT & DEVELOPMENT
BİLİM DALI**

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB RELATED
AFFECTIVE WELL BEING AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT AT RETAIL SECTOR**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

SİNEMİS DOĞAN

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DANIŞMAN

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Marmara Üniversitesi
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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB RELATED AFFECTIVE WELL BEING AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AT RETAIL SECTOR

By Sinemis Doğan

The main purpose of the research is based on the expectation that job related affective well being (JAWS) will correlate with organizational commitment (OC) on retail sector. Research is carried out with 82 retail sector employees working at different sales positions and have at least 6 months of company experience. Research area is selected as durable consumer goods retailer in İstanbul, Turkey.

A quantitative method is selected for this research and OC score is used as dependent variable and JAWS and subscores (High Pleasure High Arousal (HPHA), High Pleasure Low Arousal (HPLA), Low Pleasure High Arousal (LPHA), Low Pleasure Low Arousal (LPLA)) are used as independent variables in the analysis.

Factor analysis of the independent and dependent variables are implemented. Then participants' JAWS scores and OC scores are investigated by variance analysis and t-test methods with respect to demographic properties. Descriptive statistics and frequency distributions showed that none of the demographic attribute is related with any of our variables with the exception of "position", where a positive relationship exists between position and OC.

Finally, with regression analysis, correlation between JAWS score and OC scores are determined with a determination coefficient $r^2=0,64$. For all subscores correlation exists with OC score, with $r=0,7$ for HPHA, $r=0,62$ for HPLA, $r=-0,615$ for LPHA, $r=-0,684$ for LPLA.

ÖZET

PERAKENDE SEKTÖRÜNDE İŞE İLİŞKİN DUYUŞSAL İYİLİK ALGISI VE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Sinemis Doğan

Araştırmanın ana amacı perakende sektöründe İşe İlişkin Duyuşsal İyilik Algısı (İİDİA) ve Örgütsel Bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymak üzerine temellenmiştir. Araştırma en az altı aylık şirket deneyimi olan, değişik satış pozisyonlarından, 82 perakende sektörü çalışanının katılımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırma alanı, İstanbul Türkiye’deki dayanıklı tüketim malları perakendesi olarak seçilmiştir.

Kantitatif metot seçilerek, analizde örgütsel bağlılık skoru bağımlı, İİDİA ve alt skorları (Yüksek Memnuniyet Yüksek Uyarılmışlık (YMYU), Yüksek Memnuniyet Düşük Uyarılmışlık (YMDU), Düşük Memnuniyet Yüksek Uyarılmışlık (DMYU), Düşük Memnuniyet Düşük Uyarılmışlık (DMDU) bağımsız değişkenler olarak kullanılmıştır.

Bağımlı ve bağımsız değişkenlerin faktör analizleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. Daha sonra katılımcıların İİDİA ve örgütsel bağlılık skorları demografik özelliklere karşı varyans analizi ve t-testi yöntemleriyle incelenmiştir. Tanımlayıcı istatistik ve frekans dağılımları, ‘pozisyon’ haricindeki demografik özelliklerin değişkenlerle ilişki göstermemiş, ‘pozisyon’ ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında ise pozitif yönlü bir ilişki bulunmuştur.

Son olarak, regresyon analizi ile, İİDİA ve Örgütsel Bağlılık skorları arasında korelasyon tespit edilmiş, determinasyon katsayısı $r^2=0,64$ olarak belirlenmiştir. Tüm alt skorlarla örgütsel bağlılık arasında korelasyon tespit edilmiştir, YMYU için $r=0,7$, YMDU için $r=0,62$, DMYU için $r=-0,615$ ve DMDU için $r=-0,684$ belirlenmiştir.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Organizational commitment is generally defined as the attachment of the individual to the organization. Organizational commitment can be an important instrument for improving the performance of organizations. Employee's behaviours toward their work and their organization have been the subject of a great deal of research over the past three decades. Specifically, researchers have attempted to determine those behaviours which are related to important organizational outcomes. The main purpose of this research is to find the relationship between job related affective well being on organizational commitment.

The effort for understanding and exploring human well being, satisfaction, is an activity being continued since early ages. Life being more colorful and rich with fast, positive emotions is every individual's desire. Being well, is multifaceted and complex that it can not be explained by economical income level, or money, to be the only factor. Structure of well being is investigated by using various models for individual's cognitive, positional and personal characteristics.

Main aim of the research is based on the expectation that four dimensions of job related affective well being will correlate with organizational commitment. Research is carried out with 82 retail sector employees working at different sales positions, using Job related affective well being (JAWS) and Organizational Commitment scales. JAWS is developed by Katwyk, Fox, Spector & Kelloway's in 2000 and translated and adapted to Turkish by Bayram, Kuşdil, Aytaç ve Bilgel in 2003. Since it is relatively new, it is used very limitedly in Turkey.

Job related affective well being is often investigated in psychology and thought

to be related with issues such as job satisfaction, productivity but not yet thoroughly investigated at retail sector where commitment is assumed to be low.

We aimed to investigate the relationship of job related affective well being and organizational commitment which is assumed to be positive, on a selected sample group. The relationship between two may help other research about relationship of job related affective well being with other issues. With this research we will be able to investigate retail sector employees' affective groups, via JAWS subscales.

We like to research the relation between JAWS and organizational commitment. When job related affective well being level increases, if there is an increase or decrease at commitment to the organization or vice versa.

We also aimed to find out the affects of the two main axis of JAWS (pleasure and arousal axis) at organizational commitment. We want to see which axis is more effective on commitment and how this effect works.

2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

2.1. Organizational Commitment

2.1.1. Definitions and Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

The concept of organizational commitment has been variably and extensively defined and researched for several decades. With the increased importance given to organizational commitment, there have been considerable developments in terms of theory and research.

Organizational commitment is generally defined as the attachment of the individual to the organization. The mostly used and accepted definition of organizational commitment is given by Porter and Smith (1970). According to Porter and Smith, organizational commitment is an identification with and involvement in the organization, characterized by the internalization of the values and goals of the organization, a willingness to work extra hard on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in the organization. This definition implies that the link between the behavioral and the organization is an attitudinal link.

Organizational commitment is a multi faceted and complex concept; therefore there are different definitions in explaining what it is exactly. A number of definitions exist in the literature, some being parallel views and some being more comprehensive than others. Mowday (1982) described these two approaches (behavioral and attitudinal) as follows.

“Attitudinal commitment focused on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of organization. Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem.”

Becker's defines community by the “Side-Bet Theory” (1960), organizational commitment is the degree an individual or the organization has placed "side-bets" on the continuance of employment. These side-bets represent non-recoverable investments that are lost if the individual chooses to leave the firm. In other words, commitment is the tendency to engage in "consistent lines of activity" because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise. Here, the activity is staying with the organization, and the perceived costs are associated with discontinuing the activity (leaving) which might include the loss of attractive benefits and seniority, disruption of personal relations created by moving to another location, loss of status in the organization, the effort of seeking a new job, and so on.

According to Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian (1974), commitment is "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization".

Morrow (1993) proposed two ways to advance work commitment research. First she suggested that among all foci of work commitment five are basic in the sense that they are relevant to as many employees as possible, and she termed them universal forms of work commitment. These are affective commitment to the organization,

continuance commitment to the organization, work ethic endorsement, career commitment, and job involvement.

Morrow's model should be compared with an earlier one proposed and tested by Randall and Cote (1991), who tested slightly different forms of commitment. These are PWE (protestant work ethic), career commitment, organizational commitment, work group attachment, and job involvement. They included only one form of organizational commitment, the affective one, and instead of the continuance organizational commitment in Morrow's model theirs had the work group attachment form. Four forms of commitment; affective organizational commitment, PWE, career commitment, and job involvement.

An alternative view is presented by Meyer and Allen (1991), who defined three components of organizational commitment, TCM (Three Component Model):

- (a) Affective commitment (refers to the definition of Porter et al., 1974),
- (b) Continuance commitment (refers to definition of Becker, 1960)
- (c) Normative commitment (refers to an obligation to remain in the organization).

These three components of commitment are alternatively described as the product of (a) emotional attachments (affective commitment); (b) the costs of leaving, such as losing attractive benefits or seniority (continuance commitment); and (c) the individual personal values (normative commitment) (Brief, 1998)

According Meyer and Allen (1991)'s view, commitment as an emotional attachment and identification with and involvement in the organization is called affective commitment; commitment as an attachment based on the cost of leaving the organization is called continuance commitment; and a feeling of obligation to stay in the organization is called normative commitment.

Affective commitment refers to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization and it has been related to personal characteristics, organizational structures, and work experiences, for example pay, supervision, role clarity, and skill variety (Hartmann, 2000).

Affective organizational commitment was found to be related to a wide variety of correlates. The literature (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Morrow, 1993) suggested that affective commitment is related to both demographic characteristics and work experience. Affective commitment was also found to be positively related to performance (Meyre, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson, 1989). The literature also indicated positive spillover between variables representing nonwork domains and affective commitment (Kirchmeyer, 1992).

Affective commitment is based more on perceptions of similar values and goals, and it occurs when an individual identifies with and is involved in a particular organization. It is the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, belongingness, and it describes the employees' emotional bond or attachment to an organization (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993).

Employees whose experiences within the organization are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs tend to develop a stronger affective attachment to the organization than those whose experiences are less satisfying. Affective commitment reflects both strong and broadly based ties to various facets of the organization, and its goals and values (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Affectively committed employees remain with the organization "for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth." (Buchanan, 1974).

Continuance commitment reflects a relationship that is largely based on an exchange between the employee and the organization; members develop commitment to the organization. Because they see it as beneficial regarding costs and rewards (Randall and O'Driscoll, 1997). Employees whose commitment is continuance stay because they need to; they feel they have no other choice. Continuance commitment presumably develops as employees recognize that they have accumulated investments or "side bets" that could be lost if they were to leave the organization or as they recognize that the availability of comparable alternatives is limited (Meyer & Allen, 1993). This approach is developed from Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, in which individuals engage in consistent lines of activity because they recognize the costs associated with discontinuing the activity.

Continuance commitment, which reflects the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, should be related to anything that increases perceived costs. Direct or indirect investments in the organization, side bets, represent such costs best, and were operationalized mainly by variables like age, education, and tenure (Becker, 1960). Therefore, the above demographic variables and tenure are expected to demonstrate the strongest relationship with continuance commitment. Meyer et al. (1989) found a negative relationship between continuance commitment and

performance based on the expectation that people who feel 'stacked' in an organization will not exert too much effort. Such a relationship is expected here.

Research has shown that the variable continuance organizational commitment has two dimensions: 'personal sacrifices' and 'high alternatives' (Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf, 1994; McGee and Ford, 1987; Somers, 1993). There is little research on antecedents of the two dimensions of continuance commitment. The theoretical rationale behind the two constructs suggests that 'personal sacrifices' will be related to variables that represent side bets, namely investments that might be lost if one leaves the organization. Demographic variables such as age and tenure are considered good indicators of such side bets (Becker, 1960). For example, older and veteran employees will hesitate to leave the organization so as not to lose pension plans or other accumulated benefits. Conceptually, the 'low alternatives' dimension represents a construct similar to withdrawal cognitions, and thus is expected to relate to situational variables affecting stay/leave factors like job satisfaction, perceived performance, or job tension.

Continuance commitment refers to an investment made by the individual, which would be lost or deemed worthless at some perceived cost to the individual if he or she leaves the organization. These investments include pension plans, development of organization-specific skills or status, use of organizational benefits such as premiums, reduced mortgage rate and so on. Briefly it is a threat of loss that commits the person to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Continuance commitment is generally developed on the basis of an "economic rationale" (Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978).

Continuance commitment relates to perceived costs of leaving, both financial and non-financial (Becker, 1960) and perceived lack of alternatives (Hrebniak & Alutto, 1972; Ritzer & Trice, 1969). In the past organizations have developed arrangements such as promotion based on tenure, accrued pensions and sick leave, which penalize those who leave the organization prematurely. Other potential costs of leaving include less effort if skills or systems are non-transferable, disruption associated with changes in family arrangements; and loss of valued future opportunities. Alternatives reflect the availability and suitability of other work opportunities. Perceptions of few alternatives may create a negative effect on commitment of those who are dissatisfied with their present work situation, and a positive affect for those who are satisfied (Hartmann, 2000).

Normative commitment refers to an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. Thus, employees with strong normative commitment will remain with an organization by virtue of their belief that is the "right and moral thing to do" (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981; Wiener, 1982).

According to Meyer & Allen (1991) normative commitment refers to a perceived obligation to remain with the organization. These individuals stay with the organization because they feel they should. Normative commitment develops as a result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer (Wiener, 1982) or through the receipt of benefits (e.g. tuition payments and skill training) that create within the employee a sense of obligation to reciprocate (Scholl, 1981).

It has also been suggested that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the organization makes in the employee-specifically, investment that seem difficult for employees to reciprocate (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1980)

Finally, Allen & Meyer (1997) et al. normative commitment might also develop on the basis of the "psychological contract" between an employee and the organization. Psychological contracts consist of the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligation. Unlike more formal contracts, psychological contracts are subjective and therefore, might be viewed somewhat differently by the two parties. Psychological contracts are also subject to change over time as one or both parties perceive obligations to have been fulfilled or violated (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). Thus, for example, it might be that an employee who initially responds to an organizational investment with feelings of indebtedness will later reevaluate these feelings if it is determined that the organization has violated some other aspects of the psychological contract. Finally, psychological contracts can take different forms, the most widely recognized of which are transactional and relational (MacNeil, 1985; Rousseau, 1989). Transactional contract tend to be somewhat more objective and based on principles of economic exchanges, whereas relational contracts are more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Of the two forms, relational contracts seem more relevant to normative commitment; in contrast, transactional contracts might be involved in the development of continuance commitment (Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1995).

Employees' commitment to the organization has effects on the employees themselves, on the organization and on society. As employees become more committed, they show reduced withdrawal behaviors and increased citizenship behaviors in their organization. Also, they receive more extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. On the other hand,

employee's commitment brings decreased amount of job movement and greater productivity, which benefits society as a whole (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

There are some other various forms of defining the organizational commitment. If the commitment literature has been reviewed thoroughly, it can be seen that it is possible to place all these definitions and explanations in two broad categories: (Salancik, G.R., 1977)

1- Behavioral versus Attitudinal commitment

2- Psychological versus Calculative commitment.

Behavioral Commitment: This approach is based on a distinction made between behaviors and attitudes. Salancik and Staw (1977) state that behavior is the basis for commitment. According to them, commitment is a behavior and results mainly from the constraints on a worker's ability to leave the organization and from the choices binding the worker to the organization. The behavioral approach does not view commitment as an attachment resulting from shared values and goals of the worker and the organization.

Attitudinal Commitment: Attitudinal approach, on the other hand, views commitment as a process by which an individual comes to desire organizational membership and to identify with the goals and values of the organization. According to Buchanan (1974), commitment is a partisan emotional devotion to the goals and values of an organization (identification), to the individual role considering these goals and values (involvement) and to the organization disregarding any instrumental benefit to

the individual. In this definition, organizational identification and involvement terms are used. These terms are sometimes used in place of organizational commitment concept.

Organizational identification refers to the interests and goals shared with the other members of the organization, a feeling of belongingness to the organization, and a loyalty component whereby the individual supports and defends the goals and policies of the organization (Patchen, 1970). Organizational involvement, on the other hand, is the willingness of a person to engage in activities which are consistent with and supporting the objectives of the organization, and characterized by a desire to maintain membership, job involvement, and a congruency between the individual's values and the policies and goals of the organization (Gould, 1979). These concepts should be thought as the dimensions of organizational commitment and not be used instead of it. Porter and his colleagues also followed the attitudinal approach (1974) and suggested that commitment has three components:

- (i) A strong belief in and acceptance of the goals of the organization,
- (ii) A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization,
- (iii) A definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Many research conducted between 1970 and 1974 are based on this approach.

Calculative commitment: The second approach is based on a distinction made between calculative (instrumental or exchangebased) commitment and psychological (or moral) commitment. (Buchanan, 1974:5 33-546) Etzioni (1961) first made this type of distinction. He identified three types of commitment: calculative, moral and alienative. Alienative type of commitment is the least relevant item to the subject of organizational commitment, because it results from coercive control and/or entrapment causing continued membership. This is not the type of commitment as defined by loyalty,

a desire to remain, and so forth. Calculative (instrumental or exchange) and moral (psychological) types of commitment have been very influential in organizational commitment theory and research.

According to calculative commitment, organization and its members are in an exchange relationship.

Each of them makes certain demands on the other and provides something in return. In other words, calculative commitment is a utilitarian gain from the employment relationship; the organization provides inducements to the employees; and in return, gets contributions from the employees.

Farrell and Rusbult's (1981) investment model is also an example of calculative approach. According to them, commitment is a function of job rewards, job costs, and size of the investments and the quality of alternatives. In other words, all these parameters determine the degree of commitment.

Psychological commitment: the employee can define it as a non-instrumental, affective loyalty to the firm. Here, commitment refers to identification with the company goals and policies, and even internalization of these goals. (Angle & Perry) It occurs as a result of the internalization of the organizational values, and is relatively independent from inducement or reward levels. It should be noticed that identification occurs when an individual accepts influence for establishing or maintaining a satisfying relationship and may feel proud to be a member of the organization. He respects its values without adopting them as his own.

