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Marmara Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

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ÖZET

İŞ AYRIMCILIĞI ALGISI İLE İŞ DOYUMU VE İŞTEN AYRILMA NİYETİNİN İLİŞKİSİ

Bu araştırma iş ayrımcılığını, çalışanların iş doyumunu ve işten ayrılma niyetlerini olumsuz etkileyen bir olay olarak ele almıştır.

Somut olarak bu çalışma; işyerindeki ayrımcılık algısı, iş doyumu ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Bunun yanı sıra iş doyumunun; işyerinde ayrımcılık ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki ilişkide ara değişken olarak işleyip işlemediğini araştırmaktadır. Çalışma, demografik özellikler ve ayrımcılık çeşitleri arasındaki ilişkileri de ele almaktadır.

Araştırmaya, çeşitli alanlarda çalışan, farklı özelliklere sahip 229 kişi katılmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre; algılanan ayrımcılık çeşitleri ve iş doyumu arasında negatif bir bağlantı bulunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda iş doyumu ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasında negatif bir ilişki vardır. Bunların yani sıra, iş doyumu; iş ayrımcılığı algısı ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki ilişkiyi de, araya giren değişken olarak etkilemektedir. Araştırma; bazı demografik özelliklerin ayrımcılık çeşitleriyle bağlantılı olduğunu da ortaya koymuştur.

Araştırma bulguları gösteriyor ki; ayrımcılığın kaldırılması ile, şirketlerde iş memnuniyetinin artması ve dolayısıyla çalışanların elde tutulma kapasitesinin büyümesi sağlanabilir. Ayrımcılığa maruz kalan gruplar hakkında bilinçlendirmenin geliştirilerek, şirketlerde moral, maddi ve zaman kayıplarının azaltılması sağlanabilir.

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

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ABSTRACT

PERCEIVED EMPLOYMENT DISCRIMINATION AND ITS RELATION TO JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

This study investigated discrimination in the workplace as a phenomenon negatively affecting employees' satisfaction with job and finally, leading to turnover.

More concretely, it analysed the relationship between perceived employment discrimination, job satisfaction, and intention to turnover. It also tried to find out whether job satisfaction intervenes in the relation between perceived discrimination and turnover intention. Moreover, the relations between demographic characteristics and discrimination types were investigated.

The data were collected directly or via electronic mail from 229 people working in diverse employment sectors. The findings of the research indicated that perceived discrimination had a direct and negative contribution on the job satisfaction of those feeling discriminated against, that job satisfaction had a direct and negative contribution on the intention to turnover of the employees, and that job satisfaction intervened in the relation between perceived discrimination and intention to turnover. Furthermore, demographic characteristics were found to influence the way people perceived discrimination.

Research findings imply that reducing and eliminating discrimination might increase organizations' capacity of preventing turnover through increasing job satisfaction. Also, awareness about groups who seem to suffer from discrimination may be developed. Thus, losses in terms of morale, finance, and time for the organization could be minimized.

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INTRODUCTION

Considering two of the imperatives of the contemporary society- raising awareness towards human rights and increasing the performance of the organizations in the context of a great personnel mobility- organizational discrimination has become one of the most debated subjects in the international forums.

There is a poor scientific literature on discrimination in Turkey and even abroad, probably because of the blurry legislation and the difficulties of identifying such a phenomenon, and because of the delicateness of approaching it.

On the other hand, the controversial implementation of the existing discrimination legislation (unnecessarily resorting to law protection where there is no actual discrimination, or no implementation of the law when discriminatory acts are obvious) made discrimination become a prime order issue on the European Union's agenda.

In this era, when resources decrease while competition increases, in order to be successful, organizations cannot rely only on adopting new technologies but they must also consider the importance of the human resources. For that, they resort not only to technological reorganization but also to human reorganization. Managers apply new methods, which aim to maximize their human capital. Today's personnel is much more specialized, much more skilled and has greater knowledge and flexibility than the personnel 50 years ago. It is less replaceable (we refer to highly specialized positions and professions) and organizations have to find ways to discover talented members and to keep them. Milgrom and Oster (1987) consider that when talented members of the organization remain undiscovered and are not given a chance to reveal themselves, this is due to defective organizational policies and procedures. In this context, preventing absenteeism and turnover becomes a priority. In the same context, the focus on personnel's job satisfaction increases. Job satisfaction is considered to be closely related to productivity, turnover, and absenteeism. According to Erdoğan (1996), the organizational factors determining job satisfaction are: payment, advancement opportunities, work characteristics and conditions, and organization's policies and

procedures (Budak, 1999). When employees feel or know they have been discriminated against when it comes to any of these factors, job dissatisfaction is likely to occur.

This study investigates discrimination in the workplace as a phenomenon with negative effects on both the employees and the organization. Beyond affecting employees' satisfaction with job and their mental and physical health, discrimination also leads to lack of involvement, tensioned organizational climate, low performance, lateness and absenteeism, and finally, to turnover. All these cause the loss of valuable financial and time resources, some of which are necessary for the recovery of affected employees or for recruiting and hiring new personnel. Reducing and eliminating discrimination would increase organizations' capacity of predicting and preventing turnover and its costs.

More concretely, the study investigates the influence of perceived employment discrimination on intention to turnover. The distinction between discrimination and perceived discrimination is necessary as this investigation is based on employees' self-reports and not on objective measurements of discrimination. Moreover, it is not sufficient to claim that perceived job discrimination determines turnover intentions. Rather, perceived discrimination leads to a decrease in employee's job satisfaction and this is an indicator of potential turnover. Research models indicate job satisfaction to be a valid predictor for intention to turnover.

Because of the methodological difficulties in investigating the actual turnover behavior, intention to turnover was employed as a research variable. Tett and Meyer (1993) and Böckerman and Ilmakunnas (2004) have revealed turnover intention to be a good predictor of future turnover behavior. Thus, the results of this study may lead to assumptions about actual turnover behavior.

This study also tries to establish the effects of different demographic characteristics (personal, educational, professional) on the perception of discrimination types due to personal characteristics, on one hand, and discrimination in human resources applications, on the other.

Therefore, investigating perceived employment discrimination and its relation

to turnover intentions has not only theoretical and practical advantages but is also in the interest of the social and legislative reforms that are to be done in Turkey.

I. LITERATURE SURVEY

I. A. DISCRIMINATION

Human rights were mentioned for the first time in Christianity and Islamism. A human being had rights and freedom just because he or she was born as a human being. Later on, in the 18th century, human rights were brought up to light again, this time by French and English philosophers. This time man was regarded not as a creature that had been given the divine right to live, but as a part of the great nature. However, the real evolution in human rights law occurred right after the World War II, when nearly 25.000.000 people lost their lives. That is when a newly created international organization- the United Nations decided that their first declaration should be on human rights and freedoms (Bozlak, 2004, p. 1). The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1998, p. 83) adopted on 10 December 1948 by the United Nations states in its first article that: "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood." Further, Article 23 (United Nations, 1998, p. 86; Ceylan, 2002) states that:

- Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favorable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

- Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

- Everyone who works has the right to just and favorable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

- Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

The International Labor Organization (ILO) was the first specialized agency to work with the United Nations. Its main purpose is "to promote social justice for

working people everywhere" (United Nations, 1998, p. 51). It was also the first to organize, in 1958, a convention on discrimination, calling for national policies to promote equality of opportunity and treatment, and to eliminate discrimination in the workplace on grounds of race, color, sex, religion, political opinion, extraction or social origin.

Despite a history of over 55 years, the rights guaranteed by the Declaration of Human Rights remain just a utopia in many parts of the world, the access of many people to food, property, education, work, social security, medical services, freedom of speech etc. still being limited by more or less visible obstacles. In consequence, the fight against discrimination of any type became one of the top priorities of governments and non- governmental organizations across the world.

I. A. 1. Employment Discrimination Laws

I. A. 1. a. Discrimination Laws in the United States of America

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 of the United States Code prohibits discrimination in both the public and private sector based on race, color, religion, sex (including pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions), and national origin. It applies to companies with more than 15 employees, labor organizations and employment agencies, in areas such as hiring, discharging, compensation, term, conditions, and privileges of employment. There are also federal acts protecting against age, sex, citizenship status, and disability discrimination in employment and ensuring the right to equal pay: Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, the Civil Rights Reconstruction Era Statutes of 1981, the Equal Pay Act of 1983, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, the American with Disabilities Act of 1990, the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986, the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993, Code of Federal Regulation etc. (Cornell University, 2005, p. 1). The Equal Pay Act prohibits paying wages based on gender by the employers and unions. It states that when workers perform equal work in jobs requiring equal skill, effort and responsibility and performed under similar working

conditions, no matter what their sex is, they should be paid the same wage. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act prohibits discrimination against employees over 40 years. It also contains a guideline for pensions, benefits, and retirement plans. The Rehabilitation Act aims to provide employment opportunities in the public and private sector to persons with handicap. The interpretation of Title VII and these acts led to the creation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) as an independent agency meant to investigate the charges of unlawful employment practices (EEOC, 2005). Beside these federal acts there are also state statutes that protect from employment discrimination. Some of these statutes cover categories of employers or employees that are not included in the federal laws, thus providing protection to a larger number of employees.