But in case of internalization, values of the individual and the organization are the same. These concepts should not be confused with compliance, which means adoption of attitudes and behaviors simply to gain specific rewards, not because of shared beliefs/ stated that organizational commitment refers to the extent to which an individual accepts and adopts the goals and values of an organization and perceives his/her organizational role in terms of its contribution to these goals and values, without calculating any tangible (material) gains of his/her own benefits, whereas calculative commitment is based on calculation of material gains, such as job rewards and money. If the definitions of attitudinal and psychological commitment are examined, it can be seen that there is no difference between them and they are just a part of two different approaches for classifying organizational commitment definitions. (De Cotiis & Summers, 1987)

2.1.2. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment (Variables Effecting Commitment)

As organizational commitment became an important issue, more research was done to find the determinants of the phenomenon. Steers defined these antecedents in terms of five components: Personal characteristic role-related variables, work experiences, structural factors and cultural factors. On the other hand, Allen & Meyer defined these antecedents as a being separate for affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

DeCotiis and Summers (1987), Hrebiniak (1974), Lee (1971) and Sheldon (1971) all found that age is an antecedent condition of organizational commitment.

It is suggested that younger employees are more committed than older employees, because they are highly motivated to start a career and able to cope with change, whereas older employees are less committed because they are often disappointed (Morris et al., 1993). On the other hand, older employees, who have worked many years for the organization, do have a strong attachment to the organization.

According to Morris et al. in general, personal characteristics like age, gender, education do not appear to play a large role in determining commitment (Morris et al., 1993).

Meta-analytic evidence suggest that age and affective commitment are significantly, albeit weakly, related (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Moreover, this relation exists even when variables that are often confounded with age (organizational and positional tenure) are controlled. Studies indicate older workers are more satisfied and committed to their firms than younger employees (Rhodes 1983). DeCotiis and Summers (1987), Hrebiniak (1974), Lee (1971) and Sheldon (1971) all found that age is an antecedent condition of organizational commitment.

Neither marital status nor educational level appears to be consistently related to affective commitment. But Steers (1977) found a negative correlation between education and organizational commitment and he suggested that this could be due to more educated people being harder to satisfy (Steers, 1977). As with many of the demographic variables described above, the relations between these variables and commitment might be moderated by other organizational or personal factors.

Gallie and White (1993) found that higher educated employees have a higher task commitment, while a higher level of education opens more possibilities to do the work that one likes. In studies that focus on organizational commitment, however, a small negative correlation is found between level of education and commitment (Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

Some studies have reported gender differences in affective commitment are unrelated (Aven, Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Mathicu & Zajac, 1990). It is argued that gender differences in commitment, when they are found, are more appropriately attributed to different work characteristics and experiences that happen, in some samples, to be linked to gender.

There are two conflicting theories on the influence of gender on organizational commitment. The gender model suggests that women accept housework as the main source of identity and therefore they have a different orientation towards work than men and they less committed than men. Aranya, Kusnir and Valency (1986) found that women are less committed than men. A related finding that women leave work more (Marsh & Mannari, 1977) could be due to this fact, although there are many other plausible explanations for women's turnover.

The job model suggests that since women suffer from discrimination they are more committed once at work. Alvi and Ahmed (1987) in their study in Pakistan found that women were more committed than men. Also Angle and Perry (1981) state that females enjoy less interorganizational mobility and therefore are more restricted to their present organization. This view says that gender alone has no effect but the work

experience is the reason. Mowday et al. (1982) report four studies where women are more attitudinally committed.

In contradiction to these findings, Aven, Parker and Meevov (1993) found no gender differences with respect to attitudinal commitment. They suggested that if organizations provided equitable opportunities to both genders they might have gotten similar degrees of commitment from both genders. They also suggest that there may be moderators like job satisfaction, role states, leader behavior, organizational characteristics and age. Burning and Syneder (1983), Cromie (1981), Fry and Grensfeld (1980), and Stevens Beyer and Trice (1987) also found that gender is not related to organizational commitment.

Begley and Czajka (1993) found that work experience like the degree of job challenge and side benefits were antecedents of commitment. Witt (1993) supported previous findings that early work'experience relates to later commitment (Pierce & Dunham, 1987) and that fairness affects commitment (Konovsky, Folger and Cropanzano, 1987). Morrow (1983) found that job attachment, job involvement and career satisfaction relate to commitment.

2. 2. Job Related Affective Well Being

2.2.1. Definitions and Dimensions of Job Related Affecive Well Being

Capabilities of a healthy person are defined as *“To work and to love”* by Sigmund Freud. While many of his theses have not held up to empirical enquiry, Freud’s identification of an intimate connection between work and mental health is consistent with a vast body of scientific literature. A team of researchers provided

convincing evidence that employee variables such as attitudes and a sense of engagement are linked to business unit outcomes such as customer loyalty, firm profitability, productivity, turnover and safety, in analyzing data collected by the Gallup organization (Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002).

Psychologists have devoted considerable research to trying to understand the nature of interpersonal attraction and defining what “love” is. One particularly popular model is Sternberg’s tripartite definition of love (Sternberg, 1986). Sternberg suggested that when we love someone, we experience passion for the individual, commitment to the relationship, and a level of intimacy. In a similar way, (Kelloway, 2005) Kelloway suggest that we need a focus on individuals who love their jobs. Following Sternberg, Kelloway define loving your job as a combination of passion for the work, commitment to the organization, and good relations with the people we work with. Just as importantly, we suggest that people are psychologically healthy when they love their jobs. Kelloway describes the relation between healthy work, healthy people and healthy organizations as shown in the Figure 1.

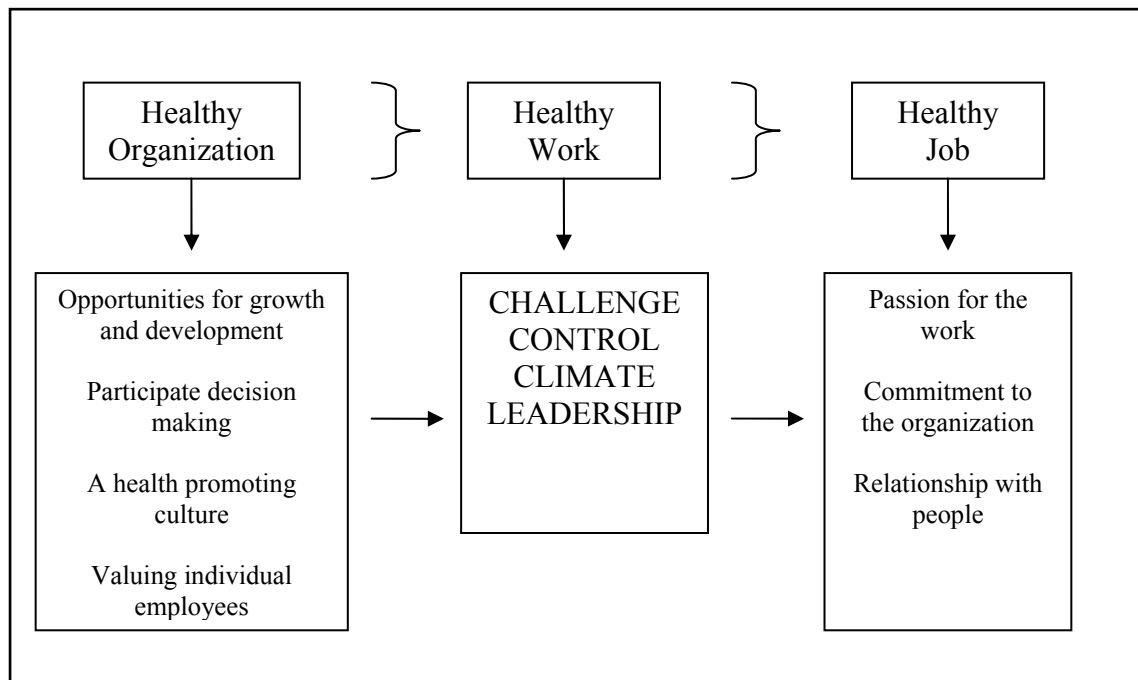


Figure 2.1. Healthy people doing healthy work in healthy organizations

Reference: Kelloway, E. Kevin, "The Healthy Workplace: Some New Thinking about an Old Issue", The Workplace Review April 2005, p:11-18

A body of literature focuses on the various dimensions that constitute good work or, conversely, bad work. Kelloway suggest that four key elements define healthy work: challenge, control, climate, and leadership.

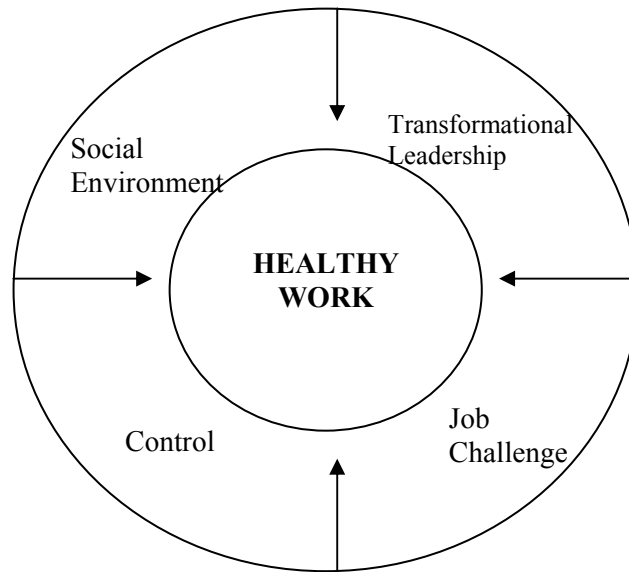


Figure 2.2. A Model of Healthy Work

Reference: Kelloway, E. Kevin, "The Healthy Workplace: Some New Thinking about an Old Issue", The Workplace Review April 2005

Empirically, Kelloway has documented links between leadership and job performance, health and safety-related outcomes, group-level outcomes and measures of individual wellbeing, including measures of positive wellbeing described earlier.

Kelloway and Barling (1991) hypothesize that job-related mental health is the mechanism through which the subjective experience of employment affects context-free mental health. To paraphrase Barling (1990, p. xi), the central assumption of the current study is that people's positive and negative experiences of employment explain the relationship between work/ organizational characteristics and context-free mental health. More specifically, individual perceptions of work/organizational characteristics give rise to job-related affective wellbeing and perceptions of competence at work. In turn, these context-specific reactions predict context-free mental health. This process is

represented in the mediational model presented in Figure 2.3. More specific rationales for the individual paths are now presented.

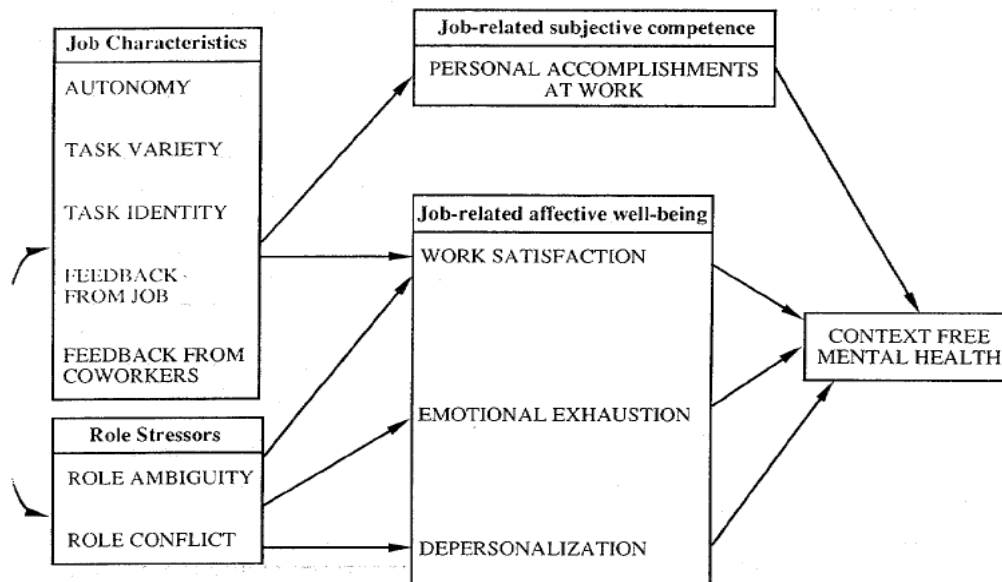


Figure 2.3. Proposed over-identified model of mental health.

Reference: Kelloway, E. Kevin and Barding, Jutian *Journal of Occupational Psychology* (1991), 64, 291- 304 Printed in Great Britain © 1991 The British Psychological Society

Although it has long been recognized that there is a relationship between work and psychological wellbeing (Jahoda, 1958; Warr, 1991), the processes by which work can become psychologically harmful are complex and not understood completely (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). One reason for this is because individuals exhibit different cognitive and emotional reactions to seemingly similar environments (Campbell, Chew & Scratchley, 1991). Factors that influence subjective reactions must be considered in order to understand more precisely how work influences wellbeing (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). To address this gap, Lazarus (1999) has called for more

micro-analytic approaches to the study of wellbeing at work, focusing in particular on personal goals.

There is evidence that attainment of goals which satisfy important needs and values is associated with higher levels of wellbeing than attainment of other goals (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). In the work context, Maier and Brunstein (2001) found that increases in the work attitudes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were greater for people who attained work goals to which they were more committed. This discussion suggests one approach to understanding why there are differences between people in their affective responses to the same work environments: if people differ in the importance they attach to attaining goals at work, then differences in wellbeing may be explained - at least partly - by differences in the extent to which work environments afford attainment of personally important goals.

Affective wellbeing comprises the frequent experience of positive affects and infrequent experience of negative affects (Diener & Larsen, 1995). This affective component of the experience of psychological wellbeing is distinct from attitudinal components, such as job satisfaction, which contain both affective and cognitive elements (Diener & Larsen, 1993; Warr, 1990). Affect is known to be multidimensional (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). In the workplace, the major aspects of affective wellbeing can be explained by two superordinate dimensions (Warr, 1990). One dimension relates most closely to displeasure-pleasure and encompasses depression and the negative affects of anxiety and anger (Daniels, 2000). The other relates to activation and positive affect, and includes arousal as well as activated pleasant affects such as enthusiasm (Daniels, 2000). There may be a strong expectation from Maier and Brunstein's research that there is an interaction between goal attainment and goal importance that predicts pleasurable affect, because job satisfaction, by definition, is more closely aligned with pleasurable affect (Spector, 1997). However, it is less obvious whether

such an interaction will predict those aspects of affective wellbeing more closely aligned with a state of motivated activation, although attainment of important goals is critical for goal-based theories of motivation (e.g. Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989).

Affective wellbeing reflects the frequent experience of positive affects and infrequent experience of negative affects (Diener & Larsen, 1993). Whilst psychological wellbeing consists of a number of components, including affective wellbeing, competence, aspiration, autonomy, integrative functioning and satisfaction (Andrews & McKennell, 1980; Diener, 1984; Warr, 1990a, 1994; Ryff & Keyes, 1995), measures of affective wellbeing are amongst the most important, if not the most important, indicators of psychological wellbeing (Diener & Larsen, 1993; Warr, 1994). Affective wellbeing is multi-dimensional, and can potentially capture subtleties, complexities and changes in the experience of work that general, uni-dimensional measures may not (Briner, 1997). Affective wellbeing is domain specific, and can be measured in relation to the work domain (Warr, 1990a).

Warr (1990a) presented measures of work-related affective wellbeing across two axes: anxiety contentment and depression–enthusiasm. Subsequent studies have indicated: changes to the items comprising the scales; re-labelling of the axes; and additional items be included to measure other aspects of affective wellbeing (Sevastos et al., 1992; Warr, 1992; Daniels et al., 1997). This stream of research provides evidence for three distinct bi-polar factors: anxiety–comfort, depression–pleasure and tiredness–vigour. This research also suggests two other factors: one factor representing enthusiasm, optimism and motivation; and another factor representing anger. It is desirable to have bi-polar scales to eliminate response tendencies (Spector et al., 1997). Larsen and Diener (1992) suggest affects such as ‘bored’, ‘dull’ and ‘sluggish’ represent states of unactivated, unpleasant affect opposite to activated pleasant affects such as

‘enthusiasm’. Anger is characterized by high dominance and potency (MacKinnon & Keating, 1989).

As affective wellbeing is the cumulative experience of affects (Diener & Larsen, 1993), assessments typically cover periods of one or two weeks (Warr, 1990a). Over such periods, continual experience of affects such as boredom or tiredness may become unpleasant, increasing correlations between these and other anhedonic aspects of affective wellbeing. Therefore, the factors are expected to correlate. A similar argument can be applied to affects such as enthusiasm, pleasure and comfort. This argument is supported by studies that show people give greater weight to hedonic valence to judge their affects (Feldman, 1995), and theoretical statements that assessment of affective wellbeing necessarily emphasizes the hedonic valence of repeated experience of affects (Warr, 1990a).

Watson and Tellegen (1985) proposed that affect can be represented in a two dimensional circular space or circumplex by two orthogonal factors labelled negative affect and positive affect. High negative affect is represented by anxiety and hostility; low negative affect is represented by calmness and relaxation. High positive affect is represented by a state of pleasant arousal (e.g. enthusiasm) and low positive affect is represented by a state of unpleasantness and low arousal (e.g. dull, sluggish). Larsen and Diener (1992) contended that positive and negative affect emerge as dominant factors, because the choice of rotation is arbitrary in circumplex models (Guttman, 1954). If an alternative rotation is chosen, two other factors emerge from exploratory analyses. These are labelled pleasantness–unpleasantness and arousal (Russell, 1980). These are orthogonal to each other, yet oblique to negative affect and positive affect. Pleasantness refers to affects such as happiness; unpleasantness to affects such as depression. Arousal refers to high activation, wakefulness and alertness. The opposite of wakefulness refers to low activation, fatigue and sleepiness.

Two-dimensional models help to account for spatial relationships amongst affects. They do not indicate any qualitative differences amongst major categories of affect (Parkinson, 1995). The five factors outlined above should correspond to clusters of discrete affects arranged in two-dimensional space (Haslam, 1995). Figure 4 shows the hypothesized relationships between the five factors and the two-dimensional circumplex.

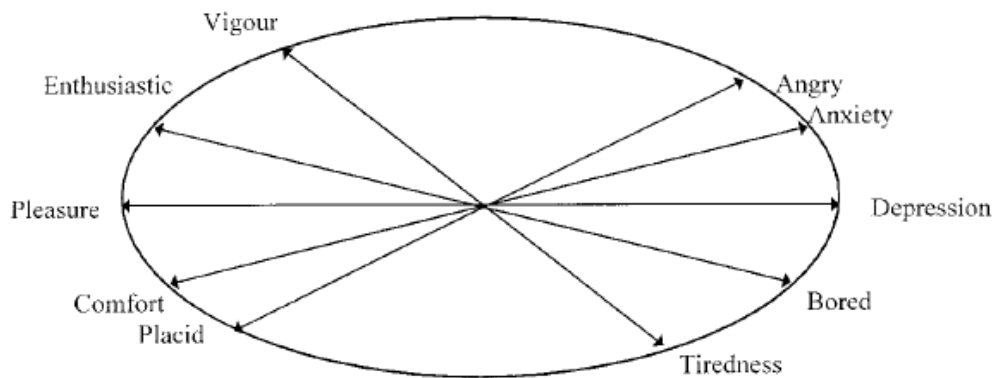


Figure 2.4. Five factor model of affective wellbeing in two-dimensional space

Reference: Daniels, K. (2000). Measures of Five aspects of affective wellbeing at work. *Human Relations*, 53. 275-294

Greater weight is given to hedonic tone to emphasize its importance, by expanding this axis to form an ellipse (Warr, 1990a). The factors are hypothesized to be bi-polar, consistent with representation in two-dimensional space. As negative affect comprises anger and anxiety, anxiety–comfort and angry–placid are closely aligned in the circumplex. These two factors are furthest from bored–enthusiastic and tiredness–vigour, which correspond more closely to positive affect and arousal respectively in the Watson and Tellegen, and Russell models. Bored–enthusiastic and tiredness–vigour are closely aligned because positive affect and arousal are adjacent in circumplex models. Depression–pleasure lies between anxiety–comfort and bored–enthusiastic. This reflects: Russell’s pleasantness axis situated between negative affect and positive affect;

the association between depression and low positive affect (Tellegen, 1985); and that depression can be characterized by low positive affectivity and high negative affectivity, but anxiety can be characterized solely by high negative affectivity (see Watson et al., 1988a). There are two implications of arranging the five affective wellbeing factors in the circumplex. First, a smaller number of primary factors may provide more parsimonious measurement.

The Job-related Affective Wellbeing Scale, JAWS (Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000) which we use in this research, includes a wide variety of emotional experiences, both negative and positive. The emotions can be placed into four categories (subscales) that fall along two dimension: pleasurable and arousal (intensity).

Table 2.1. Emotions of Job Related Affective Well Being Scale

JAWS Scale	Emotion
High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA)	energetic, excited, ecstatic, enthusiastic, inspired
High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA)	at-ease, calm, content, satisfied, relaxed
Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA)	angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, furious
Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA)	bored, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued

These four categories lie on two main axis with high and low levels of pleasure and arousal. In this way, pleasure axis shows individual's general happiness level with regard to job, arousal axis individual's psychological motivation level. For example, when positive emotional state and high arousal is together (HPHA), individual exhibits

happy and active scheme (energetic, excited, ecstatic, enthusiastic, inspired). At another category, where positive emotion state is with low arousal (HPLA), individual exhibits a calm but with low motivation scheme (ease, calm, content, satisfied, relaxed). On the other axis, low pleasure, high arousal (LPHA) individuals exhibit angry and anxious state (angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, furious). Low pleasure, low arousal individuals exhibit depressed, low motivation state (bored, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued). (Bayram et.al. 2003)

2.2.2. Antecedents of Job Related Affective Well Being (Variables Effecting Job Related Affective Well Being)

The quantitative and qualitative outcomes suggest that well-being is a complex psychological phenomenon affected by a myriad of factors. The analyses indicate that general self-efficacy and achievement orientedness are significantly correlated with several aspects of positive (i. e. job satisfaction and job enthusiasm) and negative well-being (i.e. cynicism and personal accomplishment). (Devos et.al., 2006)

In research investigating the relation of affective wellbeing to workplace emotions, Van Katwyk et al. contended that assessing wellbeing in the workplace provides a richer, more comprehensive view of emotional responses to work than does the “comparatively pale” construct of job satisfaction. But Van Katwyk et al. contended that traditional measures of job satisfaction, such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Balzer et al., 1997), confound the cognitive components of job attitudes and job descriptors with emotion by embedding affective wellbeing.

One explanation for this observation involved the use of measures of general affectivity, such as the Positive Affectivity - Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) to tap affectivity. Such scales may not be optimal for tapping work-related affect, however, because they have been designed intentionally to be broad and context free. Warr (1987, 1990) proposed a more narrowly defined work-related affect construct characterized by two bipolar dimensions, pleasure and arousal. Van Katwyk et al. (2000) noted that although the PANAS focused primarily on the pleasure/displeasure dimension of affect, it did reflect only a limited range of moderate to positive arousal. Thus, the PANAS measure of general positive and negative affectivity may not be suitable to tap context-specific affect because it underrepresents a relevant dimension of affect in work settings, that of arousal. Thus, a more targeted measure of job-related affect may complement job satisfaction as a predictor of both abusive and respectful workplace behaviors.

The Subjective work environment is an important influence on wellbeing (Cox & Ferguson, 1994). Recently, there has been growing interest in work-related affect, building on previous research into organizational stress (e.g. Brief & Weiss, 2002; Payne & Cooper, 2001).

Conceptual interpretations of job stress have evolved considerably since the early work of Selye (1956). On job stress, McGrath (1976) contended that the potential for stress exists when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person's capabilities and resources for meeting it, under conditions where substantial differences in the rewards and costs from meeting the demand versus not meeting it are expected. This threat-uncertainty model was adopted by Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) who focused on stress as an adaptive response to an external event that evokes physical and or psychological demands. Lazarus and Folkman (1984, 1987), succinctly defined the construct as a person-environment

relation that is appraised as taxing resources and endangering wellbeing. Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1987) clarified this view by defining stress as the ‘psychological state experienced by an individual when faced with demands, constraints, and/or opportunities that have important, but uncertain outcomes’. For related definitions see Beehr and Bhagat (1985) and Schuler (1980). Common to these interpretations is the sense that stress represents a cognitive process comprised of four characteristics: (1) perceiving environmental stimuli, (2) interpreting threatening demands (3) inferring insufficient capabilities, and (4) expecting uncertain, potentially harmful outcomes (cf., Folkman & Lazarus, 1984, 1987; Janis & Mann, 1977; McGrath, 1976; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987; Salas, Driskell, & Hughes, 1996; Jex, 1998; Kahn & Byosiére, 1992).

Subjective wellbeing is a multifaceted psychological construct embracing emotional and cognitive components (e.g. Andrews & McKennell, 1980). It can refer to life in general or to specific life domains (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999).

Emotional components of wellbeing, often measured in terms of positive and negative affect (e.g. Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), are conceptualized as being less cognitive in nature.

When analysing the effects of conflict types, researchers pay special attention to the effects on employees’ emotional reactions, such as satisfaction and wellbeing. The reason for highlighting these variables is, as different authors have suggested, mainly due to the fact that conflict may have serious consequences for individual wellbeing and health, and because wellbeing and satisfaction are important predictors of performance, propensity to leave the job and organizational health (e.g., Spector & Jex,

1998). In addition, the importance of considering these variables is based on the fact that previous research on conflict and individual wellbeing did not consider the distinction between task and relationship conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003)

Emotional labor is the expression of organizationally desired emotions by service agents during service encounters (Hochschild, 1979; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Morris and Feldman (1996) define emotional labor as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions” (p. 987). Grandey (2000) has defined emotional labor as “the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals” (p. 97). Emotional labor has been regarded as a type of impression management, because it is a deliberate attempt by the individual to direct his or her behavior toward others in order to foster both certain social perceptions of himself or herself and a certain interpersonal climate (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Grove & Fisk, 1989).

Hochschild (1983) has defined emotional dissonance as the separation of felt emotion from emotion expressed to meet external expectations, and contends that it is harmful to the physical and psychological well being of employees. When an employee is required to express organizationally desired emotions that contradict genuinely felt emotions, emotional dissonance may be experienced. This is considered a form of individual-role conflict, such that an individual’s response conflicts with role expectations regarding the display of emotions (Zapf, 2002).

The method that employees choose to address emotional dissonance can have negative effects, for instance, surface acting may lead to feelings of misalignment and inauthenticity that can decrease an employee’s sense of wellbeing (Sheldon, Ryan,

Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997). Conversely, regulation through deep acting in a “good faith” type of emotional labor may result in a sense of accomplishment depending on the employee’s level of identification with the organization (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Emotion research has shown that the inhibition of negative emotions over time can be associated with a variety of physical illnesses, such as high blood pressure and cancer (Gross, 1989; King & Emmons, 1990; Smith, 1992). Therefore, while deep acting and surface acting enable an employee to successfully achieve organizational goals, they may also contribute to detrimental effects to that employee’s health and psychological wellbeing. However, it must be noted that the expression of positive emotions may cause physiological changes that result in increased wellbeing for employees (Zajonc, 1985), so positive display rules may lead to positive emotions in employees.

Emotional intelligence has been defined as “the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotion accurately; the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate cognition; the ability to understand affect-laden information and make use of emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth and wellbeing” (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, & Mayer, 2000, p. 506).

3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB RELATED AFFECTIVE WELL BEING AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AT RETAIL SECTOR

Some of the results of literature survey done on Job related Affected Well being (JAWS) and organizational commitment are outlined below.

Organizational commitment is important to researchers and organizations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. Researchers and practitioners are keenly interested in understanding the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organization.

While turnover is related to all three types of commitment, research suggests there may be unique relationships between the three types of commitment and other work-related outcomes (e.g., absenteeism, organizational citizenship behaviors and performance). Affective commitment tends to be most highly related to these outcomes. A review of the literature suggests that researchers have typically focused on organizational outcomes and correlates of commitment.

However, more recently, researchers are beginning to examine more individual level correlates of affective commitment like stress, well being, and work-family conflict (Meyer et al., 2002). This shift in focus is relevant to the current work, as work-life programs are often instituted to positively affect these individual-level constructs. (Murphy & Sauter, 2003). So far, research about principals' well-being has exclusively focused on the negative pole (Carr, 1994; Gmelch and Torelli, 1994; Green et al., 2001; Lim, 1995; Thornton, 1996; Tichatonga, 1999).

Instead of this limited emphasis, researchers in the broader area of well-being have recently extended their interest to the positive pole of workers' well-being. Little attention has been paid to this positive side of well-being among principals (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The emerging interest for this positive side reflects a trend toward a "positive psychology", which focuses on human strengths and optimal functioning rather than on weaknesses and malfunctioning (Seligman and Csikzentmihalyi, 2000). The central emphasis of this approach is feelings of engagement, dedication, and satisfaction related to the job.

In literature a research conducted by David K. Ingledew, Josephine L. Wray, David Markland, & Lew Hardy (2005), titled as "Work-related Goal Perceptions and Affective Well-being" aimed to clarify how perceptions of work-related goals influence affective wellbeing and goal commitment. Participants ($N = 201$) completed a Goal Perceptions Questionnaire and affect scales. A model was refined using structural equation modelling. Value and success expectation substantially mediated the effects of other goal perceptions on affects and commitment. Both value and success expectation increased commitment, but whereas value increased positive affects, success expectation reduced negative affects. The determinants of value (e.g. personal origin) were different from those of success expectation (e.g. personal control). Through astute goal setting, it is possible to promote well-being without compromising commitment.

Ingledew et.al. (2005) extended the value-expectancy model, to include affective wellbeing. Several researchers have found that individuals' self articulated goals (in life, not just work) can have positive and negative affective consequences (see Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Cantor, 1990; Emmons, 1997; Little, 1999; Martin & Tesser, 1996; Schmuck & Sheldon, 2001). The findings of Emmons (1986) on 'personal strivings' (what a person is characteristically trying to do) proved especially pertinent to our model building. He asked individuals to rate their personal strivings on various

dimensions and examined the correlations between these dimensions, though he did not conduct any causal modelling. The dimensions included value, success expectation and commitment. He found that value and success expectation were both positively correlated with commitment (as we would expect), that value was positively correlated with positive affect and that success expectation was negatively correlated with negative affect. Not only would value and success expectation both positively influence commitment, but value would influence positive affects while success expectation would negatively influence negative affects. Value and expectancy would remain at the core of the model, mediating the effects of all other goal perceptions on commitment and positive and negative affects.

Another research, “Emotion Work and Psychological Well-being” studied by (Zapf, 2004). In this article the state of the art of research on emotion work (emotional labor) is summarized with an emphasis on its effects on well-being. It starts with a definition of what emotional labor or emotion work is. Aspects of emotion work such as automatic emotion regulation, surface acting and deep acting are discussed from an action theory point of view. Empirical studies so far show that emotion work has both positive and negative effects on health. Negative effects were found for emotional dissonance. Concepts related to the frequency of emotion expression and the requirement to be sensitive to the emotions of others had both positive and negative effects. Control and social support moderate relations between emotion work variables and burnout and job satisfaction. Moreover, there is empirical evidence that the co-occurrence of emotion work and organizational problems leads to high levels of burnout.

Van Katwyk, P. T., Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Using the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS) to investigate affective responses to work stressors. Prior research linking job stressors to psychological strains has been

limited to a small number of emotional reactions. This paper describes research linking job stressors to a wide range of affective states at work. In study 1, a multidimensional scaling procedure was used on a matrix of similarity judgments by 51 employees of 56 job-related affective statements to support a two dimensional view of affective well-being. In study 2, ratings of the affect statements by 100 employees further supported the contention that the dimensions were pleasure-displeasure and degree of arousal. In a third study, 114 full-time university employees responded to the Job Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS), which was found to be relate to measures of job stressors, as well as job satisfaction and physical symptoms. (Copyright 1999, American Psychological Association.)

"The Effects of Emotional Labor on Job" research tread three topics: Satisfaction, Emotional Exhaustion, and Affective Well-Being by Hazel-Anne M. Johnson 2004, The study examines the process of emotional labor as performed by customer service employees. This research investigates some of the consequences of performing emotional labor such as emotional exhaustion, affective well-being, and job satisfaction, and attempts to determine which individual and organizational variables play moderating roles in these relationships. Results indicate that gender, emotional intelligence, and autonomy are key moderator variables in the relationship between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion, affective well-being, and job satisfaction. Females are more likely to experience negative consequences when engaging in surface acting. Individuals high in emotional intelligence experienced positive outcomes as emotional labor increased, and the converse is true for those low in emotional intelligence. Autonomy serves to alleviate negative outcomes primarily at the higher levels of emotional labor.

"A daily diary study of goals and affective well-being at work" studied by Claire Harris (2003) examined whether attainment of goals at work is associated with

enhanced affective well-being and whether attainment of personally more important goals has a stronger association with affective well-being. The relationship between attainment of goals and pleasurable affect is stronger where goals are personally more important. Although there is a relationship between work and psychological well-being (Tahoda, 1958; Warr, 1991), the processes by which work can become psychologically harmful are complex and not understood completely (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). One reason for this is because individuals exhibit different cognitive and emotional reactions to seemingly similar environments (Campbell, Chew, & Scratchley, 1991). Factors that influence subjective reactions must be considered in order to understand more precisely how work influences well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). To address this gap, Lazanis (1999) has called for more micro-analytic approaches to the study of well-being at work, focusing in particular on personal goals.