I. A. 1. b. Discrimination Laws in Europe

The 15 European Union (EU) Member States already have a common legislation against discrimination but the implementation is still very difficult. Since 2003 the European Commission has decided to take more concrete actions against discrimination, especially in the field of employment where it occurs the most. The *Racial Equality Directive* (implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of race, ethnic origin, culture or religious background in all fields), the *Employment Equality Directive* (establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation), and the *Community Action Program to Combat Discrimination (For Diversity- Against Discrimination)* are considered to form guides on the elimination of discrimination not only for the member countries of the Union but also for those governments whishing to align their constitutions to the international legislation. These directives establish both rights and obligations concerning discrimination. *Directive 1* (EUMC, 2004, p.1):

- Defines direct and indirect discrimination,

- Leaves victims of discrimination a right of redress through a judicial or administrative procedure, associated with appropriate sanctions for those who discriminate,

- Shifts the burden of proof (in civil cases) once a prima facie (before closer inspection) case of discrimination has been made out by a complainant and accepted by the court or other instance,

- Provides protection against harassment and victimization,

- Covers discrimination in employment and training, education, social protection (including security and health care), social advantages, and the supply of and access to goods and services, including housing,

- Requires the Member States to provide information on their territory about the measures they adopt to fight discrimination,

- Requires Member States, which have not already done so, to establish bodies for the promotion of equal treatment which will provide independent assistance to the victims of discrimination, conduct surveys and studies, and publish reports and recommendations.

Directive 2 (EUMC, 2004, p.2):

- Prohibits discrimination on grounds of religion and belief, disability, age and sexual orientation in the labor market,

- Provides the same basic rights of protection as Directive 1,

- Requires employers to make reasonable adjustments to cater for the needs of a person with a disability who is qualified to do the job in question. Such adjustments may for example be to workplaces, working patterns or the distribution of tasks among employees.

The program to combat discrimination is aimed to make the directives heard to everyone and to facilitate their implementation.

The legal support of these directives is provided by Article 13 (former Article 23) of the Amsterdam Treaty:

- Any discrimination based on any grounds such as sex, race, color, ethnic or social origin, genetic features, language, religion or belief, political or any other opinion, membership of a national minority, property, birth, disability, age or sexual orientation shall be prohibited.

The European Union also promotes the so- called "positive discrimination" efforts intending to adopt measures in favor of the discriminated categories (women, national, religious and sexual minorities, persons with disabilities etc.) for an undetermined period of time (until the action will not be necessary anymore).

I. A. 1. c. Discrimination Laws in Turkey

Turkey has been a close co- operator of the European Union ever since 1959, known then as the European Economic Union (Enlargement. EU-Turkey Relations, 2005). It was also one of the first countries to join (1945) the United Nations in their fight against social and political problems of the world. At the moment, Turkey is not only a country with one of the most rapid growing economies in the world, considering the ups and downs it went through, but also a country that has been profoundly implicated in the regulation of its citizens' rights and freedom, especially in the fight against discrimination. Moreover, Turkey started negotiations for its adherence to the European Union, the fight against discrimination being now, more than ever, a priority on the government's agenda. Even though there is no separate law against discrimination, the Constitution and some codes contain articles prohibiting discrimination. Among them there is the current Turkish Labor Code (Labor Act of Turkey, 2005; İş Kanunu, 2005) stating in its Article 5 that:

- In labor relations no discrimination shall occur on the grounds of language, race, sex, political opinion, philosophical belief, religion, membership of a religious sect or other similar grounds.

- Unless there are essential reasons for differential treatment, the employer must not make any discrimination between a full-time and a part-time employee or an employee working under a fixed-term employment contract (contract made for a definite period) and one working under an open-ended employment contract (contract made for an indefinite period).

- Except for biological reasons or reasons related to the nature of the job, the employer must not make any discrimination, either directly or indirectly, against an employee in the settlement, conditions, execution, and termination of his (her) employment contract due to the employee's sex or maternity.

- Differential remuneration for similar jobs or for work of equal value is not permissible.

- Application of special protective provisions due to the employee's sex shall not justify paying him (her) a lower wage.

- If the employer violates the above provisions in the execution or termination of the employment relationship, the employee may demand compensation up to his (her) four months' wages plus other claims of which he (she) has been deprived. Article 31 of the Trade Unions Act is reserved.

- While the provisions of Article 20 (regulating the procedure of appeal against termination) are reserved, the burden of proof in regard to the violation of the above – stated provisions by the employer rests on the employee.

- However, if the employee shows evidences related to a strong likelihood of such a violation, the burden of proof that the alleged violation has not materialized shall rest on the employer.

Even though "other similar grounds" could refer to ethnic origin, age, and sexual orientation, no specifications are made about these grounds for discrimination (Pavan- Woolfe, 2004). There are also some other conceptual lacunas: no specifications are made on direct and indirect discrimination, on harassment or victimization. Moreover, this article applies to all labor relations (hiring, promotion, training, compensation etc.) except recruitment. In consequence, not all forms of discrimination that could occur are covered by Article 5, this leaving room to interpretations.

Beyond these legislative norms that prohibit discrimination, it should not be forgotten that there was a time not long ago when discrimination was perfectly legal and even institutionalized by the governments. That is the case of the enslavement of the Blacks in the United States, the apartheid in South Africa, the Jewish extermination by the Nazi Germany, the re- education camps in some communist countries. The intensity of discrimination in these cases ranged from mild, such as slowness in product and service delivery to the subject discriminated, through racial or ethnic slurs, denial of employment or services, to crimes and genocide.

I. A. 2. Definitions of Discrimination

There are several meanings of the word "discrimination", according to the domain in which it is being used: economics (price discrimination), medicine (perceptive discrimination), statistics (discriminant analysis), social psychology (genetic discrimination), employment (sexual, religious, ethnic discrimination etc). Below some of the most relevant definitions of discrimination in employment are presented.

1. Discrimination is the action of separating, distinguishing among two or several beings or things that cannot be mixed up (Grand Larousse Encyclopedique, 1961, p. 120).

2. Discrimination occurs when we behave differently to two persons under the same circumstances when we should behave in the same way. Prejudice is one of the sources leading to discriminatory behavior. The prejudice is based on a negative feeling

towards a group or a person and on stereotype, which is the inclusion of a person into a certain group without having any previous knowledge of that person (Cuceloglu, 1994, p. 543).

3. [In discrimination] with respect to attractiveness, sex, height and weight, we are dealing with factors which cannot have any meaningful impact on performance for most jobs and occupations (Buchanan and Huczyski**,** 1997, p. 61).

4. Discrimination in economic life usually consists of sorting people according to traits rather than productivity (Cooter, 1994, p.137; Schwab, 1998, p. 2).

5. Discrimination is the denial of opportunities and equal rights to individuals and groups because of prejudice and for other arbitrary reasons (University of Idaho, 2005).

6. Discrimination is the act of treating a person differently in a negative manner based on factors other than individual merit (Washington University, 2005).

7. Discrimination should be defined, as one person or a group of persons, being treated less favorably than another on the grounds of racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation (direct discrimination) or where an apparently neutral provision is liable to disadvantage a group of persons on the same grounds of discrimination, unless objectively justified (indirect discrimination) (European Commission, 2005).

I. A. 3. Theories of Employment Discrimination

The two most important theories on employment discrimination have an economic background.

One of the first theories on discrimination was elaborated by Gary Becker in 1957 (Garner- Moyer, 2003). Becker was the first to introduce a personal variable in explaining an economic situation when defining discrimination in terms of taste. He

asserted that employers tended to express a taste for not mixing with groups that are underrepresented on the labor market. The origin of this taste would reside in employers' desire to stay away from people about whom they had negative judgments, in this theory's case, minorities. This would lead to a paradox, as while trying to maximize profits, discriminatory practices in favor of certain potential employees would also increase costs. However, this taste for discrimination could be dictated not only by employers' desire to keep away from individuals belonging to minorities, but also by minorities' reluctance about working for people different from their own group or by clients' desire to be served only by individuals who were similar to them.

The second theory was developed by Phelps and Arrow in 1972 (Askevis-Leherpeux, 1998, p. 71; Tajfel, 1981) and improved later by Akerlof (1988). It asserts that discrimination is determined by employers' beliefs about employees. These beliefs are usually wrong, as they are not based on objective and complete information. On the contrary, employers lack information that would help them correctly evaluate their employees' productive capacity and have to use criteria less than objective when developing beliefs. These criteria are the most obvious and general ones, such as the groups to which employees belong to. In other words, employers discriminate because they cannot possibly know their employees' "invisible" characteristics. This theory brings in the rational dimension of the discriminatory behavior: discrimination is not unconscious, but is the most economic way of selecting employees when information other than general characteristics (race, religion, sexual orientation etc.) is lacking. Phelps named this phenomenon statistical discrimination. It is closely related to the social psychology's *self- categorization theory* mentioned below.

Self- categorization theory suggests that individuals seek to maintain a positive social identity through a process of self- categorization (Bourhis, Gagnon, and Moïse, 1997; Tajfel, 1981). In this process, individuals classify themselves and others into salient social categories such as those based on demographic characteristics. Some of these characteristics are genetic, such as skin color, hair texture, and gender, some others, such as language, beliefs, and customs on the other hand, are learned. Individuals derive social identities from these classifications, meaning that gender, race,

religion, and ethnicity give them a social identity. In order to maximize the positive valence associated with one's social category, individuals perceive themselves and similar others as forming the in- group, and dissimilar others as forming the out- group (prejudices). They tend to associate with those who are similar and tend to avoid people who are different. This identification with the in- group creates the desired positive social identity and enhances self- esteem and the sense of belongingness. But the more the out- group is avoided, the less is known about it. Thus the judgments made on the out- group (stereotypes) are generalizations based on limited knowledge, misinformation, and a lot of guesses and distortion of reality. Characteristics attributed to the out- group are usually negative, in contrast with those of the in- group. Sometimes they can be positive, but only when certain individual characteristics are denied from a person. For instance, one may talk about a woman that she would make a great mother as she is very caring and nurturing, but one would actually not want to admit that the woman wants a carrier. The aim of this differentiation between the in-group and the out- group is to achieve or maintain perceptions of superiority over the out- group on some dimensions. The prejudices and stereotypes then turn into discriminatory behaviors, which, in return, can reinforce stereotypes.