“Measures of five aspects of affective well-being at work” Kevin Daniels (2000) Validation evidence is provided for scales that measure five aspects of affective well-being in relation to the work context: anxiety–comfort, depression–pleasure, bored–enthusiastic, tiredness–vigour and angry–placid. Confirmatory factor analysis is used to test four alternative structures for the items in the scales in two samples . Analyses in both samples support one structure. The final scales have acceptable internal reliability. The unique explanatory power of each scale is suggested by partial correlations with theoretically related variables. Confirmatory factor analysis indicates that the five factor solution has a better fit with the data than other first order solutions with fewer factors. Second order factor analysis shows that two superordinate factors, corresponding to negative and positive affect, can account for the relationships amongst the five first order factors.

In Turkey a research was performed by M. Ersin Kuşdil, Nuran Bayram, Serpil Aytaç and Nazan Bilge (2003) as “Çalışma Yaşamında Bireylerin Yaptıkları İşe İlişkin

Duygularının İş Stres Tepkileri Üzerine Etkisi”. The research was aimed to examine the relationships between different stress symptoms and the subtypes of Katwyk, Fox, Spector & Kelloway’s (2000) Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS), which was translated into Turkish by the authors of the present study. The main objective of the study was based on the expectance that the four subtypes of JAWS would show consistent and predictable correlations with different stress symptoms. Data on stress symptoms was collected from a sample of 152 health workers by using the Turkish version of Derogatis’ (1977) Brief Symptom Inventory (BSE). The relationships between five symptom groups of BSE (namely, anxiety, depression, negative self-concept, somatization, and hostility) and four subtypes and total of JAWS were analysed by correlational and regression analyses. The results were discussed in relation with the validity of the Turkish version of JAWS.

4. METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

4.1. Purpose of the Research

Main purpose of the research is investigating job related affective well being and organizational commitment at retail sector which is thought to be the sector of future in the world but still is in primary development phase in Turkey. Another one is to have a look from a wider perspective to high turnover rates common in the sector where finding, training and holding high quality human resource is very hard.

Researching the relationship between job related affective well being and organizational commitment of marketplace employees will help bringing up a notion for further research on retail sector where working environment is not alike with office environment.

Job related affective well being is often investigated in psychology and thought to be related with issues such as job satisfaction, commitment, productivity but not yet thoroughly investigated at retail sector where commitment is assumed to be low. Very recent Turkish translation and adaptation of job related affective well being scale is one cause for scale being used at very few researches.

We aimed to investigate the relationship of job related affective well being and organizational commitment which is assumed to be positive, on a selected sample group. The relationship between the two may help other research about relationship of job related affective well being with other issues. With this research we will be able to investigate retail sector employees' affective groups, via JAWS subscales.

We like to research the relation between JAWS and organizational commitment. When job related affective well being level increases, if there is an increase or decrease at commitment to the organization or vice versa.

We also aimed to find out the affects of the two main axis of JAWS (pleasure and arousal axis) at organizational commitment. We want to see which axis is more effective on commitment and how this effect works.

4.2. Model of the Research

Quantitative method is selected for this research. Questionnaires consisting 50 items were delivered to randomly selected 100 employees out of 150 employees. A total of 82 questionnaires were filled. 46 male and 36 female participants are participated to the research. All 82 employees were from sales or first level sales management and have at least 6 months of company experience.

First of all demographic attributes of participants are summarized by descriptive statistics and frequency distributions are prepared. Next, factor analysis of the independent and dependent variables are implemented. Then participants' JAWS scores and organizational commitment scores are investigated by variance analysis and t-test methods with respect to demographic properties. Finally, with regression method, relationship between JAWS score and organizational commitment scores are determined. All findings in this research are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Since we are looking for the relationship between JAWS (job related affective well being) and organizational commitment, organizational commitment score is used

as dependent variable and JAWS and subscores are used as independent variables in the analysis.

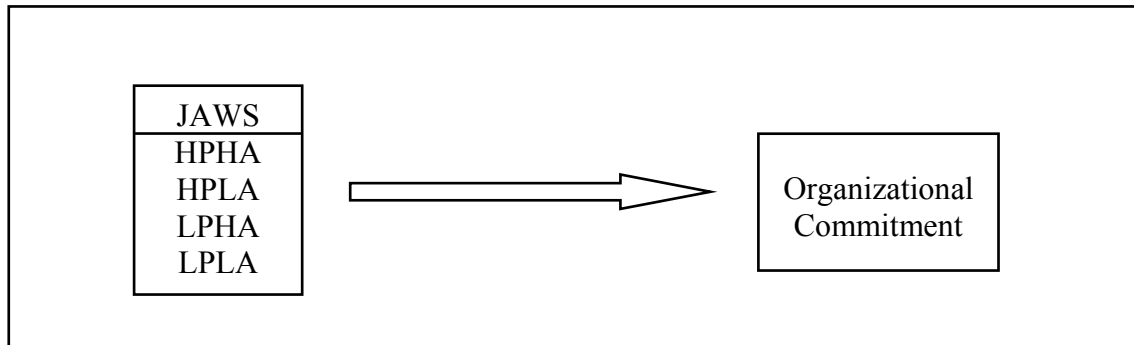


Figure 4.1. Model of the Research

JAWS have four subscores; High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA), High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA), Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA), Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA).

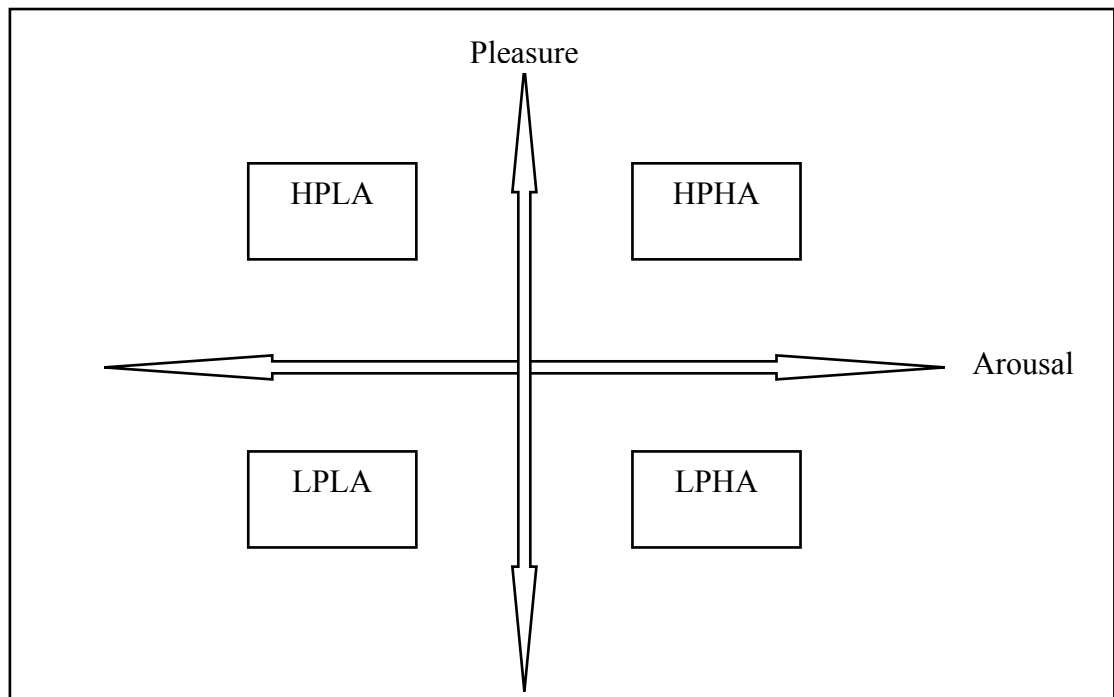


Figure 4.2. Model of the Subtitles of JAWS

Four subscores of JAWS are derived from high/low distribution of two main axis namely pleasure and arousal. Pleasure axis indicates a person's general happiness level with regard to her/his job where arousal axis indicates motivation level of her/his psychological system.

4.3. Propositions of the Research

We are researching the relationship between job related affective well being (JAWS) and organizational commitment. And we hypothesise that;

Proposition 1: In retail sector, there exists a significant positive relationship between JAWS and organizational commitment.

Proposition 2: There exists a positive relationship between HPHA (High Pleasure High Arousal) and organizational commitment at retail sector.

Proposition 3: There exists a negative relationship between LPLA (High Pleasure High Arousal) and organizational commitment at retail sector.

4.4. Instruments of the Research

In this research two different questionnaires were applied to find out the relation of job related affective well being and organizational commitment.

First scale is Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS) which was developed by Katwyk, Fox, Spector & Kelloway's (2000). The scale was adapted into Turkish and the reliability was established by Nuran Bayram, M. Ersin Kuşdil, Serpil Aytaç and Nazan Bilgel (2004).

The Job-related Affective Well-being Scale, JAWS (Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000) is a 30-item (full version) and 20-item (short version) scale designed to assess people's emotional reactions to their job. Each item is an emotion, and respondents are asked how often they have experienced each at work over the prior 30 days. Responses are made with a five-point scale with anchors Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Quite Often, Extremely Often or Always. The JAWS includes a wide variety of emotional experiences, both negative and positive. The emotions can be placed into four categories (subscales) that fall along two dimension: pleasurable and arousal (intensity). The scale can be scored in three ways. 1, An overall score of all items with the negative emotions reverse scored; 2, Separate scores of all 15 (full version) or 10 (short version) negative or positive items combined separately without reverse scoring; 3, Four scores matching the above four categories containing 5 items each.

High scores on this scale indicate high levels of affective well-being. Van Katwyk, et al., (2000) report an alpha of 0.93 for the 20-item version of the scale, which is comparable to the alpha of 0.95 obtained for the 30-item version of the JAWS used in this research.

JAWS (Job Related Affective Wellbeing Scale) The JAWS has items that reflect both negative and positive emotions. For the total scale, the negative emotion items must be reverse scored before summing with the oppositely worded items. For the subscales, no reversal is necessary. Negative emotions are items 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 26. For the total score, responses to all 30 items after the reversals are summed.

Only five items are used for each of the four subscales, and they are not reversed. The items for each subscale are shown in the table, and should be summed to compute each score.

Table 4.3. Scoring of JAWS Subtitles

JAWS Scale	Item numbers	Emotion
High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA)	14, 15, 16, 17, 25	energetic, excited, ecstatic, enthusiastic, inspired
High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA)	1, 7, 9, 29, 30	at-ease, calm, content, satisfied, relaxed
Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA)	2, 4, 11, 18, 20	angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, furious
Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA)	5, 10, 12, 21, 22	bored, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued

Another measuring instrument used in this research is organizational commitment questionnaire developed by Peter and Steers, Mowday and Brulian in 1974 and translated into Turkish by professors and assistants of Organizational Behavior Department of Marmara University. Organizational Commitment Scale consists of 15 items (6 of them are negative/reversed items). The reversed items are Q-3,7,9,11,12,15. The highest score a person can take is (5x15) 75 and lowest (15x1)15. The scale is prepared such as the highest score is the more committed person.

4.5. Reliability Issues

Internal consistency reliability estimates (coefficient alpha) are available from three studies (Bruk-Lee & Spector, In press; Spector, Fox, Goh, & Bruursema, 2003; Van Katwyk et al., 2000) using the different versions with heterogeneous working samples.

The scale was adapted into Turkish and the reliability was established by Nuran Bayram, M. Ersin Kuşdil, Serpil Aytaç and Nazan Bilgel (2004). Cronbach alpha coefficient was found 0.93 for the negative items, 0.94 for positive items and 0.94 for the total scale. Internal consistencies for the total score and four subscales are in the table.

Table 4.5. Internal Consistencies for the Total Score of Jaws and Subtitles

JAWS	USA				Turkey			
	N	Mean	S.D.	C. Alpha	N	Mean	S.D.	C. Alpha
Total	113	105.6	16.7	0.95	349	73.04	13.97	0.93
HPHA	113	14.4	3.9	0.90	361	15.79	4.48	0.89
HPLA	113	16.5	3.4	0.81	359	17.17	4.39	0.88
LPHA	113	9.5	3.2	0.80	358	8.6	3.73	0.82
LPLA	113	11.0	3.5	0.80	359	11.33	4.17	0.82

Another scale used in this research is organizational commitment questionnaire developed by Peter and Steers, Mowday and Brulian in 1974 and translated into Turkish by professors and assistants of Organizational Behavior Department of Marmara University. Alpha coefficient changes between 0.83-0.93 and cronbach alpha is 0.92.

4.6. Limitations of the Research

Research area is selected as retail sector in İstanbul, Turkey. Since retail sector is a widespread one, we focused on durable consumer goods retailers. A cooperating durable consumer good retailing company is selected as research area. High turnover rate for sale related positions is one of the great difficulties in the sector where finding, training and holding high quality human resource is very hard. Hence research is conducted on sales related positions. Sample group for questionnaire is selected from full time sales and sales management employees, who are experienced at least for 6 months.

5. FINDINGS

Research findings are summarized with respect to demographic attributes of participants and for each factor outline statistics are presented. Thereafter variation of JAWS score and organizational commitment scores with respect to demographic attributes and relationship of JAWS and its sub dimensions with organizational commitment are investigated.

5.1. Findings Related To Demographic Attributes

Sample group is investigated per position, gender, age, job experience, company experience variables.

5.1.1. Findings Related To Position Variable

When sample group was investigated per position variable, it can be seen that 79% of participants are Sales Assistant, 10% are Supervisor, 10% are Sales Supervisor, and 1% are Asst. Sales Manager.

Table 5.1 Sample Group Distribution-Position

Position	N	Percentage	Added Percentage
Sales Assistant	65	79,3	79,3
Supervisor	8	9,8	89,0
Sales Supervisor	8	9,8	98,8
Asst. Sales Manager	1	1,2	100,0

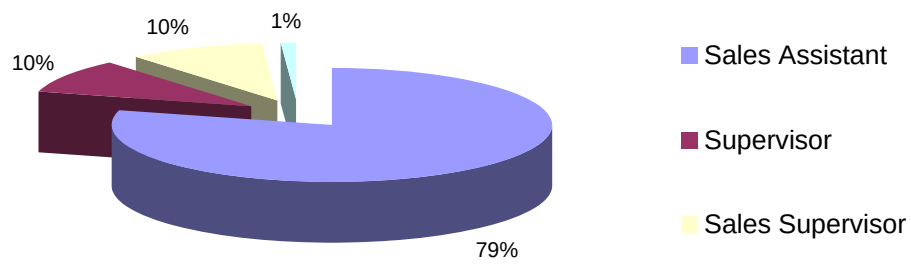


Figure 5.1 Sample Group Distribution-Position

5.1.2. Findings Related To Gender Variable

When sample group was investigated per gender variable, it can be seen that 56% of participants are male and 44% are female.

Table 5.2 Sample Group Distribution – Gender

Gender	N	Percentage	Added Percentage
Male	46	56,1	56,1
Female	36	43,9	100,0

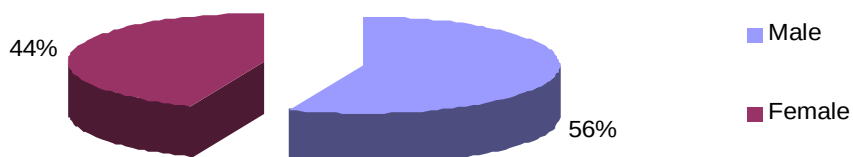


Figure 5.2 Sample Group Distribution – Gender

5.1.3. Findings Related To Age Variable

When sample group was investigated per age variable, it can be seen that 23% of participants are younger than 25, %42 are between 26-30, %18 are between 31-35, %6 are between 36-40, %1 are between 41-45 and %2 are older than 51.

Table 5.3 Sample Group Distribution – Age

Age	N	Percentage	Added Percentage
25 and less	19	23,2	23,2
26-30	35	42,7	65,9
31-35	15	18,3	84,1
36-40	5	6,1	90,2
41-45	1	1,2	91,5
46-50	5	6,1	97,6
51 and over	2	2,4	100,0

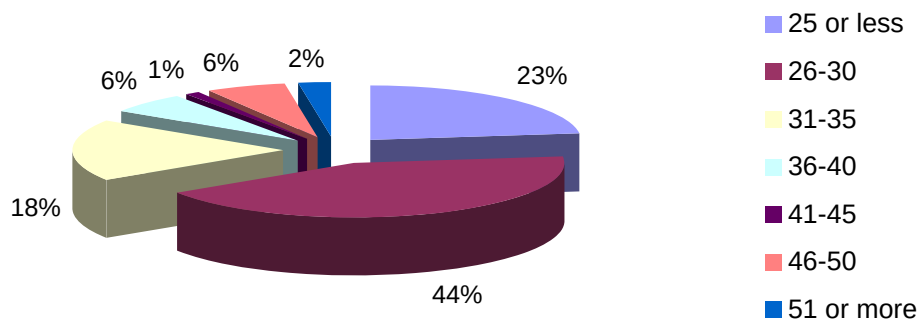


Figure 5.3 Sample Group Distribution – Age

5.1.4. Findings Related To Work Experience Variable

When sample group was investigated per work experience variable, it can be seen that 12% of participants have a work experience less than a year, 20% have a work experience between 1-2 years, 24% have a work experience between 3-5 years, 22% have a work experience between 6-12 years, and 22% have a work experience more than 12 years.