All the definitions and theories presented above lead to the conclusion that discrimination in employment is an unfair differentiation, preference, exclusion or restriction of a person or group of persons, based on the evaluation of characteristics other than those relevant for performance on the job.

I. A. 4. Types of Discrimination

Sex (including birth, pregnancy, and related medical conditions), race and ethnic origin, religion and belief, age, sexual orientation, and disability are the most common grounds for discrimination, also mentioned in the European Union terminology (Garner- Moyer, 2003, p. 8). Marital status, physical appearance, political or philosophical opinion, favoritism (granting someone special rights based on gratitude or close relationship), socio- economic status, chronic sickness (HIV infection, cancer etc.), and educational level can also constitute grounds for discrimination. These types

of discrimination are based on personal characteristics of the employees and are named *discrimination types due to personal characteristics.*

I. A. 4. a. Discrimination Types Due to Personal Characteristics

I. A. 4. a. 1. Sex Discrimination (Sexism)

Sex discrimination or sexism refers to unfair employment practices based on stereotypes and assumptions about abilities, traits or performance of a person on the basis of sex: men are "work –oriented" while women are "family –oriented", so women are not exactly "suited" for the labor market. Frequently employers expect women to have home duties, such as caring for children, rather than aspiring to a carrier. Sex discrimination also refers to those job policies that exclude individuals on the basis of sex but are not job related (Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, 2005). It is unlawful everywhere around the world, including Turkey. There are also exceptions, such as in situations where gender is an occupational qualification, for instance in a guardian job at a women's prison or for a nurse at a hospital having only female patients. It refers to both of the sexes, but in most of the cases women are the ones being discriminated against.

Another stereotype that was frequently used in the United States was the one that "women live longer than men". This led some employers to ask women to make higher pension contributions than men or to give them lower pensions in spite of equal monthly contributions with men. Even if based on a statistical reality, this phenomenon was considered unfair and illegal, since employers used gender to predict employee's longevity!

There are also stereotypes regarding the types of professions women or men should choose. For instance, we can rarely see men working as secretaries or kindergarten teachers or women working as firemen, construction workers or auto mechanics.

Many times it is assumed that when discriminating, one of the groups is treated more favorably than the other. But this is not always the case. For instance, in time of war a law can be issued to send young men to the frontline, women being forbidden to participate! In such a case it is difficult to say which of the genders has been discriminated against.

Despite the increasing number of women entering the labor market and despite anti- discriminatory laws, studies done by Souza- Poza and Souza- Poza (2000) indicate that many organizations use, more or less intentionally, discriminatory practices against female employees, still regarded as an "inferior" category of employees. Women tend to be paid less than men, receive lesser opportunities for advancement, and perceive more limited access to professional development resources.

Sex or gender discrimination is probably the most investigated type of discrimination. It is a "classic", but still on top.

In Fiscal Year 2004, Equal Employment Opportunities Commission (EEOC) received 24249 charges of sex-based discrimination. EEOC resolved 26598 sex discrimination charges (including those from previous years) and recovered 100,8 million dollars.

A statistical research on pay and income in Great Britain in 2002 brought out evidence on women' s lower wages in several areas (Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, 2002):

- Women working full- time in Britain earned 81% of the average earnings of men. This gap did not change since the mid 1990s.

- Women working part- time earned 59% of the average hourly earnings of men who worked full- time. This gap did not change since 1975.

- In most major occupational groups and industrial sectors average hourly earnings were higher for men than for women.

- The income gap between men and women was even wider, 48%.

- In couple households, men's income accounted for two thirds of total family income.

- Occupational pensions accounted for more than two- fifths of the income of men in pensioner couples, while women' s accounted for less than a fifth.

In a study of the treatment of female and male employment applicants by auto service shops in the San Francisco Bay area, United States, Nunes and Seligman (2000) investigated the impact of gender on the possibility of obtaining an entry-level position in auto service shops. There were two matched groups of job applicants that applied for entry- level positions at twenty auto service shops. The groups were comparable in all aspects except the gender. The results obtained suggested that in 47% of the cases, men were preferred, in 33% of the cases there was no gender preference while in 20% of the cases women were preferred. When the data was limited to shops that were actually hiring, the results are even more clear: in 60% of the cases men were preferred while in only 15% of the cases women were preferred. When the data was analyzed for patterns of differential treatment at each shop, 35% of the shops were observed to prefer male applicants, 5% preferred female applicants while 20% showed no preference during test situations. The researchers concluded that women were treated less favorably than men when applying for auto service jobs. They suggested that the very low numbers of females (5.7%) in the automotive service industry was not due only to self-selection and/or lack of interest on the part of women, but also to prejudices and stereotypes on behalf of shop owners and managers. However, the small number of auto shops tested reduces the reliability of the research.

A statistical survey done in the United States on 1000 employees by FindLaw (2000) concluded that gender bias is the most common type of discrimination the American employees encounter.

A research done in Turkey in the National Ministry of Education (Ozcan, 1999) brings out some interesting facts:

- Female teachers usually choose this profession because it is seen as "appropriate" by society,

- They advise their pupils to choose professions that suit their "gender abilities", thus perpetuating discriminatory models,

- They admit to have encountered obstacles in their carriers because of their sex,

- Those female teachers who became managers admit to have been strongly supported by their families,

- Some of the female teachers that became managers talk about "unseen obstacles" while others talk about verbal harassment and mockery related to their gender,

- Female managers consider that promotion in the Ministry of Education is based on political reasons,

- They consider that men support each other and deny access of women to higher positions,

- When women aspire to a management position, they have to respond to certain expectations.

Another research made on perception of discrimination in work life in Istanbul (Kutlu, 2002) concludes that gender discrimination is the fourth in order, after stereotype discrimination (refers to bias in business applications such as promotion, payment and performance appraisal), educational discrimination and relationship discrimination (favoritism). The explanation given by the author for this fourth place is that now women are massively entering the labor market because of the: increasing employment opportunities, extension of marriage age, increasing number of childless families, increasing flexible work hours, increase in education opportunities, and increase in divorce rate.

In the process of labor market reform "equality between genders" has become the main principle of the European Union. Briefly, directives of the Union state that men and women should be provided equal pay, equal treatment, and equal opportunities

in work life. Moreover, there are special protection articles for pregnant women or for those that have given birth to a child.

Turkey was one of the first countries to adopt "equality before the law " (1930), stating that "men and women have equal rights". In 2004 it declared that "the state is responsible for ensuring this equality in practice", as a more concrete implication of the government (Women in Turkey, 2005). Turkey has also signed an agreement with the Committee for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women in 1985 and an optional protocol in 2002, and created a special ministerial body, Directorate General on the Status of Women (United Nations, 1990), entirely dedicated to women. This institute deals with women's rights protection (sometimes victims to domestic violence and honor killings) and their development opportunities in social, economical, educational, cultural, and work life. This is what the European Union names "positive discrimination".

Unlike other types of discrimination, sex and disability discrimination require a special treatment. Sex- blindness and disability- blindness are not always what the authorities expect from companies since, for instance, pregnant women or persons with disabilities need special accommodations. This means that "discrimination should be done" but in favor of the under- represented category. This also means that a separation based on gender or disability needs to be done, but in a way that would ensure equal standards (for instance, separate bathrooms for men and women or for healthy and disabled persons).

I. A. 4. a. 2. Pregnancy Discrimination

Pregnancy discrimination refers to pregnancy, childbirth, and related medical conditions and is forbidden by the law. Discrimination based on "potential" for pregnancy is also illegal (EEOC, 2005). An issue largely debated by the American economists was that pregnancy was a controlled event and thus, it could be used by women to get maternity leave or to be paid health insurance. However, many European countries and the U. S. A. protect the woman and the newly born child, considering that

more and more working women choose to have a child at a later age, when their careers are better established.

Well-known companies that have faced pregnancy-discrimination lawsuits in the United States include Wal-Mart, Cincinnati Bell, and even a soap opera production house. The latter fired an actress right after she announced that she was pregnant (Rosenberg McKay, 2004).

The practice of law indicates that the majority of sex discrimination claims are linked to pregnancy and childcare. The charges on pregnancy discrimination come from a range of women, varying from those in entry-level jobs as well as from those in executive positions (Armour, 2005).

According to the law, a pregnant woman or a woman who has just given birth to a child is considered temporarily "disabled". That is why the employer has to provide her special pregnancy accommodations: modified tasks, alternative assignments, medical leave or leave without pay, rooms for breastfeeding, and nurseries. The employer must also allow the pregnant employee to work as long as she can perform the job. He must also hold open a job for a pregnancy related absence as if she were on a medical leave because of a temporary disability (EEOC, 2005).

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC, 2005) indicates that pregnancy discrimination complaints jumped almost 40% in 10 years, while the USA birthrate dropped almost 10%. In Europe, the "career- family" situation is similar to the one in the States. It is difficult for parents, and especially for mothers to divide themselves between family and work responsibilities. It is even a risk for an employee to get pregnant while she is on a job, as she could be fired once the employer finds out about her pregnancy and about her possible maternity leave. Also, female employees are not promoted because employers fear that they will just get pregnant and leave. Nowadays, getting pregnant or having many children has become a luxury that only wealthy or at least socially secured families can afford. Most of the couples prefer having at most one child or no children at all, due to the problems arising from a potential pregnancy. Governments did not find an acceptable way to protect both the

pregnant woman and the employer yet. Unfortunately, this negatively reflects on the future of the organizations and of the nations.

I. A. 4. a. 3. Marital and Parental Status Discrimination

Discrimination based on marital and parental status is usually accompanied by other forms of discrimination, such as pregnancy or sex discrimination. Marital status discrimination occurs where someone is treated differently because of his or her marital or relationship status. In other words, a person is ill treated because he or she is married, widowed, divorced, single, or unmarried, living with a same-sex or opposite-sex partner (whether a legally recognized domestic partner or not) (EEOC, 2005).