Table 5.4. Sample Group Distribution – Work Experience

Work Experience	N	Percentage	Added Percentage
Less than a year	10	12,2	12,2
1-2 years	16	19,5	31,7
3-5 years	20	24,4	56,1
6-12 years	18	22,0	78,0
More than 12 years	18	22,0	100,0

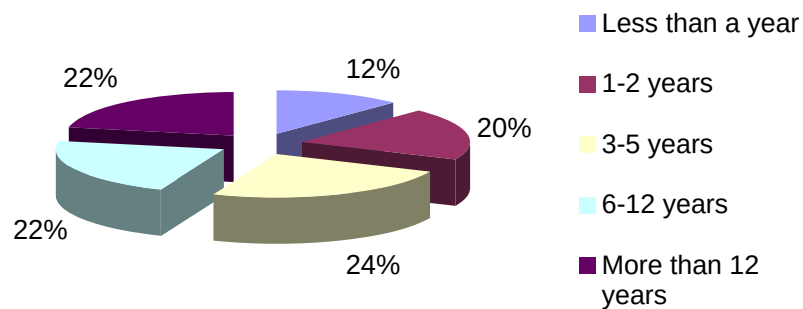


Figure 5.4. Sample Group Distribution – Work Experience

5.1.5. Findings Related To Company Experience Variable

When sample group was investigated per company experience variable, it can be seen that 56% of participants have a company experience less than a year, 24% have a company experience between 1-2 years, 18% have a company experience between 3-5 years and 1% have a company experience more than 5 years.

Table 5.5. Sample Group Distribution – Company Experience

Company Experience	N	Percentage	Added Percentage
Less than a year	46	56,1	56,1
1-2 years	20	24,4	80,5
3-5 years	15	18,3	98,8
More than 5 years	1	1,2	100,0

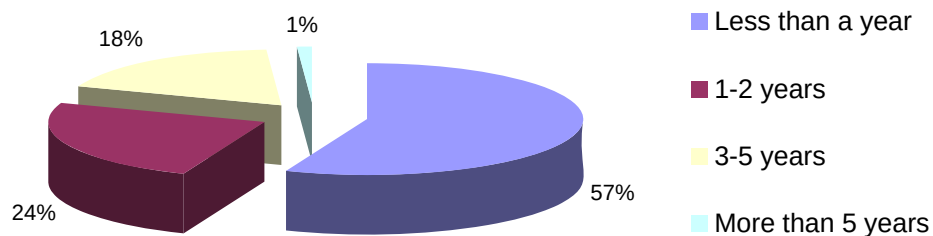


Figure 5.5. Sample Group Distribution – Company Experience

5.1.6. Findings Related To Education Variable

When sample group was investigated per education variable, it can be seen that 1% of participants are Primary School graduates, 37% of participants are Secondary School graduates, 12% of participants are High School graduates, 45% of participants are University graduates and 5% of participants have Master's Degree.

Table 5.6. Sample Group Distribution – Education

Education	N	Percentage	Added Percentage
Primary School	1	1,2	1,2
Secondary School	30	36,6	37,8
High School	10	12,2	50,0
University	37	45,1	95,1
Master's Degree	4	4,9	100,0

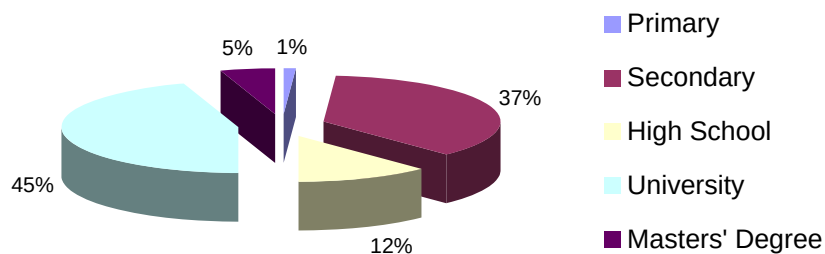


Figure 5.6 Sample Group Distribution – Education

5.2. Results of Factor Analysis

By using confirmatory factor analysis we focused on the distribution of the independent and dependent items and consistency with previous research results.

It can be concluded that our sampling size is adequate for utilizing factor analysis of JAWS, since Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value is 0,85.

Table 5.7. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,850
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	888,000
	df	190
	Sig.	,000

As a result of factor analysis we can see that there are 4 components which have eigenvalues higher than 1.

The first component measures 40.248%, second component measures 12.335%, third component measures 5.744 % and the fourth component measures 5.200% of total. Our scale measures as a total of 63.527% of Job Related Affective Well Being.

Table 5.8. Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	LPLA	HPHA	HPLA	LPHA
My job made me feel gloomy	0,747			
My job made me feel discouraged	0,717			
My job made me feel depressed	0,702			
My job made me feel bored	0,604			
My job made me feel fatigued	0,574			
My job made me feel ecstatic		0,792		
My job made me feel energetic		0,784		
My job made me feel excited		0,769		
My job made me feel enthusiastic		0,711		
My job made me feel calm			0,692	
My job made me feel at ease			0,644	
My job made me feel inspired			0,641	
My job made me feel satisfied			0,543	
My job made me feel relaxed			0,485	
My job made me feel content			0,448	
My job made me feel anxious				0,732
My job made me feel frightened				0,728
My job made me feel furious				0,709
My job made me feel disgusted				0,639
My job made me feel angry				0,551

Nesting of variables to the components is tabulated in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9. Distribution of Variables

Job Related Affective Well Being Scale (JAWS)						
LPLA	16	9	7	4	17	
HPHA	12	10	11	13		
HPLA	5	1	18	19	20	6
LPHA	3	14	15	8	2	

Factor analysis items distributed in four component as the original scale in USA with which Turkish translation of scale is in line. First component is matching with LPLA(Low Pleasure Low Arousal) subtitle of the scale. Second component matches with HPHA (High Pleasure High Arousal) subtitle of the scale except one item numerated with 18. The third component matches with HPLA (High Pleasure High Arousal) except one extra item numerated by 18. And the last component matches with LPHA (Low Pleasure Low Arousal).

In conclusion 18th item shows a discrepancy and nests in HPLA not in HPHA as expected. This discrepancy may root from the question being misunderstood or misinterpreted by the sample group due to some local or business language usage or more less likely from cultural differences.

It can be concluded that our sampling size is adequate for utilizing factor analysis of Organizational Commitment, since Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value is 0,79.

Table 5.10. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,797
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	427,463
	df	105
	Sig.	,000

The first component measures 34.337%, second component measures 9.590%, and the third component measures 9.173 % of total. Our scale measures as a total of 53.009% of organizational commitment.

Table 5.11. Rotated Component Matrix

	Component		
	Value Commitment	Commitment to Stay	Oblished to Stay
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond the normally expected in order to help this organization be succesful	,739		
I really care about the late of the organization	,724		
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for	,658		
I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar	,654		
I am extremely glad i chose this organization to work for over others i was considering at the time i joined	,627		
I am proud to tell others that i am part of this organization	,583		
This organization really inspires the best in me in the way of job performance	,573		
There is not much to be gained by sticking with this ogranization indefinitely	,460		
Deciding to work for this organization was a definitive mistake on my part		,770	
I fell very little loyalty for this organization		,765	
For me this is the best of all organizations to which to work		,630	
Often, i find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees		,589	
It would take very little very circumstances to couse to live this organization		,581	
I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organizations			,756
I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work where similar			,561

Table 5.12. Distribution of Variables

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	
Value Commitment	1, 13, 2 , 5, 10, 6, 8, 11,
Commitment to Stay	12, 14, 15, 3, 4
Obliged to Stay	9, 7

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Porter et al., 1974) was based on two subscales, value commitment and commitment to stay. Both of which

appear to differentiate between the respondents' commitment to support the goals of the organization and their commitment to retain their organizational membership. In this research we found an extra factor which only has two items. The two items are both reversed items. They are discriminated in a third factor but a closer look indicates that this factor can be called as "Obligated to stay".

5.3. Relation of JAWS Score With Demographic Attributes

Relation of JAWS score with demographic attributes are investigated with two way analysis of variance. Results are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Mean JAWS scores of participants classified in groups per position can be seen in Table 5.11. There are differences between mean JAWS scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.13. Analysis of Variance Results, JAWS Score with Position Attribute

Position	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Sales Assistant	65	111,3846	1,265	,292
Supervisor	8	123,7500		
Sales Supervisor	8	116,2500		
Asst. Sales Manager	1	129,0000		

Mean JAWS scores of participants classified in groups per Gender can be seen in Table 5.12. There are differences between mean JAWS scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.14. T-test Results, JAWS Score with Gender Attribute

Gender	N	Mean	t value	Significance
Male	46	111,6522	,728	,396
Female	36	115,3611		

Mean JAWS scores of participants classified in groups per age can be seen in Table 5.13. There are differences between mean JAWS scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.15. Analysis of Variance Results, JAWS Score with Age Attribute

Age	N	Mean	F value	Significance
25 or less	19	116,7368	1,346	,248
26-30	35	107,8286		
31-35	15	119,1333		
36-40	5	106,8000		
41-45	1	121,0000		
46-50	5	117,4000		
51 or more	2	134,0000		

Mean JAWS scores of participants classified in groups per work experience can be seen in Table 5.14. There are differences between mean JAWS scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.16. Analysis of Variance Results, JAWS Score with Work Experience

Attribute

Work Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	10	109,5000	1,212	,313
1-2 years	16	119,5625		
3-5 years	20	111,0500		
6-12 years	18	117,8889		
More than 12 years	18	107,6667		

Mean JAWS scores of participants classified in groups per company experience can be seen in Table 5.15. There are differences between mean JAWS scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.17. Analysis of Variance Results, JAWS Score with Company Experience

Attribute

Company Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	46	113,9565	,256	,857
1-2 years	20	112,8500		
3-5 years	15	110,8667		
More than 5 years	1	127,0000		

Mean JAWS scores of participants classified in groups per education can be seen in Table 5.16. There are differences between mean JAWS scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.18. Analysis of Variance Results, JAWS Score with Education Attribute

Education	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Primary School	1	105,0000	,430	,786
Secondary School	30	112,0667		
High School	10	112,3000		
University	37	113,4865		
Master's Degree	4	125,0000		

Relation of JAWS subscore HPHA with demographic attributes are investigated with two way analysis of variance. Results are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Mean HPHA scores of participants classified in groups per position can be seen in Table 4.17. There are differences between mean HPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.19. Analysis of Variance Results, HPHA Score with Position Attribute

Position	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Sales Assistant	65	16,1538	1,232	,304
Supervisor	8	17,8750		
Sales Supervisor	8	18,5000		
Asst. Sales Manager	1	20,0000		

Mean HPHA scores of participants classified in groups per gender can be seen in Table 4.18. There are differences between mean HPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.20. T-test Results, HPHA Score with Gender Attribute

Gender	N	Mean	t value	Significance
Male	46	16,4348	,152	,698
Female	36	16,8056		

Mean HPHA scores of participants classified in groups per age can be seen in Table 4.19. There are differences between mean HPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.21. Analysis of Variance Results, HPHA Score with Age Attribute

Age	N	Mean	F value	Significance
25 or less	19	16,5789	,808	,567
26-30	35	15,6571		
31-35	15	17,8667		
36-40	5	17,6000		
41-45	1	15,0000		
46-50	5	17,4000		
51 or more	2	20,0000		

Mean HPHA scores of participants classified in groups per work experience can be seen in Table 5.20. There are differences between mean HPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.22. Analysis of Variance Results, HPHA Score with Work Experience Attribute

Work Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	10	14,1000	1,245	,299
1-2 years	16	17,5000		
3-5 years	20	16,5500		
6-12 years	18	17,4444		
More than 12 years	18	16,3889		

Mean HPHA scores of participants classified in groups per company experience can be seen in Table 5.21. There are differences between mean HPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.23. Analysis of Variance Results, HPHA Score with Company Experience Attribute

Company Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	46	16,0000	,762	,519
1-2 years	20	17,5000		
3-5 years	15	17,0667		
More than 5 years	1	19,0000		

Mean HPHA scores of participants classified in groups per education can be seen in Table 5.22. There are differences between mean HPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.24. Analysis of Variance Results, HPHA Score with Education Attribute

Education	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Primary School	1	14,0000	,318	,865
Secondary School	30	16,9333		
High School	10	15,9000		
University	37	16,4324		
Master's Degree	4	18,0000		

Relation of JAWS subscore HPLA with demographic attributes are investigated with two way analysis of variance. Results are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Mean HPLA scores of participants classified in groups per position can be seen in Table 5.23. There are differences between mean HPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.25. Analysis of Variance Results, HPLA Score with Position Attribute

Position	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Sales Assistant	65	16,1846	1,123	,345
Supervisor	8	18,1250		
Sales Supervisor	8	16,5000		
Asst. Sales Manager	1	21,0000		

Mean HPLA scores of participants classified in groups per gender can be seen in Table 5.24. There are differences between mean HPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.26. T-test Results, HPLA Score with Gender Attribute

Gender	N	Mean	t value	Significance
Male	46	16,0652	1,170	,283
Female	36	16,9722		

Mean HPLA scores of participants classified in groups per age can be seen in Table 5.25. There are differences between mean HPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.27. Analysis of Variance Results, HPLA Score with Age Attribute

Age	N	Mean	F value	Significance
25 or less	19	16,1579	1,040	,406
26-30	35	15,8000		
31-35	15	17,8667		
36-40	5	16,2000		
41-45	1	16,0000		
46-50	5	16,6000		
51 or more	2	21,0000		

Mean HPLA scores of participants classified in groups per work experience can be seen in Table 5.26. There are differences between mean HPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.28. Analysis of Variance Results, HPLA Score with Work Experience Attribute

Work Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	10	14,8000	1,012	,407
1-2 years	16	17,0000		
3-5 years	20	16,4500		
6-12 years	18	17,5000		
More than 12 years	18	15,8889		

Mean HPLA scores of participants classified in groups per company experience can be seen in Table 5.27. There are differences between mean HPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.29. Analysis of Variance Results, HPLA Score with Company Experience Attribute

Company Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	46	16,3043	,212	,888
1-2 years	20	16,4500		
3-5 years	15	16,8000		
More than 5 years	1	19,0000		

Mean HPLA scores of participants classified in groups per education can be seen in Table 5.28. There are differences between mean HPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.30. Analysis of Variance Results, HPLA Score with Education Attribute

Education	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Primary School	1	15,0000	1,382	,248
Secondary School	30	16,3667		
High School	10	14,6000		
University	37	16,7568		
Master's Degree	4	19,5000		

Relation of JAWS subscore LPHA with demographic attributes are investigated with two way analysis of variance. Results are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Mean LPHA scores of participants classified in groups per position can be seen in Table 5.29. There are differences between mean LPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.31. Analysis of Variance Results, LPHA Score with Position Attribute

Position	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Sales Assistant	65	9,0769	,997	,399
Supervisor	8	7,1250		
Sales Supervisor	8	9,2500		
Asst. Sales Manager	1	6,0000		

Mean LPHA scores of participants classified in groups per gender can be seen in Table 5.30. There are differences between mean LPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.32. T-test Results, LPHA Score with Gender Attribute

Gender	N	Mean	t value	Significance
Male	46	9,3696	2,209	,141
Female	36	8,2222		

Mean LPHA scores of participants classified in groups per age can be seen in Table 5.31. There are differences between mean LPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.33. Analysis of Variance Results, LPHA Score with Age Attribute

Age	N	Mean	F value	Significance
25 or less	19	7,7895	1,101	,370
26-30	35	9,4571		
31-35	15	8,6000		
36-40	5	10,8000		
41-45	1	6,0000		
46-50	5	9,4000		
51 or more	2	6,0000		

Mean LPHA scores of participants classified in groups per work experience can be seen in Table 5.34. There are differences between mean LPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.34. Analysis of Variance Results, LPHA Score with Work ExperienceAttribute

Work Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	10	9,3000	1,530	,202
1-2 years	16	7,4375		
3-5 years	20	9,2500		
6-12 years	18	8,2222		
More than 12 years	18	10,1111		

Mean LPHA scores of participants classified in groups per company experience can be seen in Table 5.35. There are differences between mean LPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.35. Analysis of Variance Results, LPHA Score with Company Experience Attribute

Company Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	46	8,3913	,810	,492
1-2 years	20	9,5500		
3-5 years	15	9,5333		
More than 5 years	1	7,0000		

Mean LPHA scores of participants classified in groups per education can be seen in Table 5.36. There are differences between mean LPHA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.36. Analysis of Variance Results, LPHA Score with Education Attribute

Education	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Primary School	1	10,0000	,658	,623
Secondary School	30	9,5000		
High School	10	8,2000		
University	37	8,7027		
Master's Degree	4	7,0000		

Relation of JAWS subscore LPLA with demographic attributes are investigated with two way analysis of variance. Results are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Mean LPLA scores of participants classified in groups per position can be seen in Table 5.37. There are differences between mean LPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.37. Analysis of Variance Results, LPLA Score with Position Attribute

Position	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Sales Assistant	65	9,5846	,879	,456
Supervisor	8	7,2500		
Sales Supervisor	8	9,3750		
Asst. Sales Manager	1	8,0000		

Mean LPLA scores of participants classified in groups per gender can be seen in Table 5.38. There are differences between mean LPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.38. T-test Results, LPLA Score with Gender Attribute

Gender	N	Mean	t value	Significance
Male	46	9,5435	,348	,557
Female	36	9,0278		

Mean LPLA scores of participants classified in groups per age can be seen in Table 5.39. There are differences between mean LPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.39. Analysis of Variance Results, LPLA Score with Age Attribute

Age	N	Mean	F value	Significance
25 or less	19	8,0526	1,507	,187
26-30	35	10,6571		
31-35	15	8,6000		
36-40	5	10,0000		
41-45	1	7,0000		
46-50	5	7,4000		
51 or more	2	7,5000		

Mean LPLA scores of participants classified in groups per work experience can be seen in Table 5.40. There are differences between mean LPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.40. Analysis of Variance Results, LPLA Score with Work Experience Attribute

Work Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	10	8,9000	1,403	,241
1-2 years	16	7,5625		
3-5 years	20	10,1000		
6-12 years	18	9,1667		
More than 12 years	18	10,3889		

Mean LPLA scores of participants classified in groups per company experience can be seen in Table 5.41. There are differences between mean LPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.41. Analysis of Variance Results, LPLA Score with Company Experience Attribute

Company Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	46	8,6087	1,388	,253
1-2 years	20	9,9500		
3-5 years	15	10,7333		
More than 5 years	1	8,0000		

Mean LPLA scores of participants classified in groups per education can be seen in Table 5.42. There are differences between mean LPLA scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.42. Analysis of Variance Results, LPLA Score with Education Attribute

Education	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Primary School	1	11,0000	,486	,746
Secondary School	30	9,7667		
High School	10	8,4000		
University	37	9,3514		
Master's Degree	4	7,5000		

5.4 Relation of Organizational Commitment With Demographic Attributes

Relation of organizational commitment with demographic attributes are investigated with two way analysis of variance. Results are tested at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

Mean organizational commitment scores of participants classified in groups per position can be seen in Table 5.43. There are differences between mean organizational commitment scores and these differences are statistically significant.

From these results, it can be stated that sales assistants' organizational commitment is lower than asst. sales manager's organizational commitment. Differences between sales supervisors' and supervisors' organizational commitment are random and organizational commitment of this group is higher than sales assistants' and lower than asst. sales managers'.

Table 5.43. Analysis of Variance Results, Organizational Commitment Score with Position Attribute

Position	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Sales Assistant	65	56,2923	2,824	,044
Supervisor	8	63,6250		
Sales Supervisor	8	62,7500		
Asst. Sales Manager	1	68,0000		

Mean organizational commitment scores of participants classified in groups per gender can be seen in Table 5.44. There are differences between mean organizational commitment scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.44. T-test Results, Organizational Commitment Score with Gender Attribute

Gender	N	Mean	t value	Significance
Male	46	57,9348	,027	,869
Female	36	57,5833		

Mean organizational commitment scores of participants classified in groups per age can be seen in Table 5.45. There are differences between mean organizational commitment scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.45. Analysis of Variance Results, Organizational Commitment Score with Age Attribute

Age	N	Mean	F value	Significance
25 or less	19	58,1579	,912	,491
26-30	35	55,8571		
31-35	15	61,0000		
36-40	5	53,8000		
41-45	1	60,0000		
46-50	5	61,6000		
51 or more	2	63,0000		

Mean organizational commitment scores of participants classified in groups per work experience can be seen in Table 5.46. There are differences between mean organizational commitment scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.46. Analysis of Variance Results, Organizational Commitment Score with Work Experience Attribute

Work Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	10	60,2000	1,325	,268
1-2 years	16	55,9375		
3-5 years	20	56,1000		
6-12 years	18	61,5556		
More than 12 years	18	56,1667		

Mean organizational commitment scores of participants classified in groups per company experience can be seen in Table 5.47. There are differences between mean organizational commitment scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.47. Analysis of Variance Results, Organizational Commitment Score with Company Experience Attribute

Company Experience	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Less than a year	46	57,9130	,084	,968
1-2 years	20	57,0500		
3-5 years	15	58,1333		
More than 5 years	1	61,0000		

Mean organizational commitment scores of participants classified in groups per education can be seen in Table 5.48. There are differences between mean organizational commitment scores but these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 5.48. Analysis of Variance Results, Organizational Commitment Score with Education Attribute

Education	N	Mean	F value	Significance
Primary School	1	52,0000	1,030	,397
Secondary School	30	59,9333		
High School	10	58,9000		
University	37	55,6486		
Master's Degree	4	60,0000		

5.5. Relationship between JAWS and Organizational Commitment

By using linear regression analysis relationship between organizational commitment and JAWS and JAWS subcores is investigated. Organizational commitment score is used as dependent variable and JAWS and subcores are used as independent variables in the analysis.

It can be seen from the results listed in Table 5.49 that there is a statistically significant relationship at $P < 0.01$ level between JAWS and organizational commitment.

Table 5.49. Effect of JAWS on Organizational Commitment-ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Regression	4710,851	1	4710,851	143,340	,000
Residual	2629,198	80	32,865		
Total	7340,049	81			

Results listed in Table 5.50. shows that there is a strong, positive relationship between two variables ($r = .801$).

In addition, determination coefficient (r^2) is calculated as 0,637. Therefore, it can be stated that 64% of changes in organizational commitment is related to JAWS.

Table 5.50. Effect of JAWS on Organizational Commitment – Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error
,801	,642	,637	5,73280

It can be seen from the results listed in Table 5.51 that there is a statistically significant relationship at $P < 0.01$ level between High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) and organizational commitment.

Table 5.51. Effect of HPHA on Organizational Commitment – ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Regression	3597,202	1	3597,202	76,887	,000
Residual	3742,847	80	46,786		
Total	7340,049	81			

Results listed in Table 5.52 shows that there is a positive relationship between two variables ($r = .700$).

In addition, determination coefficient (r^2) is calculated as 0,484. Therefore, it can be stated that 48% of changes in organizational commitment is related to HPHA.

Table 5.52. Effect of HPHA on Organizational Commitment – Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error
,700	,490	,484	6,84000

It can be seen from the results listed in Table 5.53 that there is a statistically significant relationship at $P < 0.01$ level between High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) and organizational commitment.

Table 5.53. Effect of HPLA on Organizational Commitment – ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Regression	2803,249	1	2803,249	49,431	,000
Residual	4536,800	80	56,710		
Total	7340,049	81			

Results listed in Table 5.54 shows that there is a positive relationship between two variables ($r = .618$).

In addition, determination coefficient (r^2) is calculated as 0,374. Therefore, it can be stated that 37% of changes in organizational commitment is related to HPLA.

Table 5.54. Effect of HPLA on Organizational Commitment – Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error
,618	,382	,374	7,53060

It can be seen from the results listed in Table 5.55 that there is a statistically significant relationship at $P < 0.01$ level between Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (LPHA) and organizational commitment.

Table 5.55. Effect of LPHA on Organizational Commitment – ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Regression	2772,756	1	2772,756	48,567	,000
Residual	4567,293	80	57,091		
Total	7340,049	81			

Results listed in Table 5.56 shows that there is a negative relationship between two variables ($r = -.615$).

In addition, determination coefficient (r^2) is calculated as 0,378. Therefore, it can be stated that 38% of changes in organizational commitment is related to LPHA.

Table 5.56. Effect of LPHA on Organizational Commitment– Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error
-,615	,378	,370	7,55587

It can be seen from the results listed in Table 5.57 that there is a statistically significant relationship at $P < 0.01$ level between Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) and organizational commitment.

Table 5.57. Effect of LPLA on Organizational Commitment– ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Regression	3431,676	1	3431,676	70,243	,000
Residual	3908,373	80	48,855		
Total	7340,049	81			

Results listed in Table 5.58 shows that there is a negative relationship between two variables ($r = -.684$).

In addition, determination coefficient (r^2) is calculated as 0,468. Therefore, it can be stated that 47% of changes in organizational commitment is related to LPLA.

Table 5.58. Effect of LPLA on Organizational Commitment – Model Summary

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error
,684	,468	,461	6,98961

6. CONCLUSION DISCUSSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

There seems to be no statistically significant relation between demographic attributes of our 82 participants and JAWS and subscores High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA) High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA) Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA). However expanding the research to a wider sample group may lead to some significant results.

A statistically significant relation exists between position attribute and organizational commitment. The relation suggests that higher positions to lead higher organizational commitment, which is in line with literature data on organizational commitment. Lowest organizational commitment of low level employees are also consistent with the observation on the retail sector. Low level employees has the highest turnover rate in retail sector, which also contributes to total turnover rate of the organization.

To prevent this for similar organizations at retail sector a career plan should be made for first level employees in order to meet job expectations. This relation between job position and organizational commitment can be researched further by investigating the relation of organizational commitment with goal oriented systems and career planning.

Factor analysis of the scale on our sample group shows consistency with original USA scale and also Turkish adaptation with the exception of one item. The item showing discrepancy nests in HPLA instead of HPHA which implicates that

question may be misunderstood or misinterpreted by participants. This point may be specifically investigated in researches with larger sample groups.

Four subscores of JAWS are derived from high/low distribution of two main axis namely pleasure and arousal. Pleasure axis indicates a persons general happiness level with regard to her/his job where arousal axis indicates motivation level of her/his psychological system.

At the point where positive emotion state is with high arousal (HPHA) individual exhibits a happy and active scheme (energetic, excited, ecstatic, enthusiastic, inspired). This category has a statistically significant, positive relation with organizational commitment. This result is consistent with our research hypothesis. HPHA employees has high organizational commitment.

At another category, where positive emotion state is with low arousal, individual exhibits a calm but with low motivation scheme (ease, calm, content, satisfied, relaxed). This HPLA group also has a statistically significant, positive relation with organizational commitment. This relation, in despite of low arousal, indicates high abundance of pleasure axis with the organizational commitment. It can be deduced that individual is positively affected from job pleasurability, whereas individual's psychological state doesn't have the same affect.

On the other axis, low pleasure, high arousal (LPHA) individuals exhibit angry and anxious state (angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, furious). This profile has a negative relation with commitment. This negative relation confirms that individual's

emotional state (pleasure) has a high effect on organizational commitment. This also supports our previous definition establishing that individuals psychological state doesn't have the same level of affect with emotional state.

Low pleasure, low arousal individuals exhibit depressed, low motivation state (bored, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued). This category has a negative relation with organizational commitment as expected.

From all these results, it can be deduced that organizational commitment is affected in a positive way with pleasure axis of JAWS, which is a measure of individual's general happiness level. On the other hand, organizational commitment is not affected this way with motivation axis of JAWS, which is a measure of individual's psychological motivation level.

Based on these deductions it can be stated for retail sector employees that measuring factors that will increase job satisfaction alongside with psychological states at search and selection and assessment phases will affect organizational commitment and turnover rate in a positive way.

In order to classify findings of this research, it can be stated that individuals with personal attributes (HPHA) energetic, excited, ecstatic, enthusiastic, inspired and (HPLA) at-ease, calm, content, satisfied, relaxed have high organizational commitment and individuals with personal attributes (LPHA) angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, furious and (LPLA) bored, depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued have low organizational commitment.

A further step for this research can be investigation of organizational culture and affected well being relations in conjunction with personality typologies/attributes. Effects of affective well being on job related emotional states such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction may be investigated in different cultural compositions, individualist or collective society structures.

There is a need for further research, to verify that commitment and wellbeing can be enhanced by manipulating the postulated distal determinants (such as personal origin and control), and to verify that such effects are mediated by the postulated proximal determinants (value and success expectation).

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Questionnaires used

Bölüm I

1. Çalışmakta olduğunuz mağaza.....
2. İş yerindeki göreviniz:
3. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐
4. Yaşınız:.....
5. İş deneyiminiz? 1 yıldan az
 1-2 yıl ☐
 3-5 yıl ☐
 6-12 yıl ☐
 12 yıldan fazla ☐
6. Kaç yıldır bu şirkette çalışmaktasınız?.....
7. Eğitim durumunuz? İlköğretim ☐
 Lise ☐
 Yüksek Okul ☐
 Üniversite ☐
 Yüksek Lisans ☐
 Doktora ☐

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, işinizin **son 30 gün içinde** sizde hangi farklı duyguları uyandırdığını belirlemeye yönelik olarak hazırlanmıştır. İfadeleri değerlendirirken işinizin **tüm yönlerini** (görevleriniz, çalışma arkadaşlarınız, astlarınız/üstleriniz vd.) göz önüne alınız. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve karşısında yer alan **beş seçenekten size en uygun gelen birini** işaretleyiniz. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi **atlamayınız**.

Bölüm II. İşe İlişkin Duyuşsal İyilik Algısı	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Oldukça Sık	Çok Sık
1. İşim bende bir huzur duygusu uyandırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşim kendimi öfkeli hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşim kendimi sıkıntılı hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İşim kendimi kaygılı hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İşim bende bir can sıkıntısı duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
6. İşim kendimi neşe dolu hissetmemi sağladı.	1	2	3	4	5
7. İşim kendimi sakin hissetmemi sağladı.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İşim bende bir kafa karışıklığı duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
9. İşim bende bir hoşnutluk duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
10. İşim bende bir bunalım duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İşim bende bir tiksinti duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
12. İşim sanki hevesimi kaybetmişim gibi hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
13. İşim kendimi çok mutlu hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İşim kendimi enerjik hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
15. İşim bende tatlı bir heyecan duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
16. İşim bende bir coşku duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
17. İşim kendimi heves dolu hissetmemi sağladı.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İşim kendimi korkmuş gibi hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
19. İşim bende bir hayal kırıklığı duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
20. İşim kendimi çok kızgın hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
21. İşim sanki içim kararıyormuş gibi hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
22. İşim kendimi yorgun hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
23. İşim kendimi mutlu hissetmeme neden oldu.	1	2	3	4	5
24. İşim kendimi tehdit altındaymışım gibi hissetmeme neden oldu	1	2	3	4	5
25. İşim bende bir esinlenme duygusu yarattı.	1	2	3	4	5
26. İşim kendimi bezgin hissetmeme neden oldu	1	2	3	4	5

27. İşim bende bir memnuniyet duygusu uyandırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
28. İşim bende bir iftihar duygusu uyandırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
29. İşim bende bir tatmin duygusu uyandırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
30. İşim bende bir rahatlamışlık duygusu uyandırdı.	1	2	3	4	5

Bölüm III. Örgütsel Bağlılık	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Çalıştığım işyerinin başarıya ulaşması için benden beklenenin üzerinde gayret sarf etmeye hazırım	1	2	3	4	5
2. Arkadaşıma bu işyerinin çalışmak için çok uygun bir yer olduğunu anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu işyerine çok az bağlılık hissediyorum	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu işyerinde çalışmaya devam etmek için verilecek her görevi kabul etmeye hazırım	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kişisel değerlerimle işyerinin değerlerini birbirine çok benzer buluyorum	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu işyerinin bir çalışanı olduğumu başkalarına söylemekten gururu duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Benzer nitelikte bir iş olduğu sürece şu anda başka bir işyerinde çalışıyor olabilirdim	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bu işyeri performansımı en iyi şekilde ortaya koymama olanak sağlıyor	1	2	3	4	5
9. Mevcut koşullardaki ufak bir değişiklik bile işten ayrılmama yol açabilir	1	2	3	4	5
10. İşe ilk girdiğim zamanı düşündüğümde, diğer işler yerine şu andaki işimi seçtiğim için mutluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bu işyerinde kalmamın bana uzun vadede getireceği bir yarar yok	1	2	3	4	5
12. İşyerinin çalışanlarıyla ilgili önemli konulardaki tavrını çoğu zaman onaylamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Bu işyerinin gelecekte ne olacağı benim için gerçekten önemli	1	2	3	4	5
14. Çalışabileceğim yerler arasında bu işyeri benim için gerçekten en iyi iş yeri.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Bu işyerinde çalışmaya karar vermek benim için tam bir hataydı	1	2	3	4	5

Katılımınız için teşekkürler...