Marital status discrimination occurs where, for instance, a candidate for a job is asked about his/ her marital status or his/ her intention to get married (things that have no relevance for the professional qualification of that person). It is also present where one is expected to work longer hours or travel more because he or she is single, or where one is not promoted because the company prefers “stable family men” to “bachelors,” or because as a recently married woman, the employee will be starting a family soon. Some other times the company pays health insurance benefits for the spouses and families of married employees, while single employees and those with domestic partners (forming a couple without being legally married) are not allowed to take advantage of these benefits (Marital and Parental Status Discrimination, 2006).

"Status as a parent" refers to the status of an individual who, with respect to an individual who is under the age of 18 or who is 18 or older but is incapable of self-care because of a physical or mental disability, is:

- A biological parent,
- An adoptive parent,
- A foster parent,
- A stepparent,

- A custodian of a legal ward,
- In loco parentis (in place of the parents) over such an individual,
- Actively seeking legal custody or adoption of such an individual (EEOC, 2002).

Parental status discrimination occurs where an employee is not promoted because the company thinks that the person will be reluctant to travel or work longer hours because of his/ her children, or on the contrary, as a single employee, the person is forced to work more to cover employees with children. It is also present where the company pays health insurance only for the children of married employees, but not for the children of single employees or domestic partners (Marital and Parental Status Discrimination, 2006).

However, it can be added that mainly women are subject to these types of discrimination. This is largely due to women's double responsibility, towards their work and their family.

I. A. 4. a. 4. Racial Discrimination (Racism)

Racial discrimination (Racial Discrimination in the Workplace, 2005) or racism refers to illegal employment practices based on race or color or, in some cases, immutable characteristics associated with race, such as skin color, hair texture, eye shape or certain facial features. It also refers to bias in employment on the basis of a condition that predominantly affects one race, unless that condition is job related. Bias based on association with people of a certain race is prohibited. Physically isolating one employee from other employees or customer contact because of his race or excluding members of one group from particular positions or categorizing jobs or employees so that certain jobs are generally held by members of a certain protected group are illegal, too. Requesting pre- employment information on the applicant's race is also illegal, unless this information is to be used for affirmative action in favor of the usually discriminated race, in order to ensure a racial balance. When race is a qualification

required by the job, as in the case of a Black actor to play Othello or of a Chinese waiter or cooker in a Chinese restaurant, no discrimination laws apply.

There are some genetic affections race specific, such as sickle cell anemia, that predominantly occurs in Black people, and that used to be mentioned by some so- called scientists to support their racist theories.

A study of The Impact Fund (Nunes and Seligman, 2005) in the United States found that leading San Francisco and Oakland employment agencies were much more likely to favor white job applicants than black applicants. The study, which included seventeen leading agencies, was based on the results of 45 separate "matched pair" tests. In each test, two research assistants, posing as job applicants, applied for work at each of the agencies. Each member of each pair was equally qualified in every way possible, including paper credentials, interview styles, and personal characteristics. The only difference between the members of each pair was race- each pair had one white and one black applicant. The results showed that 41% of the agencies preferred white applicants, 24% of the agencies did not manifest any preference, while only 8% of the agencies preferred black applicants. The small number of employment agencies tested by this research suggests that further research should be done before making generalization.

A field experiment done on racial discrimination in the labor market (Bertrand and Mullainathan, 2003) used African American sounding names and White sounding names to manipulate race perception. All these names were put on relatively similar resumes that were sent as response to several job ads in Boston and Chicago newspapers. The ulterior call backs were influenced not only by race (resumes with White names receiving 50% more call backs than those with African American names) but also by the neighborhood (those living in better neighborhoods receiving 30% more call backs than their counterparts), no matter what the race was.

Another study investigating the relationship between race and socio- economic status discrimination and self- perceived health status (Ren, Amick, and Williams, 1999) in white and African- American people, was done on white and African-

American people. Of those surveyed, 57.5% of African- Americans reported at least one experience of race discrimination versus only 10.2% of whites; 52.4% of African-Americans reported at least one experience of SES discrimination versus only 23.6% of whites. Race discrimination was associated with educational attainment for African-Americans but not for whites; socio- economic status discrimination was associated with educational attainment for whites but not for African- Americans. For African Americans, persons with more education were more likely to experience race discrimination! For whites, persons with more education were less likely to experience socio- economic status discrimination. Respondents who had any experience of discrimination were less likely to report good mental health than those who had no such experiences. African- Americans had lower psychological distress ratings than whites, probably because they were more accustomed to coping with stress or had greater access to coping resources than whites due to more frequent exposure.

In fiscal year 2004, EEOC received more than 27000 charges of race discrimination and resolved more than 29000 race discrimination charges (including those from previous years) and recovered more than 61million dollars. EEOC observed that the number of charges of color bias has increased 125% since the mid 1990's (EEOC, 2005). However, this may be due to a raise in consciousness of employees rather than an increase in racist attitudes.

I. A. 4. a. 5. Ethnic Origin Discrimination

Ethnic origin discrimination, although connected at some point to race discrimination, constitutes a separate type of discrimination. It refers to a person's ancestry or ethnic characteristics or to the place that the person was born. Discriminating between citizens and non- citizens of a state is considered illegal by most of the states. Thus, beside a country's citizens, aliens with work authorization: permanent residents, temporary residents, refugees, and asylees also have the right to work.

"Ethnic group" is the term used now for what once used to be "national minority". "Majority" and "minority" were used for a long time in political speeches with a meaning different than those of their Latin origins, "minor" and "major". When using "majority" and "minority", we tend to connect the groups represented by these terms to a governmental authority. However, "ethnicity" and "ethnic group" carry a more liberating and independent meaning and also suggest the ties between the members of the group, their sharing of a common fate. The Greek etymology of the word, ethnos means people, thus including the feeling of belongingness. National minority is defined as *a racial, religious, political, national or other group regarded as different from the larger group of which it is part* (The American Heritage Dictionary. Electronic References, 1994)*; a group of people sharing the same language or religion and living in a state in which the majority of the population has a different language or religion* (Larousse Reference Electronique, 1992- 1993). In order to be a "minority", a group has to satisfy seven criteria (Oran, 1991, pp. 265- 267):

- It has to be a group different in terms of race, language or religion from the dominant group,

- It has to be a group large enough to preserve its own traditions, culture, and characteristics; also, it must be smaller than the dominant group,

- It cannot be the dominant group in the country,

- It can only include citizens of that country, otherwise we would be talking of aliens. However, current ethnic discrimination laws protect aliens and interpret bias against non- citizens in employment as illegal,

- The members of the group must have strong bonds to their country and must not be trying to split it in order to create another state,

- It should possess a "minority conscience", a willingness and desire to perpetuate its characteristics,

- The majority should also regard the group as “minority”. There must be certain attitudes and pressure exerted over the minority group in order to call it minority and not “a different group”.

Turkey has a long experience regarding relations with other ethnic groups. Besides Turkish ethnic group, Turkish citizens of other languages such as Kurds, Greeks, Armenians, and Jewish also live in Turkey. Turkey ratified the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights, and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and has adopted several laws granting equal rights to its citizens, no matter what their ethnic origin is. Turkey has recently adopted legislation in areas such as work permits for non-citizens. Mentioned as a transit country for those wanting to travel to Western countries, Turkey has now become a destination for people from eastern Europe- Moldavia, Russia, Ukraine, from Iran, Iraq, and recently, from Africa (Report on Turkey , 2005).

Unfortunately, the Labor Code does not mention ethnic origin as a ground for illegal discrimination, this leaving room to interpretations.

A study of the European Monitoring Center on Racism and Xenophobia (2000) on the attitudes towards minorities and migrants in the European Union Member States showed that compared to the results obtained in 1997- the European year against racism- the high level of negative attitudes towards migrants and national minorities has slowly decreased. For instance, there was an increase in the adoption of policies designed to improve the coexistence of majorities and minorities in the Member States. However, there has also been noticed some concern regarding unemployment, loss of social welfar,e and drop of educational standards that has been connected to minorities and migrants. Thus, the negative attitudes towards minorities could be explained through the fear for socio- economic changes.

In Fiscal Year 2004, EEOC received 8361 charges of national origin discrimination. Including charges from previous years, 8943 charges were resolved, and monetary benefits for charging parties totaled 22.3 million dollars.

I. A. 4. a. 6. Religious Discrimination

Religious discrimination refers to unfair practices in employment due to one person's religious beliefs or practices. The laws against religious discrimination protect someone from being forced to participate or not to participate in a religious activity as a condition of employment. Employers must provide necessary accommodations (flexible scheduling, voluntary substitutions or swaps, job reassignments and lateral transfers, and modifying workplace practices, policies, and procedures) to those whishing to practice religion, unless doing so would affect their work requirements. An employer is not required to accommodate an employee's religious beliefs and practices if doing so would "impose an undue hardship on the employers' legitimate business interests" (EEOC, 2005). Undue hardship is defined as an action requiring significant difficulty or expense when considered in light of factors such as an employer's size, financial resources, and the nature and structure of its operations. An employer can resist undue hardship if accommodating an employee's religious practices requires more than ordinary administrative costs, diminishes efficiency in other jobs, infringes on other employees' job rights or benefits, impairs workplace safety, causes co-workers to carry the accommodated employee's share of potentially hazardous or burdensome work, or if the proposed accommodation conflicts with another law or regulation (EEOC, 2005).

An undesired increase in ethnic discrimination reports occurred after the terrorist attacks from 11 September 2001 over the United States. That is when retaliatory attitudes and harassment against those who were- or were perceived as- Muslim, Arab, Afghani, Middle Eastern or South Asian almost doubled, as EEOC declared (Case Profile. Employment. Discrimination, 2002).