Appendix 2 Sample Group Demographic Distributions

Frequencies

Statistics

		Görev	Cinsiyet	Yas	Is Deneyimi	Sirket Deneyimi	Egitim Durumu
N	Valid	82	82	82	82	82	82
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0

Frequency Table

Görev

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Müşteri Danismani (Kademe 1)	65	79,3	79,3	79,3
	Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	9,8	9,8	89,0
	Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	9,8	9,8	98,8
	Mudur Yardimcisi (Kademe 2)	1	1,2	1,2	100,0
	Total	82	100,0	100,0	

Cinsiyet

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Erkek	46	56,1	56,1	56,1
	Kadin	36	43,9	43,9	100,0
	Total	82	100,0	100,0	

Yas

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25 ve daha az	19	23,2	23,2	23,2
	26-30	35	42,7	42,7	65,9
	31-35	15	18,3	18,3	84,1
	36-40	5	6,1	6,1	90,2
	41-45	1	1,2	1,2	91,5
	46-50	5	6,1	6,1	97,6
	51 ve üzeri	2	2,4	2,4	100,0
	Total	82	100,0	100,0	

Is Deneyimi

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 yıldan az	10	12,2	12,2	12,2
	1-2 yıl	16	19,5	19,5	31,7
	3-5 yıl	20	24,4	24,4	56,1
	6-12 yıl	18	22,0	22,0	78,0
	12 yıldan fazla	18	22,0	22,0	100,0
	Total	82	100,0	100,0	

Sirket Deneyimi

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 yildan az	46	56,1	56,1	56,1
	1-2 yil	20	24,4	24,4	80,5
	3-5 yil	15	18,3	18,3	98,8
	5 yildan fazla	1	1,2	1,2	100,0
	Total	82	100,0	100,0	

Egitim Durumu

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	İlköğretim	1	1,2	1,2	1,2
	Lise	30	36,6	36,6	37,8
	Yüksek Okul	10	12,2	12,2	50,0
	Universite	37	45,1	45,1	95,1
	Yüksek Lisans	4	4,9	4,9	100,0
	Total	82	100,0	100,0	

Appendix 3. Factor Analysis of JAWS – Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
VAR00001	3,5244	,98414	82
VAR00002	2,3415	1,07977	82
VAR00003	1,6951	,82685	82
VAR00004	1,8415	1,02403	82
VAR00005	3,0732	1,03971	82
VAR00006	3,4756	1,04498	82
VAR00007	1,5976	,94097	82
VAR00008	1,3659	,77797	82
VAR00009	1,7317	,91690	82
VAR00010	3,5244	1,24945	82
VAR00011	3,4634	1,14606	82
VAR00012	3,2317	1,14718	82
VAR00013	3,4390	1,03157	82
VAR00014	1,5976	,96686	82
VAR00015	1,8659	1,18386	82
VAR00016	1,5732	,94321	82
VAR00017	2,5732	1,21747	82
VAR00018	2,9390	1,13690	82
VAR00019	3,1829	1,07873	82
VAR00020	3,2073	1,10819	82

Appendix 4. Factor Analysis of JAWS – KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,850
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	888,000
	df	190
	Sig.	,000

Appendix 5. Factor Analysis of JAWS – Communalities

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
VAR00001	1,000	,671
VAR00002	1,000	,642
VAR00003	1,000	,739
VAR00004	1,000	,652
VAR00005	1,000	,613
VAR00006	1,000	,657
VAR00007	1,000	,589
VAR00008	1,000	,490
VAR00009	1,000	,676
VAR00010	1,000	,717
VAR00011	1,000	,683
VAR00012	1,000	,691
VAR00013	1,000	,686
VAR00014	1,000	,661
VAR00015	1,000	,789
VAR00016	1,000	,663
VAR00017	1,000	,594
VAR00018	1,000	,423
VAR00019	1,000	,664
VAR00020	1,000	,406

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 6. Factor Analysis of JAWS – Total Variance Explained

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8,050	40,248	40,248	8,050	40,248	40,248	4,588	22,942	22,942
2	2,467	12,335	52,583	2,467	12,335	52,583	4,381	21,904	44,846
3	1,149	5,744	58,328	1,149	5,744	58,328	1,891	9,454	54,300
4	1,040	5,200	63,527	1,040	5,200	63,527	1,846	9,228	63,527
5	,953	4,767	68,294						
6	,777	3,885	72,180						
7	,774	3,871	76,050						
8	,697	3,485	79,535						
9	,622	3,110	82,645						
10	,550	2,748	85,392						
11	,521	2,605	87,997						
12	,441	2,205	90,202						
13	,362	1,810	92,013						
14	,337	1,687	93,700						
15	,306	1,530	95,230						
16	,272	1,360	96,591						
17	,227	1,136	97,727						
18	,188	,940	98,667						
19	,150	,750	99,417						
20	,117	,583	100,000						

Appendix 7. Factor Analysis of JAWS – Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix(a)				
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
VAR00016	0,747			
VAR00009	0,717	-0,385		
VAR00007	0,702			
VAR00004	0,604	-0,384		
VAR00017	0,574	-0,307		
VAR00012		0,792		
VAR00010		0,784		
VAR00011		0,769		
VAR00013		0,711		
VAR00005	-0,323		0,692	
VAR00001	-0,362		0,644	
VAR00018			0,641	
VAR00019		0,395	0,543	
VAR00020		0,219	0,485	
VAR00006			0,448	-0,612
VAR00003	0,443			0,732
VAR00014		0,303		0,728
VAR00015		-0,532		0,709
VAR00008				0,639
VAR00002	0,747			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Appendix 8. Factor Analysis of OCQ – KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,797
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	427,463
	df	105
	Sig.	,000

Appendix 9. Factor Analysis of OCQ– Communalities

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
VAR00001	1,000	,654
VAR00002	1,000	,587
VAR00003	1,000	,671
VAR00004	1,000	,559
VAR00005	1,000	,522
VAR00006	1,000	,595
VAR00007	1,000	,366
VAR00008	1,000	,544
VAR00009	1,000	,669
VAR00010	1,000	,477
VAR00011	1,000	,215
VAR00012	1,000	,362
VAR00013	1,000	,557
VAR00014	1,000	,577
VAR00015	1,000	,608

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 10. Factor Analysis of OCQ – Total Variance Explained

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5,151	34,337	34,337	5,151	34,337	34,337	3,518	23,455	23,455
2	1,438	9,590	43,926	1,438	9,590	43,926	2,608	17,386	40,841
3	1,376	9,173	53,099	1,376	9,173	53,099	1,839	12,259	53,099
4	960	8,397	61,496						
5	827	6,845	68,341						
6	,799	5,329	73,670						
7	,708	4,717	78,387						
8	,609	4,063	82,450						
9	,532	3,545	85,995						
10	,502	3,347	89,342						
11	,438	2,920	92,262						
12	,374	2,495	94,757						
13	,336	2,238	96,994						
14	,229	1,526	98,521						
15	,222	1,479	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 11. Factor Analysis of OCQ – Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
VAR00001	,739	,320	
VAR00013	,724		
VAR00002	,658	,377	
VAR00005	,654		
VAR00010	,627		
VAR00006	,583		-,387
VAR00008	,573	,374	
VAR00011	,460		
VAR00015		,770	
VAR00003		,765	
VAR00014		,630	,354
VAR00012		,589	
VAR00009	,268	,581	
VAR00004			,756
VAR00007			,561

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix 12. Analysis of JAWS Score with Position Attribute

Descriptives

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Müşteri Danismanı (Kademe 1)	65	111,3846	20,47002	2,53899	106,3124	116,4568	49,00	144,00
Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	123,7500	15,49885	5,47967	110,7926	136,7074	101,00	142,00
Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	116,2500	11,11948	3,93133	106,9539	125,5461	101,00	136,00
Müdür Yardımcısı (Kademe 2)	1	129,0000	.	.	.	.	129,00	129,00
Total	82	113,2805	19,49756	2,15315	108,9964	117,5646	49,00	144,00

ANOVA

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1428,164	3	476,055	1,265	,292
Within Groups	29364,385	78	376,466		
Total	30792,549	81			

Appendix 13. Analysis of JAWS Score with Gender Attribute

Descriptives

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Erkek	46	111,6522	19,35541	2,85380	105,9043	117,4000	62,00	144,00
Kadin	36	115,3611	19,75298	3,29216	108,6777	122,0446	49,00	143,00
Total	82	113,2805	19,49756	2,15315	108,9964	117,5646	49,00	144,00

ANOVA

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	277,808	1	277,808	,728	,396
Within Groups	30514,740	80	381,434		
Total	30792,549	81			

Appendix 14. Analysis of JAWS Score with Age Attribute

Descriptives

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
25 ve daha az	19	116,7368	16,07221	3,68722	108,9903	124,4834	86,00	143,00
26-30	35	107,8286	20,36359	3,44207	100,8334	114,8237	49,00	144,00
31-35	15	119,1333	20,31490	5,24529	107,8833	130,3834	62,00	142,00
36-40	5	106,8000	27,16984	12,15072	73,0642	140,5358	73,00	131,00
41-45	1	121,0000	.	.	.	.	121,00	121,00
46-50	5	117,4000	7,43640	3,32566	108,1665	126,6335	108,00	125,00
51 ve üzeri	2	134,0000	9,89949	7,00000	45,0566	222,9434	127,00	141,00
Total	82	113,2805	19,49756	2,15315	108,9964	117,5646	49,00	144,00

ANOVA

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2994,160	6	499,027	1,346	,248
Within Groups	27798,389	75	370,645		
Total	30792,549	81			

Appendix 15. Analysis of JAWS Score with Work Experience Attribute

Descriptives

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1 yildan az	10	109,5000	16,05719	5,07773	98,0134	120,9866	86,00	131,00
1-2 yil	16	119,5625	11,93297	2,98324	113,2039	125,9211	99,00	136,00
3-5 yil	20	111,0500	21,40456	4,78621	101,0324	121,0676	49,00	144,00
6-12 yil	18	117,8889	17,94399	4,22944	108,9656	126,8122	65,00	143,00
12 yildan fazla	18	107,6667	24,65527	5,81130	95,4059	119,9274	62,00	142,00
Total	82	113,2805	19,49756	2,15315	108,9964	117,5646	49,00	144,00

ANOVA

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1823,384	4	455,846	1,212	,313
Within Groups	28969,165	77	376,223		
Total	30792,549	81			

Appendix 16. Analysis of JAWS Score with Company Experience Attribute

Descriptives

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1 yildan az	46	113,9565	18,01229	2,65577	108,6075	119,3055	62,00	142,00
1-2 yil	20	112,8500	18,88824	4,22354	104,0100	121,6900	65,00	144,00
3-5 yil	15	110,8667	25,51433	6,58777	96,7373	124,9960	49,00	143,00
5 yildan fazla	1	127,0000	.	.	.	.	127,00	127,00
Total	82	113,2805	19,49756	2,15315	108,9964	117,5646	49,00	144,00

ANOVA

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	300,352	3	100,117	,256	,857
Within Groups	30492,196	78	390,926		
Total	30792,549	81			

Appendix 17. Analysis of JAWS Score with Education Attribute

Descriptives

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
İlköğretim	1	105,0000	.	.	.	.	105,00	105,00
Lise	30	112,0667	19,62394	3,58282	104,7390	119,3944	65,00	143,00
Yüksek Okul	10	112,3000	15,07057	4,76573	101,5192	123,0808	88,00	130,00
Universite	37	113,4865	21,61098	3,55282	106,2810	120,6919	49,00	144,00
Yüksek Lisans	4	125,0000	5,59762	2,79881	116,0929	133,9071	118,00	130,00
Total	82	113,2805	19,49756	2,15315	108,9964	117,5646	49,00	144,00

ANOVA

Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	673,339	4	168,335	,430	,786
Within Groups	30119,210	77	391,159		
Total	30792,549	81			

Appendix 18. Analysis of JAWS Subtitles Score with Position Attribute

Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
High pleasurable-High arousal	Müsteri Danismani (Kademe 1)	65	16,1538	4,45544	,55263	15,0498	17,2579	5,00	24,00
	Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	17,8750	3,60307	1,27388	14,8628	20,8872	15,00	24,00
	Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	18,5000	2,39046	,84515	16,5015	20,4985	14,00	21,00
	Mudur Yardimcisi (Kademe 2)	1	20,0000	.	.	.	.	20,00	20,00
	Total	82	16,5976	4,25676	,47008	15,6622	17,5329	5,00	24,00
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Müsteri Danismani (Kademe 1)	65	16,1846	3,77861	,46868	15,2483	17,1209	7,00	25,00
	Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	18,1250	4,32394	1,52874	14,5101	21,7399	11,00	23,00
	Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	16,5000	2,92770	1,03510	14,0524	18,9476	13,00	23,00
	Mudur Yardimcisi (Kademe 2)	1	21,0000	.	.	.	.	21,00	21,00
	Total	82	16,4634	3,77187	,41653	15,6346	17,2922	7,00	25,00
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Müsteri Danismani (Kademe 1)	65	9,0769	3,74711	,46477	8,1484	10,0054	5,00	23,00
	Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	7,1250	1,95941	,69276	5,4869	8,7631	5,00	10,00
	Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	9,2500	1,98206	,70076	7,5930	10,9070	5,00	11,00
	Mudur Yardimcisi (Kademe 2)	1	6,0000	.	.	.	.	6,00	6,00
	Total	82	8,8659	3,49519	,38598	8,0979	9,6338	5,00	23,00
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Müsteri Danismani (Kademe 1)	65	9,5846	4,15291	,51510	8,5556	10,6137	5,00	24,00
	Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	7,2500	1,58114	,55902	5,9281	8,5719	6,00	11,00
	Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	9,3750	3,37797	1,19429	6,5509	12,1991	5,00	13,00
	Mudur Yardimcisi (Kademe 2)	1	8,0000	.	.	.	.	8,00	8,00
	Total	82	9,3171	3,91540	,43238	8,4568	10,1774	5,00	24,00

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	66,383	3	22,128	1,232	,304
	Within Groups	1401,337	78	17,966		
	Total	1467,720	81			
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	47,731	3	15,910	1,123	,345
	Within Groups	1104,660	78	14,162		
	Total	1152,390	81			
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	36,534	3	12,178	,997	,399
	Within Groups	952,990	78	12,218		
	Total	989,524	81			
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	40,596	3	13,532	,879	,456
	Within Groups	1201,160	78	15,399		
	Total	1241,756	81			

Appendix 19. Analysis of JAWS Subtitles Score with Gender Attribute

Descriptives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum	
					Mean				
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
High pleasurable-High arousal	Erkek	46	16,4348	4,10773	,60565	15,2149	17,6546	8,00	24,00
	Kadin	36	16,8056	4,49011	,74835	15,2863	18,3248	5,00	24,00
	Total	82	16,5976	4,25676	,47008	15,6622	17,5329	5,00	24,00
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Erkek	46	16,0652	3,69626	,54498	14,9676	17,1629	8,00	23,00
	Kadin	36	16,9722	3,85810	,64302	15,6668	18,2776	7,00	25,00
	Total	82	16,4634	3,77187	,41653	15,6346	17,2922	7,00	25,00
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Erkek	46	9,3696	3,80268	,56067	8,2403	10,4988	5,00	23,00
	Kadin	36	8,2222	2,98674	,49779	7,2117	9,2328	5,00	17,00
	Total	82	8,8659	3,49519	,38598	8,0979	9,6338	5,00	23,00
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Erkek	46	9,5435	4,09719	,60410	8,3268	10,7602	5,00	22,00
	Kadin	36	9,0278	3,70703	,61784	7,7735	10,2821	5,00	24,00
	Total	82	9,3171	3,91540	,43238	8,4568	10,1774	5,00	24,00

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	2,776	1	2,776	,152	,698
	Within Groups	1464,943	80	18,312		
	Total	1467,720	81			
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	16,614	1	16,614	1,170	,283
	Within Groups	1135,777	80	14,197		
	Total	1152,390	81			
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	26,585	1	26,585	2,209	,141
	Within Groups	962,940	80	12,037		
	Total	989,524	81			
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	5,371	1	5,371	,348	,557
	Within Groups	1236,385	80	15,455		
	Total	1241,756	81			

Appendix 20. Analysis of JAWS Subtitles Score with Age Attribute

Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
High pleasurable-High arousal	25 ve daha az	19	16,5789	4,35017	,99800	14,4822	18,6757	10,00	23,00
	26-30	35	15,6571	4,68378	,79170	14,0482	17,2661	5,00	24,00
	31-35	15	17,8667	3,88893	1,00412	15,7130	20,0203	9,00	24,00
	36-40	5	17,6000	3,91152	1,74929	12,7432	22,4568	14,00	23,00
	41-45	1	15,0000	.	.	.	.	15,00	15,00
	46-50	5	17,4000	2,07364	,92736	14,8252	19,9748	15,00	20,00
	51 ve üzeri	2	20,0000	1,41421	1,00000	7,2938	32,7062	19,00	21,00
	Total	82	16,5976	4,25676	,47008	15,6622	17,5329	5,00	24,00
High pleasurable-Low arousal	25 ve daha az	19	16,1579	4,07244	,93428	14,1950	18,1207	9,00	25,00
	26-30	35	15,8000	3,77141	,63748	14,5045	17,0955	7,00	23,00
	31-35	15	17,8667	3,22638	,83305	16,0800	19,6534	13,00	22,00
	36-40	5	16,2000	5,26308	2,35372	9,6650	22,7350	8,00	22,00
	41-45	1	16,0000	.	.	.	.	16,00	16,00
	46-50	5	16,6000	2,07364	,92736	14,0252	19,1748	15,00	20,00
	51 ve üzeri	2	21,0000	2,82843	2,00000	-4,4124	46,4124	19,00	23,00
	Total	82	16,4634	3,77187	,41653	15,6346	17,2922	7,00	25,00
Low pleasurable-High arousal	25 ve daha az	19	7,7895	2,65788	,60976	6,5084	9,0705	5,00	14,00
	26-30	35	9,4571	3,47548	,58746	8,2633	10,6510	5,00	21,00
	31-35	15	8,6000	4,50079	1,16210	6,1075	11,0925	5,00	23,00
	36-40	5	10,8000	4,26615	1,90788	5,5029	16,0971	5,00	15,00
	41-45	1	6,0000	.	.	.	.	6,00	6,00
	46-50	5	9,4000	1,81659	,81240	7,1444	11,6556	7,00	11,00
	51 ve üzeri	2	6,0000	1,41421	1,00000	-6,7062	18,7062	5,00	7,00
	Total	82	8,8659	3,49519	,38598	8,0979	9,6338	5,00	23,00
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	25 ve daha az	19	8,0526	2,52705	,57974	6,8346	9,2706	5,00	13,00
	26-30	35	10,6571	4,21442	,71237	9,2094	12,1048	5,00	24,00
	31-35	15	8,6000	4,25609	1,09892	6,2431	10,9569	5,00	22,00
	36-40	5	10,0000	5,52268	2,46982	3,1427	16,8573	5,00	16,00
	41-45	1	7,0000	.	.	.	.	7,00	7,00
	46-50	5	7,4000	1,81659	,81240	5,1444	9,6556	5,00	10,00
	51 ve üzeri	2	7,5000	,70711	,50000	1,1469	13,8531	7,00	8,00
	Total	82	9,3171	3,91540	,43238	8,4568	10,1774	5,00	24,00