In Turkey, the great majority of the population is Muslim. The other religious groups account for almost 2% of the Turkish population, being mostly represented by Jewish, Greek Orthodox, and Armenian Orthodox communities. Despite a slight slowness in implementing laws by the Turkish authorities, as mentioned by the other religious groups, no serious problems seem to arise in this area. When it comes to the Muslim majority, there are several factions and sects. The Higher Committee for Religious Affairs of the Republic of Turkey is dedicated to serve all its citizens, no

matter what their conviction is. However, due to the fact that most of the Muslims are Sunni, they are the only beneficiary of the financial support from the government, this situation giving birth to occasional reactions on behalf of the Alevi factions (Cem Vakfı, 1998). The Higher Committee of the Religious Affairs does not deny Alevi factions' right to get financial support, but it considers that differences between the Sunni majority and the Alevi on one hand, and between different Alevi factions on the other, are rather political and philosophical than religious (Yıldız, 2003), thus no additional financing being necessary. Opinions of the population on this issue are also very diversified. As a conclusion, as long as the terminological controversies continue and a unitary plan of action does arise, no practical measures could occur to protect against religious discrimination, in case it exists.

EEOC mentioned receiving in the fiscal year 2004, 2466 charges of religious discrimination. EEOC resolved 2676 religious discrimination charges and recovered six million dollars in money for charging parties and other aggrieved individuals.

I. A. 4. a. 7. Age Discrimination (Ageism)

Age discrimination or ageism refers to bias against employees or job applicants who are 40 years of age or older. Generally speaking, there is a preference in hiring and promoting younger people because of certain stereotypes on elderly people such as: older people are resistant to change; they lack creativity, are cautious, and tend to avoid risk, they are weak, their physical strength has declined with age (Williams, 1982, p. 170). A survey on human resources managers, conducted by Cranfield School of Management (Great Britain, 2003) found evidence of widespread ageist stereotypes among HR managers: "Although a significant proportion perceived older workers as having wide experience, being reliable and dependable, and having better time-keeping, they were also perceived as lacking technological skills" (Hope and Smethurst, 2004, p. 2).

According to Age Discrimination In Employment Act of 1967 (EEOC, 2005), age limitations or preferences cannot be used in apprenticeship programs, job notices or advertisement either, unless it is proved to be a requirement of the job.

A study conducted by UK's largest independent research organization- MORI (Market & Opinion Research International) in 2003 for The Guardian newspaper and world's largest independent recruitment advertising agency- TMP Worldwide, shows that ill- treatment or in other words, discrimination because of age is higher than the one based on gender, race, sexual orientation or disability in Great Britain.

It is a fact that Turkey has one of the youngest populations in the world. It is also a fact that Turkey is a country that highly values family bonds and its elderly people. An interesting research done on health resource distribution in Turkey (Ersin, Çevik, Aksoy, and Aksoy, 2002) shows a rather surprising fact: 45% of the interviewed in Turkey considered that age should play a role in decision making regarding end of life (euthanasia)! However, the authors attributed the high rate of answers of this type to the economical crisis that was present at that time in the country, to lack of facilities, and to high unemployment rate.

European Union statistics (İşveren, 2005, p. 99; OECD, 2005) forecast that in 2020, people over 65 years old in Europe will represent 20.7% of the total population while in Turkey this number will be 20%. Again, in 2020, 45.1% of the labor force in Europe will be represented by people over 65 years of age, while in Turkey only 26.7% of the labor force will be over 65 years old. In present (2005), working people over 65 years in Turkey represent 18.6% of the total working population. This means that in 15 years, an increase in the number of old population in the labor market will be recovered. In consequence, measures regarding their protection should be considered.

However, age discrimination can be conducted against young employees as well, here age being misinterpreted as lack of knowledge and experience.

The Turkish Labor Code does not mention age as an illegal ground for employment discrimination, rectifications in these areas still being necessary.

I. A. 4. a. 8. Sexual Orientation Discrimination (Homophobia)

It is illegal to make employment decisions based on a person's sexual orientation or perceived sexual orientation. It seems that frequently this type of discrimination associates with harassment or with gender discrimination.

There are some lacunas in the sexual orientation discrimination laws, as they have newly entered the international legislation. Some laws refer to sexual orientation discrimination as discrimination based on *conduct, which does not adversely affect the performance* of the applicant or the employee. However, the terminology is not very clear.

Then, in the United States, a new issue regarding *gender expression* has arisen. It seems that current laws do not cover all the types of discrimination that gay, lesbian or bisexual persons have to face at work. The law protects only against sexual orientation discrimination and not against gender expression discrimination. That is, a person cannot be accused of being gay or lesbian, but can be punished for looking or behaving in a manner that is appropriate for the opposite sex. *The sexual orientation is the fact that someone is gay, lesbian, bisexual, or straight, irrespective of how he or she behaves, appears, or presents himself or herself in the workplace*. *On the other hand, gender expression is how a person behaves, appears, or presents himself or herself with regard to societal expectations of gender* (EEOC, 2005). Many gay men have effeminate mannerisms or styles of dress, and many lesbian women have unusually masculine mannerisms, hairstyles and manners of dress. Even if this has nothing to do with their capacity to do the job, their breaking of gender expression rules seems to bother the "normal" behaving and looking majority and this is actually being punished by the laws.

Another lacuna is that these laws cover only gay, lesbian and bisexual employees or applicants, but do not refer to trans- gendered or inter- sexed persons, who continue to be subject to discrimination (Fox, 2005).

In Turkey, there are two important organizations protecting the rights of those having a different sexual orientation than the majority. One of them is KAOS- GL Gay

and Lesbian Cultural Research and Solidarity Organization situated in Ankara. It provides social and cultural support to lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender people. It also advocates for measures to end discrimination and violence, and it publishes a magazine that has been registered as a legal publication since 1999 (it was first published in 1994). It has been closed down for "sweeping references to morality" when applying to the Ministry of Interior Affairs for recognition as a nongovernmental organization. However, it was reopened after a short while, mainly because of the efforts of international human rights organizations (Turkey: Officials Try to Shut Down Rights Group, 2005). By the end of the year 2005, KAOS-GL has started to organize seminars and workshops on homophobia.

The other organization is Lambda, situated in Istanbul, closely cooperating with KAOS- GL and Sappho'nun Kizlari (an organization protecting lesbians' rights), establishing weekly, monthly, and annual meetings for its members, supporting KAOS-GL magazine, cooperating with AIDS prevention Society in Turkey and so on (LambdaIstanbul, 2005). It seems that the Turkish government eases the restrictions on these organizations by small degrees every passing day. Annual meetings and press conferences continue to be closely monitored in order to avoid public disorder.

The Turkish law against employment discrimination does not specifically mention the sexual orientation as a ground for discrimination, which can create legislative difficulties.

I. A. 4. a. 9. Disability Discrimination (Ableism)

Disability discrimination or handicap discrimination refers to illegal practices in employment against qualified persons with disabilities or perceived as having a disability. A distinction between the terms of "disability" and "handicap" is necessary. *Disability summarizes a great number of different functional limitations occurring in any population in any country of the world. People may be disabled by physical, intellectual or sensory impairment, medical conditions or mental illness. Such impairments, conditions or illnesses may be permanent or transitory in nature.*

Handicap means the lost or limitation of opportunities to take part in the life of the community on an equal level with others. It describes the encounter between the person with a disability and the environment. The purpose of this term is to emphasize the focus on the shortcomings in the environment and in many organized activities in society, for example, information, communication and education, which prevent persons with disabilities from participating on equal terms (United Nations, 1994, p.9).

An individual with a disability is a person who:

- Has a physical or a mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities,
- Has a record of such an impairment,
- Is regarded as having such an impairment.

A qualified employee or applicant with a disability is a person who, with or without reasonable accommodation, can perform the essential functions of the job in question. Reasonable accommodation may include, but is not limited to:

- Making existing facilities used by employees readily accessible to persons with disabilities,
- Job restructuring, modifying work schedules, reassignment to a vacant position,
- Acquiring or modifying equipment or devices, adjusting or modifying examinations, training materials or policies, and providing qualified readers or interpreters.

A reasonable accommodation is required only if this would not impose and undue hardship on the employer's business. This does not refer to lowering the quality or the production standards.

A study on the effects of disability discrimination laws (Jolls and Prescott, 2004, pp. 20- 22) in the United States was conducted by comparing the legal

environments before and after the implementation of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). The results showed that the new anti- discriminatory law reduced instead of increasing employment chances for disabled people, mainly because of its "reasonable accommodation" requirement and less because of its potential imposition of firing costs for disabled employees to the employers.

A paperwork on discrimination in Turkey evaluated the applied ethics in human resources applications (Seymen- Aytemiz and Bolat, 2005) and concluded that stereotypes such as "disabled employees are costly to the organization while their performances are low" reduce disabled persons' chances to be employed. Authors suggest that before reaching any conclusions regarding the rightfulness of the human resources applications, the correctness of the stereotypes and the way the differential treatment of the disabled people influences their performance should be analyzed.

The legislation of the United Nations member countries relating to employment often establishes schemes such as quota systems or reserved employment (United Nations, 1989). In the latter instance, a specified number of government jobs may be set aside for disabled applicants. Alternatively, the legislation may require the adaptation of work- places or it may promote sheltered workshops by, for example, exempting them from paying the minimum wage. Often, too, financial incentives are created for employers of disabled persons, or subsidies are provided to launch disabled persons in their own small business. In addition, such legislation sometimes sets up placement services for disabled job- seekers. There is little evidence that the various approaches have made much of a dent in this grave and universal problem.

The new legislation on disability discrimination that will come into force in the next years in the European countries will also protect employees suffering from mental illnesses and those with progressive conditions such as cancer, multiple sclerosis or HIV (Williams, 2004).

Concerning the disability discrimination in Turkey, Article 30 of the Turkish Labor Code (Labor Act of Turkey, 2005).states that:

- In establishments employing fifty or more employees, employers shall employ disabled persons, ex-convicts, and victims of terror and assign them to jobs consistent with their occupational skills and physical and mental capacities,

- No disabled person shall be employed in any underground and underwater work,

- The employer must give priority to applicants who have left his establishment because of disablement but who have later recovered should they wish to resume their old jobs, either immediately if vacant positions are available, or if not, when vacancies occur in their previous jobs or in other corresponding jobs, subject to the prevailing conditions of employment.

In Turkey there are more than 300 organizations for disabled persons. One of them is Turkish Society of the Disabled (TSD) that serves for the disabled persons' legal rights, giving them support in rehabilitation, well- being, education, and work. The consistent and insistent work of the Society volunteers and workers had led to certain legal gains like the right to driver's license, laws governing workplaces and workers, laws concerning specifically designed cars for disabled people, special laws on taxation etc. during the 1960's and 1970's. Recently, the European Union has recommended some legislative modifications in the Labor Code that would support disabled persons' integration in labor market. However, in spite of these modifications, the implementation is very difficult and many of the disabled people are still off work or are given jobs or tasks that do not correspond to their abilities, skills, and educational level, many of them still living in poverty. The tendency is usually to lower the productivity or quality standards of the work done by disabled people and thus, to reduce their earnings, when the state should provide them with means to surpass their limitations and to allow them to perform the job just like anybody else.

In Fiscal Year 2004 in the United States, EEOC received 15376 charges of disability discrimination. EEOC resolved 16949 disability discrimination charges in FY 2004 and recovered 47.7 million dollars.

It should not be forgotten that disabled people are members of our society and that they should not be excluded, but integrated in all the areas of activity. Beyond measures regarding basic needs and social facilities, disabled people should be provided with work possibilities, the best way to integrate them.

I. A. 4. a. 10. Physical Appearance Discrimination (Lookism)

Even if this type of bias is not usually subject to discrimination researche, some empirical studies have shown physical appearance (height, weight, physiognomy, attractiveness etc.) to play an important role in the way people are perceived, paid and promoted. A study conducted through the telephone and on the World- Wide Web has indicated that respondents in the United States consider discrimination based on physical appearance and on economic status to be more prevalent than discrimination based on ethnic origin (Kuran and McCaffery, 2003).

Averett and Korenman (1993) found out that the hourly wage of overweight women, aged 23- 31 was 20% lower on average than that of women of average weight (Buchanan and Huczyski, 1997, p. 60). They even found that underweight women also received underweight pay packets. Almost the reverse was found to be true for American men. Those who were underweight had the lowest earnings, with slightly overweight men earning as much as 26% more than their underweight colleagues. Hamermesh and Biddle (1993) found that attractive men and women earn about 5% more than those with average appearance (based on interviewers' ratings of attractiveness) (Buchanan and Huczyski, 1997, p. 60).

In his discrimination research review, Roehling (1999) asserts that the evidence of significant discrimination against overweight employees is not to be ignored. Some of the conclusions he reached were that: overweight persons were subject to discrimination based on body weight; these persons were frequently stereotyped as emotionally impaired, socially handicapped, and as possessing negative personality traits; when associated with gender, overweight men earn more than their female counterparts; the greater the weight, the lower the wages. It is also suggested that

discrimination based on weight may be greater than those based on other characteristics (American Obesity Association, 2005).

This type of discrimination is not expressly included as a ground for discrimination in most of the international legislations, but it was mentioned in several lawsuits as it is considered an illegal ground for discrimination between employees. The State of Michigan is the only one in the United States forbidding discrimination on the basis of weight.

I. A. 4. a. 11. Favoritism

Favoritism is not mentioned by any law but may often be observed in employment decisions. We can refer to favoritism as "knowing someone in special place", or "pulling strings". It refers to family, friendship, acquaintance, camaraderie, gratitude or common background (being born or raised in the same town or village or having graduated from the same university or college or even being the supporters of the same football team) relations that facilitate the situation of the employee related to the decision maker in the human resources department of the organization.

It seems that employment decisions based rather on a close relationship than on objective criteria are quite common in the state sector, as employers prefer to employ someone they know and trust rather than just anybody who claims to be able to do the job without having previously proved it. Unfortunately, 30% to 50% of these decisions prove to be wrong in the very first year of employment and thus the decision has to be cancelled, the employee has to or is forced to quit (Sezen, 2004) and new employment decisions have to be made. Managers in private companies suggest that these kinds of decisions are too costly and thus, the organizations avoid them as much as possible. This type of discrimination was included on the suggestion of several respondents to the pilot questionnaire on grounds for discrimination and after the author has read a newspaper article mentioning political affinities or gratitude as a basis for employment decisions (Ayhan, 2004) and an online article (Yıldız, 2005) sent by a person in a wheelchair claiming that "pulling strings" is an ordinary practice even when it comes to

employing persons with disabilities. Again, it is not mentioned in the legislative terminology.

I. A. 4. a. 12. Socio- Economic Status Discrimination (Classism)

Socio- economic status discrimination is another type of bias barely mentioned in the scientific literature. It is not included as a ground for discrimination in legislative terminology either. Socio- economic status refers to belongingness to a certain social class and to the financial resources usually attached to that class. The inclusion of this type of bias in this research was based, again, on the answers obtained to the pilot questionnaire on grounds of discrimination. Words such as "poor" and "rich", Western" and "Eastern" (Ayrımcılık Karşıtı Forum, 2006), "intellectual" and "worker" are used by average people to generally express socio- economic categories. Socio- economic status discrimination is closely related to political discrimination and to favoritism. This is suggested by apparently innocent, frequently asked questions: "Where are you from?", "What is your father doing for living?", "How many brothers have you got?" Some of the effects of socio- economic status discrimination include a reduced possibility of being hired or promoted, lower income, inequitable access to health care, and inferior education.

An investigation done on the inheritance of economic status (Bowles and Gintis, 2000) brought evidence on what would constitute factors determining a person's actual economic status. It revealed that intergenerational transmission of economic position is higher than previously thought. Concretely, beyond the influence of environmental and genetically transmitted cognitive and non- cognitive personality traits, authors identified the role of the parents' socio- economic status. If we tried to explain socio- economic status discrimination through this study, we would say that a person is expected to remain in the socio- economic class to which his/ her family belongs. Thus, that person's intention to accede to a different level would determine discriminatory attitudes on behalf of the others who deny him/her this right.

A Chilean research (Nunez and Gutierrez, 2004) examined the wage gaps between graduates from the same program (Business and Economics) of a large and diverse public University in Chile. Data used in the study included productivity measures such as academic performance at university, school academic quality, and second language proficiency, and also four measures of socio- economic background. Social class turned out to be highly significant in explaining the wage gap between the participants. Socio- economic background was even more important in determining earnings than academic performance at university.

Although there are no specifications about this type of discrimination in the discrimination prohibitory laws, American Psychological Association considered that measures should be taken against socio- economic discrimination and adopted, in 2000, a resolution through which it expresses its members' continuous effort and determination in supporting poor or disadvantaged categories, by all available means (APA, 2006).

I. A. 4. a. 13. Educational Level Discrimination

Educational level discrimination refers to those employment practices that bias a person because of his/ her low educational level, even though the job does not necessitate a higher educational level. It is usually assumed that the higher the level of school attended, the more knowledge we possess. However, there are persons who have acquired knowledge through long years of experience or through self- education, and rejected in favor of some other persons not so well prepared, but possessing a diploma. Ironically, the reverse situation is possible as well. This type of discrimination is not taken into consideration by legislation, either. On the contrary, educational level is used as a basis for differentiating among employees when it comes to human resources practices, especially about promotion and pay (Rosenberg McKay, 2004).

I. A. 4. b. Discrimination Types in Human Resources Applications

Employment discrimination is sanctioned in any of the human resources applications as well: recruitment, hiring, promotion, assignments, delegations, working conditions, training and development, career development, leaves and vacations, payment, rewards, and benefits, redundancy and termination, etc. These types of discrimination are mentioned in this research as *discrimination types in human resources applications*. While personal characteristics represent grounds for employment discrimination, human resources applications represent the areas in which discrimination could occur. However, unfairness in employment areas can be mentioned without applying to any of the discrimination grounds mentioned above. In such cases it is difficult to identify the source of discrimination but it can be traced to company's organizational culture, economic environment etc.

I. A. 4. b. 1. Recruitment Discrimination

As recruitment is defined as the activity of identifying the possible candidates for a job, this type of discrimination applies not to employees but to those who apply for a job. It generally occurs in job advertisements and questions that are asked while interviewing a candidate for a job. Such job ads are those offering a job only to someone who is "young" or on the contrary, has "a minimum of ten years of experience", or those that require women not to apply or those claiming that reasonable adjustments will not be made in case that the applicant is disabled (Department of Trade and Industry, 2006). Discriminatory questions are those asking the marital status of the applicant or his/ her intention of having children, or those asking about a person' s sexual orientation or his/ her religion or political opinion.

One of the well- known cases in recruitment discrimination in 2005 is the one occurred in an of the Australian airline company, Virgin Blue, that did not hire eight women because they were considered too old (FairfaxDigital, 2006).

I. A. 4. b. 2. Hiring Discrimination

Hiring is the process through which some of the recruited candidates are selected to fill the vacancies within the organization. Hiring discrimination is closely related to discrimination in recruitment. However, while race or disability are rarely mentioned in recruitment ads, these personal characteristics seem to be more often used as a basis for discrimination in hiring, probably because they become obvious only during the interviewing process. Physical attractiveness is not to be ignored when it comes to hiring. Viewzone.com reports that attractive people are two to five times more likely to get hired (Hofstra University's Emerge Newsletter, 2005). The fact that certain categories are still underrepresented in some professional areas (most of the secretaries are women, most of the electricians or auto mechanics are men) is another proof for discrimination in hiring.