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	89,069	6	14,845	,808	,567
	Within Groups	1378,651	75	18,382		
	Total	1467,720	81			
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	88,531	6	14,755	1,040	,406
	Within Groups	1063,860	75	14,185		
	Total	1152,390	81			
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	80,081	6	13,347	1,101	,370
	Within Groups	909,444	75	12,126		
	Total	989,524	81			
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	133,623	6	22,271	1,507	,187
	Within Groups	1108,133	75	14,775		
	Total	1241,756	81			

Appendix 21. Analysis of HPHA Score with Work Experience Attribute

Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
High pleasurable-High arousal	1 yildan az	10	14,1000	5,89633	1,86458	9,8820	18,3180	8,00	23,00
	1-2 yil	16	17,5000	3,32666	,83166	15,7273	19,2727	10,00	21,00
	3-5 yil	20	16,5500	4,70694	1,05250	14,3471	18,7529	5,00	24,00
	6-12 yil	18	17,4444	3,16641	,74633	15,8698	19,0191	12,00	23,00
	12 yildan fazla	18	16,3889	4,25840	1,00371	14,2712	18,5065	7,00	24,00
	Total	82	16,5976	4,25676	,47008	15,6622	17,5329	5,00	24,00
High pleasurable-Low arousal	1 yildan az	10	14,8000	4,15799	1,31487	11,8256	17,7744	9,00	22,00
	1-2 yil	16	17,0000	3,11983	,77996	15,3376	18,6624	12,00	23,00
	3-5 yil	20	16,4500	3,96664	,88697	14,5936	18,3064	7,00	23,00
	6-12 yil	18	17,5000	3,50210	,82545	15,7584	19,2416	10,00	25,00
	12 yildan fazla	18	15,8889	4,10006	,96639	13,8500	17,9278	8,00	23,00
	Total	82	16,4634	3,77187	,41653	15,6346	17,2922	7,00	25,00
Low pleasurable-High arousal	1 yildan az	10	9,3000	2,98329	,94340	7,1659	11,4341	5,00	14,00
	1-2 yil	16	7,4375	2,09662	,52416	6,3203	8,5547	5,00	11,00
	3-5 yil	20	9,2500	3,00657	,67229	7,8429	10,6571	5,00	17,00
	6-12 yil	18	8,2222	3,68711	,86906	6,3887	10,0558	5,00	21,00
	12 yildan fazla	18	10,1111	4,65123	1,09631	7,7981	12,4241	5,00	23,00
	Total	82	8,8659	3,49519	,38598	8,0979	9,6338	5,00	23,00
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	1 yildan az	10	8,9000	2,80674	,88757	6,8922	10,9078	5,00	12,00
	1-2 yil	16	7,5625	2,33720	,58430	6,3171	8,8079	5,00	13,00
	3-5 yil	20	10,1000	4,26615	,95394	8,1034	12,0966	5,00	24,00
	6-12 yil	18	9,1667	4,01834	,94713	7,1684	11,1649	6,00	22,00
	12 yildan fazla	18	10,3889	4,75443	1,12063	8,0246	12,7532	5,00	22,00
	Total	82	9,3171	3,91540	,43238	8,4568	10,1774	5,00	24,00

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	89,147	4	22,287	1,245	,299
	Within Groups	1378,572	77	17,904		
	Total	1467,720	81			
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	57,562	4	14,391	1,012	,407
	Within Groups	1094,828	77	14,219		
	Total	1152,390	81			
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	72,848	4	18,212	1,530	,202
	Within Groups	916,676	77	11,905		
	Total	989,524	81			
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	84,341	4	21,085	1,403	,241
	Within Groups	1157,415	77	15,031		
	Total	1241,756	81			

Appendix 22. Analysis of HPHA Score with Company Experience Attribute

Descriptives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
High pleasurable-High arousal	46	16,0000	4,58015	,67531	14,6399	17,3601	7,00	24,00
1-2 yıl	20	17,5000	3,53181	,78974	15,8471	19,1529	10,00	24,00
3-5 yıl	15	17,0667	4,18273	1,07998	14,7503	19,3830	5,00	23,00
5 yıldan fazla	1	19,0000	.	.	.	.	19,00	19,00
Total	82	16,5976	4,25676	,47008	15,6622	17,5329	5,00	24,00
High pleasurable-Low arousal	46	16,3043	3,55196	,52371	15,2495	17,3591	9,00	22,00
1-2 yıl	20	16,4500	3,47131	,77621	14,8254	18,0746	10,00	23,00
3-5 yıl	15	16,8000	4,97422	1,28434	14,0454	19,5546	7,00	25,00
5 yıldan fazla	1	19,0000	.	.	.	.	19,00	19,00
Total	82	16,4634	3,77187	,41653	15,6346	17,2922	7,00	25,00
Low pleasurable-High arousal	46	8,3913	3,36966	,49683	7,3906	9,3920	5,00	23,00
1-2 yıl	20	9,5500	3,63427	,81265	7,8491	11,2509	5,00	21,00
3-5 yıl	15	9,5333	3,75817	,97035	7,4521	11,6145	5,00	17,00
5 yıldan fazla	1	7,0000	.	.	.	.	7,00	7,00
Total	82	8,8659	3,49519	,38598	8,0979	9,6338	5,00	23,00
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	46	8,6087	3,39593	,50070	7,6002	9,6172	5,00	22,00
1-2 yıl	20	9,9500	4,07140	,91039	8,0445	11,8555	5,00	22,00
3-5 yıl	15	10,7333	4,96368	1,28162	7,9845	13,4821	5,00	24,00
5 yıldan fazla	1	8,0000	.	.	.	.	8,00	8,00
Total	82	9,3171	3,91540	,43238	8,4568	10,1774	5,00	24,00

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	41,786	3	13,929	,762	,519
	Within Groups	1425,933	78	18,281		
	Total	1467,720	81			
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	9,301	3	3,100	,212	,888
	Within Groups	1143,089	78	14,655		
	Total	1152,390	81			
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	29,885	3	9,962	,810	,492
	Within Groups	959,640	78	12,303		
	Total	989,524	81			
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	62,916	3	20,972	1,388	,253
	Within Groups	1178,840	78	15,113		
	Total	1241,756	81			

Appendix 23. Analysis of HPHA Score with Education Attribute

Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Mean			
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
High pleasurable-High arousal	İlköğretim	1	14,0000	.	.	.	.	14,00	14,00
	Lise	30	16,9333	3,73181	,68133	15,5399	18,3268	10,00	24,00
	Yüksek Okul	10	15,9000	3,81372	1,20600	13,1718	18,6282	8,00	21,00
	Universite	37	16,4324	5,00855	,82340	14,7625	18,1024	5,00	24,00
	Yüksek Lisans	4	18,0000	1,41421	,70711	15,7497	20,2503	16,00	19,00
	Total	82	16,5976	4,25676	,47008	15,6622	17,5329	5,00	24,00
High pleasurable-Low arousal	İlköğretim	1	15,0000	.	.	.	.	15,00	15,00
	Lise	30	16,3667	4,20577	,76787	14,7962	17,9371	8,00	25,00
	Yüksek Okul	10	14,6000	2,83627	,89691	12,5711	16,6289	10,00	18,00
	Universite	37	16,7568	3,63933	,59830	15,5433	17,9702	7,00	23,00
	Yüksek Lisans	4	19,5000	2,08167	1,04083	16,1876	22,8124	17,00	22,00
	Total	82	16,4634	3,77187	,41653	15,6346	17,2922	7,00	25,00
Low pleasurable-High arousal	İlköğretim	1	10,0000	.	.	.	.	10,00	10,00
	Lise	30	9,5000	3,45164	,63018	8,2111	10,7889	5,00	21,00
	Yüksek Okul	10	8,2000	1,87380	,59255	6,8596	9,5404	5,00	10,00
	Universite	37	8,7027	3,99906	,65744	7,3693	10,0361	5,00	23,00
	Yüksek Lisans	4	7,0000	1,15470	,57735	5,1626	8,8374	6,00	8,00
	Total	82	8,8659	3,49519	,38598	8,0979	9,6338	5,00	23,00
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	İlköğretim	1	11,0000	.	.	.	.	11,00	11,00
	Lise	30	9,7667	3,72025	,67922	8,3775	11,1558	5,00	22,00
	Yüksek Okul	10	8,4000	2,36643	,74833	6,7072	10,0928	6,00	12,00
	Universite	37	9,3514	4,57782	,75259	7,8250	10,8777	5,00	24,00
	Yüksek Lisans	4	7,5000	1,29099	,64550	5,4457	9,5543	6,00	9,00
	Total	82	9,3171	3,91540	,43238	8,4568	10,1774	5,00	24,00

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	23,872	4	5,968	,318	,865
	Within Groups	1443,848	77	18,751		
	Total	1467,720	81			
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	77,213	4	19,303	1,382	,248
	Within Groups	1075,177	77	13,963		
	Total	1152,390	81			
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Between Groups	32,695	4	8,174	,658	,623
	Within Groups	956,830	77	12,426		
	Total	989,524	81			
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Between Groups	30,557	4	7,639	,486	,746
	Within Groups	1211,199	77	15,730		
	Total	1241,756	81			

Appendix 24. Analysis of Organizational Commitment Score with Position Attribute

Descriptives

Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Müşteri Danismani (Kademe 1)	65	56,2923	9,99644	1,23991	53,8153	58,7693	21,00	73,00
Uzman (Kademe 2)	8	63,6250	4,74906	1,67905	59,6547	67,5953	58,00	71,00
Departman Sorumlusu (Kademe 2)	8	62,7500	3,10530	1,09789	60,1539	65,3461	58,00	67,00
Müdür Yardımcısı (Kademe 2)	1	68,0000	.	.	.	.	68,00	68,00
Total	82	57,7805	9,51934	1,05124	55,6889	59,8721	21,00	73,00

ANOVA

Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	719,228	3	239,743	2,824	,044
Within Groups	6620,821	78	84,882		
Total	7340,049	81			

Appendix 25. Analysis of Organizational Commitment Score with Gender Attribute

Descriptives

Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Erkek	46	57,9348	8,48372	1,25086	55,4154	60,4541	40,00	73,00
Kadin	36	57,5833	10,82161	1,80360	53,9218	61,2448	21,00	71,00
Total	82	57,7805	9,51934	1,05124	55,6889	59,8721	21,00	73,00

ANOVA

Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,494	1	2,494	,027	,869
Within Groups	7337,554	80	91,719		
Total	7340,049	81			

Appendix 26. Analysis of Organizational Commitment Score with Age Attribute

Descriptives

Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
25 ve daha az	19	58,1579	6,52570	1,49710	55,0126	61,3032	47,00	67,00
26-30	35	55,8571	11,72013	1,98106	51,8311	59,8831	21,00	73,00
31-35	15	61,0000	8,64374	2,23180	56,2133	65,7867	40,00	71,00
36-40	5	53,8000	9,28440	4,15211	42,2719	65,3281	44,00	66,00
41-45	1	60,0000	.	.	.	.	60,00	60,00
46-50	5	61,6000	1,14018	,50990	60,1843	63,0157	60,00	63,00
51 ve üzeri	2	63,0000	2,82843	2,00000	37,5876	88,4124	61,00	65,00
Total	82	57,7805	9,51934	1,05124	55,6889	59,8721	21,00	73,00

ANOVA

Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	499,237	6	83,206	,912	,491
Within Groups	6840,812	75	91,211		
Total	7340,049	81			

Appendix 27. Analysis of Organizational Commitment Score with Work Experience Attribute

Descriptives

Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1 yildan az	10	60,2000	7,11493	2,24994	55,1103	65,2897	49,00	70,00
1-2 yil	16	55,9375	7,48749	1,87187	51,9477	59,9273	45,00	65,00
3-5 yil	20	56,1000	11,84949	2,64963	50,5543	61,6457	21,00	73,00
6-12 yil	18	61,5556	5,55425	1,30915	58,7935	64,3176	44,00	67,00
12 yildan fazla	18	56,1667	11,82843	2,78799	50,2845	62,0488	26,00	71,00
Total	82	57,7805	9,51934	1,05124	55,6889	59,8721	21,00	73,00

ANOVA

Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	472,767	4	118,192	1,325	,268
Within Groups	6867,282	77	89,185		
Total	7340,049	81			

Appendix 28. Analysis of Organizational Commitment Score with Company Experience Attribute

Descriptives

Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1 yildan az	46	57,9130	9,29952	1,37114	55,1514	60,6747	26,00	71,00
1-2 yil	20	57,0500	8,04903	1,79982	53,2829	60,8171	44,00	73,00
3-5 yil	15	58,1333	12,51780	3,23208	51,2012	65,0655	21,00	68,00
5 yildan fazla	1	61,0000	.	.	.	.	61,00	61,00
Total	82	57,7805	9,51934	1,05124	55,6889	59,8721	21,00	73,00

ANOVA

Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23,713	3	7,904	,084	,968
Within Groups	7316,336	78	93,799		
Total	7340,049	81			

Appendix 29. Analysis of Organizational Commitment Score with Education Attribute

Descriptives

Commitment

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
İlköğretim	1	52,0000	.	.	.	.	52,00	52,00
Lise	30	59,9333	7,79449	1,42307	57,0228	62,8438	44,00	71,00
Yüksek Okul	10	58,9000	7,72370	2,44245	53,3748	64,4252	42,00	67,00
Universite	37	55,6486	11,33876	1,86408	51,8681	59,4292	21,00	73,00
Yüksek Lisans	4	60,0000	3,65148	1,82574	54,1897	65,8103	56,00	64,00
Total	82	57,7805	9,51934	1,05124	55,6889	59,8721	21,00	73,00

ANOVA

Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	372,850	4	93,212	1,030	,397
Within Groups	6967,199	77	90,483		
Total	7340,049	81			

Appendix 30. Analysis relating JAWS on Organizational Commitment

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,801 ^a	,642	,637	5,73280

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4710,851	1	4710,851	143,340	,000 ^a
	Residual	2629,198	80	32,865		
	Total	7340,049	81			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	13,473	3,755		3,588	,001
	Job-related Affective Well-Being Scale	,391	,033	,801	11,972	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Appendix 31. Analysis Relating HPHA and Organizational Commitment

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	High pleasurable-High arousal ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,700 ^a	,490	,484	6,84000

a. Predictors: (Constant), High pleasurable-High arousal

ANOVA ^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3597,202	1	3597,202	76,887	,000 ^a
	Residual	3742,847	80	46,786		
	Total	7340,049	81			

a. Predictors: (Constant), High pleasurable-High arousal

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Appendix 32. Analysis Relating HPLA and Organizational Commitment

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	High pleasurable-Low arousal ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,618 ^a	,382	,374	7,53060

a. Predictors: (Constant), High pleasurable-Low arousal

ANOVA ^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2803,249	1	2803,249	49,431	,000 ^a
	Residual	4536,800	80	56,710		
	Total	7340,049	81			

a. Predictors: (Constant), High pleasurable-Low arousal

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Coefficients^a

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	32,103	3,746		8,571	,000
	High pleasurable-Low arousal	1,560	,222	,618	7,031	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Appendix 33. Analysis Relating LPHA and Organizational Commitment

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Low pleasurable-High arousal ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,615 ^a	,378	,370	7,55587

a. Predictors: (Constant), Low pleasurable-High arousal

ANOVA ^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2772,756	1	2772,756	48,567	,000 ^a
	Residual	4567,293	80	57,091		
	Total	7340,049	81			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Low pleasurable-High arousal

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Coefficients ^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	72,621	2,287		31,751	,000
	Low pleasurable-High arousal	-1,674	,240	-,615	-6,969	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Appendix 34. Analysis Relating LPLA and Organizational Commitment

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed ^b			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Low pleasurable-Low arousal ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,684 ^a	,468	,461	6,98961

a. Predictors: (Constant), Low pleasurable-Low arousal

ANOVA ^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3431,676	1	3431,676	70,243	,000 ^a
	Residual	3908,373	80	48,855		
	Total	7340,049	81			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Low pleasurable-Low arousal

b. Dependent Variable: Commitment

Coefficients ^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	73,269	2,003		36,584	,000
	Low pleasurable-Low arousal	-1,662	,198	-,684	-8,381	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Commitment