I. A. 4. b. 3. Promotion Discrimination

Discrimination in promotion is probably one of the most widespread types. Any of the personal characteristics mentioned in the section above could occur as a basis for unfairness in promotion. The categories most subjected to promotion discrimination are women, ethnic and religious minorities. Not long ago, the members of these categories were considered unable to possess qualities required for advancement in rank, thus being refused the promotion. The number of lawsuits on discrimination in promotion increases every year, as disadvantaged categories become aware of their rights. The Coca Cola company, the U. S. Information Agency and Voice of America are some of the greatest companies suited for race andgender discrimination in promotion (Thelen and Priest, 2001).

I. A. 4. b. 4. Assignments Discrimination

Task assignment refers to the distribution of the work- related duties to the available employees. This type of discrimination is related to discrimination in hiring

and promotion. Again, the categories most subjected to discrimination in assignments are the ethnic minorities (Dealey, 2001). These categories are usually kept away from premium assignments that could improve their communication with the management or could prove them to be successful, thus bringing them a promotion.

I. A. 4. b. 5. Delegation Discrimination

Delegation is the process through which a higher administrative authority grants certain administrative rights to subordinates. It could be regarded as a type of assignment. As it was the case with the assignments, certain employee categories are systematically excluded, thus becoming unable to demonstrate their abilities to fulfill a duty.

I. A. 4. b. 6. Evaluation Discrimination

Some job related evaluations could be based on subjective criteria, such as personality, appearance, attitudes, social behavior etc. that are unrelated to the actual job duties. Under the appearance of an objective performance evaluation, employers could be practicing performance evaluation based on an employee's sex, marital status, disability, race, or other unlawful criteria. Subjective performance evaluation can be used by an employer to terminate or promote an employee for reasons that could be deemed as unlawful (Allison and Taylor, 2006).

I. A. 4. b. 7. Travel Discrimination

Some jobs require that the employees travel to other towns or countries from time to time. These travels are not only a part of the job, but they are also a way of disconnecting from the monotonous office work, a way of gaining experience, an opportunity for the employee to develop himself/ herself and to get future assignments and promotions. They are not only a duty, but also a right for an employee who is

looking for diversity on the job. Nowadays, a job requiring outdoor work is preferable to a static job that offers a limited possibility for movement. Where an organization fails to fairly distribute the right to travel to all its available employees, discrimination occurs and employees are likely to complain about being unfairly stuck at the office.

I. A. 4. b. 8. Leaves or Vacations Discrimination

Leaves or vacations discrimination could be defined as the denial of paid or unpaid leave absence right, where the employee is entitled to use it. One can also imagine the situation where an employee refuses to take a leave for fear he/ she would be denied a promotion or would be terminated after his/ her return to work.

I. A. 4. b. 9. Payment and Rewards Discrimination

Equal payments and rewards require that employees be given equal pay for equal work in the same establishment. The jobs do not have to be identical, but they must be substantially equal. The pay should be related to job content and not to job title. Payment and reward discrimination is usually based on gender, but it can also be based on ethnicity, disability etc.

According to Equal Pay Act (EEOC, 2003), employers may not pay unequal wages to employees who perform jobs that require substantially *equal skill* (experience, ability, education, and training required to perform the job)*, effort* (the amount of physical or mental exertion needed to perform the job), and *responsibility* (the degree of accountability required in performing the job) and that are performed under similar *working conditions* (physical surroundings like temperature, fumes, and ventilation; and hazards) within the same *establishment* (a distinct physical place of business). Different pays are allowed only if they are based on seniority, merit, quantity or quality of production or another similar factor (EEOC, 2005).

I. A. 4. b. 10. Benefits Discrimination

All the employees of the organization should benefit from the same privileges that the policies of the organization specify. Beyond travel and leaves and vacations, there are other benefits that an organization offers to its employees as well. It is unlawful to deny someone the right to lunch tickets, transportation, health insurance etc. just because we feel that the respective person does not need all these as much as the others or because he/ she is considered to be inferior to other employees.

I. A. 4. b. 11. Training Discrimination

Discrimination in training occurs where an employee is refused the right to educate him/ herself on the job, for reasons that are not job or performance connected. The selection of the employees who will get the training is sometimes based on subjective criteria, such as age, race or ethnicity, etc. Journalist Karen Lee (2002) mentions the case of an employee at Union Oil Co., California who was told, at the age of 56, that he was "too old to invest in" when denied a training course.

I. A. 4. b. 12. Working Conditions Discrimination

According to Steward's Handbook (2006, p. 1), working conditions refer to employee's "job environment such as hours of work, schedules, safety, …free clothing or uniforms". Light, air conditioning, space etc. ca may also be considered as physical working conditions. Many of these are included in the collective agreement and subject to collective bargaining. It is unlawful to discriminate in working conditions, as long as this discrimination is not required by the nature of the work itself.

I. A. 5. Ways of Discriminating

I. A. 5. a. Direct Discrimination

Direct discrimination or disparate treatment occurs where an employee or an applicant for a job is less favorably treated because of his gender, race, ethnic origin, religion, sexual orientation, disability or any other ground mentioned above, in recruitment, hiring, promotion, pay and compensation, training, maternal leave, delegation, task distribution, dismissal, termination etc. It is straightforward discrimination (European Monitoring Center on Racism and Xenophobia- EUMC, 2004).

I. A. 5. b. Indirect Discrimination

Indirect discrimination or disparate impact occurs where the effect of certain requirements, conditions or practices imposed by an employer has an adverse impact on a group or another. It is the organization's policy or rule that excludes employees, more or less intentionally. It is a less obvious form of discrimination that should be recognized by looking for three factors:

- The number of people from one group that can comply with the job criteria is much smaller than the rest of the population,

- The criteria cannot be justified by the employer as a real requirement of the job; implying that a person who cannot meet the criteria could still do the job as anyone else,

- The employee must have actually suffered because he/ she could not comply with the criteria.

In this case an employer may claim that discrimination was a "genuine occupational requirement". Of course, he must prove the relevance of the requirement for the job (EUMC, 2004).

I. A. 5. c. Victimization

Victimization refers to retaliation against one employee that has complained or is suspected that might complain to have been discriminated. It is the action of discriminating against someone for opposing employment practices that discriminate or for filling a charge (EUMC, 2004).

I. A. 5. d. Harassment

Severe, persistent or pervasive sexual, religious, ethnic or racial remarks, suggestions, slurs, pressures or other verbal or physical conduct relating to an individual's sex, religion, ethnic origin or race constitute harassment when such conduct (Different Types of Harassment/ Discrimination, 2005):

- Has the purpose or effect of creating an intimidating, humiliating, hostile or offensive working environment,

- Has the purpose or effect of unreasonable interfering with an individual's work performance,

- Adversely affects an individual's status as an employee.

The most widespread form is probably sexual harassment. It may take many forms (EEOC, 2005): physical (unwanted physical contact, impeding someone's movement or following her/ him around, attempting or actually kissing or fondling, or sexual assault, including rape); verbal (sexual innuendos, comments or remarks about clothing, body or sexual activities, humor and jokes about sex that denigrate women or men in general, sexual propositions, requests or demands for sexual favors), nonverbal (whistling in a suggestive manner, using inappropriate body images to advertise events or visual displays of degrading sexual images or material in the workplace). Also, the harasser's conduct must be unwelcome.

Sexual harassment can occur in many situations such as:

- The victim as well as the harasser can be a woman or a man. The victim does not have to be of the opposite sex,

- The harasser can be the victim's supervisor, an agent of the employer, a supervisor in another area, a co- worker or a non- employee,

- The victim does not have to be the person harassed but could be anyone affected by the offensive conduct,

- May occur without economic injury to or discharge of the victim (EEOC, 2005).

In Fiscal Year 2004, EEOC received 13136 charges of sexual harassment. Of those charges, 15.1% were filled by males. EEOC resolved 13786 sexual harassment charges in Fiscal Year 2003 (including those from pervious years) and recovered 37.1million dollars.

In conclusion, the large body of legislation and specific terminology adopted by international forums suggests the gravity of the discriminatory practices. An unfair treatment of those employees differing from the majority through their sex, age, race, ethnic origin, religion or any other demographic characteristic not connected to work, or general employment practices that are not connected to employees' performance have negative impact not only on the discriminated employee's work performance, morale, and mental health state, but also on the organization's success as well, unfair treatment leading to a high rate of turnover, absenteeism, stress, low performance or to costly litigations and loss of valuable labor force.

This research refers to perceived discrimination as a subjective, psychological phenomenon, which is distinct from the legal definition of discrimination.

I. B. JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most important concepts in organizational behavior domain. Work experiences and studies emerged job satisfaction as a variable that has positive influences on organizational behavior when high, and negative influences when low. Things that people see, hear, witness, live during their work life, things that make them happy or sad, eventually generate certain positive or negative attitudes towards their work and employers.

Meta analytical research (Arnold, Cooper and Robertson, 2004, ch. 7; Tett and Meyer, 1993) indicates that job satisfaction is closely related to organizational citizenship behavior, turnover, and voluntary absenteeism; and to some extent, it is used as a predictor of these phenomena. Moreover, a recent study of Sousa- Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) suggests that job satisfaction is probably a better predictor of employee turnover than the more conventional measures such as wages, tenure, and working time.

I. B. 1. Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Below there are three of the most widespread definitions of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction represents a person's evaluation of his or her job and work context (Von Glinow and McShane**,** 1999, p. 204).

Job satisfaction is the extent to which rewards actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of reward (Buchanan and Huczinski, 1997, p. 74).

Job satisfaction is represented by affective orientations on the part of individuals towards work roles, which they are presently occupying (Buchanan and Huczinski, 1997, p. 83).

Verhofstadt and Omey (2003, p. 2) conclude that there are two approaches about job satisfaction: a global one, that defines job satisfaction as a unitary concept, a general attitude towards the job as a whole and a facet one, which is a constellation of attitudes towards various aspects of the job.

Besides that, there is an economical viewpoint considering job satisfaction as *a sub –utility function, which represents the utility of working as one factor of the overall utility function* (Clark and Oswald, 1996; Verhofstadt and Omey, 2003).

I. B. 2. Theories of Job Satisfaction

Theories of job satisfaction try to explain how and why job satisfaction or dissatisfaction occurs.

One of the first theories is Maslow's needs hierarchy theory (Buchanan and Huczinski, 1997, p. 67). It assumes that people have five distinctive needs (physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, and self –actualization) arranged in a hierarchy, whereby people are motivated to fulfill a higher need as a lower one becomes satisfied. It also assumes that jobs vary in their ability of fulfilling these needs. Thus, satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between needs and the ability of jobs to fulfill needs. Even if the model is far from explaining the complexity and dynamism of human needs, it considers that jobs have objective characteristics that can be manipulated in order to increase the level of job satisfaction.

A second theory is Herzberg's motivator –hygiene or two –factor theory ((Buchanan and Huczinski, 1997, p. 69). It assumes that there are two types of factors: job content factors ("motivators"), such as responsibility, recognition, the nature of work itself, achievement, personal growth, and advancement, that are responsible for the presence or absence of job satisfaction; and job context factors ("hygiene factors") such as supervisor relations, co –worker relations, job security, company policies, and working conditions which are responsible for the presence or absence of job dissatisfaction. Here job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are viewed as two independent constructs. Improving motivator factors increases job satisfaction but does not decrease dissatisfaction. Improving hygiene factors reduces job dissatisfaction but does not increase satisfaction. The effect of financial rewards and other hygiene factors in motivating people as shown by research is a limitation of Herzberg's theory, as the

author fails to distinguish adequately between the terms of job motivation and job satisfaction.

A third theory is Lawler's equity-based or facet satisfaction theory (Buchanan and Huczinski, 1997, p. 79) that asserts that satisfaction is a function of the extent to which the perceived amount of job rewards one receives matches the perceived deserved rewards. According to this theory, people develop perceptions of fairness in the distribution and exchange of resources. The amount people expect to receive is partly determined by the comparison with other people. The input –output ratio (inputs refer to employee's contributions to the organization while outputs refer to things received by the employee from the organization in exchange for inputs) is expected to be similar to another employee' s ratio. For a lower input we expect a lower output and vice versa. However, the subjective perception on inputs and comparison with others constitutes a limitation of the theory.

A fourth theory is dispositionalism or steady –state theory (Staw and Ross, 1985). It assumes that individual dispositions are persistent, implying that people have stable tendencies toward positive or negative evaluation. As social environment provides information about jobs, the processing of this information is consistent with the disposition. This theory leads to the conclusion that jobs do not have objective characteristics and external interventions to improve satisfaction would have limited success.

Finally, social information processing theory (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977), contrary to the need-satisfaction model, assumes that attitudes are not related to need fulfillment. It also states that experience and social environment provide information about jobs, that salience and relevance of information varies, and thus, satisfaction will be constructed as a function of social information. According to this theory, satisfaction can be increased by manipulating the environment.

I. B. 3. Factors of Job Satisfaction

Factors influencing job satisfaction can be identified at three different levels: organizational, social (group), and individual.

Organizational factors of job satisfaction are: payment, advancement opportunities, work characteristics and conditions, and organization's policies and procedures (Erdogan, 1996). Salary (wage) should be correlated with the type, the characteristics, and the quantity of work. It should be granted according to the person's professional value, title, and professional license. Beside the salary, bonuses and material rewards which are granted in accordance with work's quantity and quality also constitute an important payment issue.

Advancement opportunities or promotion represent the most important means in motivating employees and in gratifying their efforts. If, when entering a new job, the employee realizes that he or she has no opportunity for advancement or for getting a higher salary over time, he or she will feel that it is not worth the effort and thus will nurture negative feelings toward the job. In such a case, dissatisfaction and complaints occur. Favoritism in promoting employees is also an important issue. A preferential treatment of the manager toward the employees is expressed through his or her favoring the promotion of compliant employees and avoidance of those who "raise problems". This will surely have negative effects on job satisfaction.

In terms of job characteristics and working conditions, employee's abilities of using work tools and working environment conditions are analyzed. The influence of these elements on employee's physical, psychological, and moral state is strong. Factors like heating, lightening, ventilation etc. represent the so –called material (physical) environment of work. Problems in material environment's conditions not only lead to disruption of work but can also affect individual's physical condition. Jobs that are much too routine and dull or much too complicated on the other hand, can also lead to dissatisfaction.

As to organization's policies and procedures, factors like personnel selection and training, career management, social and health insurance, performance appraisal

and reward systems, and other issues concerning the personnel have important contributions to personnel's job satisfaction level. Unfair treatment and discrimination are likely to decrease an employee's satisfaction with his workplace.

Social or group factors of job satisfaction refer to the social relations the employee has with his work group, his supervisor or his manager (Erdogan, 1996). When the individual is given a job in a certain business, he/ she will be included into the social relations system of that business. He or she will work according to his or her duty, will act as a subordinate or a manager, in terms of the role he or she has been given. Briefly, very few people can work outside an organization's relations system; the business has organizational functions and a relations system prescribed by the organization's structure. The relationship between the manager and the person managed, established by the organization's formal structure determines employee's belongingness to the organization. Conflict between employees and supervision will lead to tensioned organizational climate and to a decrease in job satisfaction, while support and understanding will create mutual trust and will positively influence satisfaction with the job.

Individual factors of job satisfaction are those personality traits that shape an employee's expectations about the job (Erdogan, 1996) and his/ her level of job- related satisfaction. Individuals have certain values, and beliefs; some people need freedom at work, want to establish their own rules and work conditions; some others like to perform tasks that others cannot handle; some others want to be liked by their supervisors; and still others do not want any of these things. There are also people who would like to be advised and told what to do in every move they take, people who like easy, routine jobs. Aside from personality characteristics, individual job experience is also an important factor in job satisfaction.

All these factors mentioned above have different influences on people. A perceived or experienced unfair treatment in any of the conditions and factors above will decrease the level of job satisfaction and is likely to generate a decrease in organizational productivity and participation.

I. C. INTENTION TO TURNOVER

Turnover is of great interest for organizational behavior, psychology, and economics because of its multidimensional significance (financial, economic, social). Turnover remained an unappreciated issue for a long time, mostly because costs of turnover were often underestimated, causes of turnover were not adequately identified, and solutions did not match the causes etc.

Intention to turnover is defined as one's behavioral attitude to withdraw from the organization whereas turnover is considered to be the actual separation from the organization.

Meta- analytical reviews of Tett and Meyer (1993) indicate that attitudes are good predictors of behavior (Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, 2004, p. 2). In this context, intention to turnover is regarded as a reliable predictor of future turnover behavior, the correlation between the two variables reaching to .50, according to Tett and Meyer (1993).

I. C. 1. Definitions of Turnover

Turnover is the degree of individual movement across the membership boundaries of a social system (Price, 1977, p. 4).

Turnover is any departure beyond organizational boundaries (Macy and Mirvis, 1976, p. 224).

Turnover is the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization (Mobley, 1982, p. 10).

Turnover is calculated by dividing the number of employees separated from the company they were working for by the number of the employees working for the company in that period (Hammerberg, 2002, p. 9).

I. C. 2. Characteristics of Turnover

I. C. 2. a. Functionality

Considering the employer' s perspective, Dalton, Krackhardt, and Porter (1981, pp. 716- 721) divided turnover into functional, beneficial for the organization and dysfunctional, detrimental for the company (Hammerberg, 2002, p. 25). Turnover is functional where poorly performing employees or those creating conflict leave the organization (either voluntarily or involuntarily), and where downsizing occurs. Human resources specialists Kesner and Dalton (1982) consider that some of the benefits of turnover are the infusion of new knowledge and the stimulation of new policies and practices.

Turnover becomes dysfunctional where high performing employees or difficult to replace staff leave the organization or where a number of people leave the organization at the same time (either voluntarily or involuntarily), causing scheduling problems and stress. Thus, for jobs with a low complexity level or those that do not require any special skills or training, turnover of the inefficient employees is beneficial for both the employee and the company. But these situations are not that frequent in today's labor market, marked by a need for highly qualified employees and a limited number of such candidates. Staw (1980) asserted that the possible benefits of turnover depend on the job, the extent to which it demands physical or psychological abilities and on who actually leaves (United Nations, 1994).

I. C. 2. b. "Avoidability"

Another important characteristic of turnover is identified by Abelson (1987) as "avoidability", which shows the extent to which turnover is under organization's control (Morrell, Loan- Clark, and Wilkinson, 2001, p. 6). Sometimes unavoidable turnover results from life decisions that extend beyond an employer's control, such as a decision to move to a new area, a job transfer for a spouse, or illness. Avoidability has practical implications, as where turnover is avoidable, there is potential for directed intervention,

and thereby prevention. If turnover is unavoidable, it will be better for the organization to focus on reducing its cost, and thereby control it after it already happened (Morrell, Loan- Clark, and Wilkinson, 2004, pp. 161- 163).

I. C. 2. c. Predictability

Theorists have tried to identify determinants or predictors that lead to decision to leave, thus searching for opportunities to predict and perhaps control employee turnover. Some relations were identified between turnover and job tenure, stress, locus of control, demographic correlates (race, gender, education level), personality traits, and cognitive ability (Boudreau, Boswell, Judge, and Bretz Jr, 1999, p. 14), but their predictive capacity was low. However, several models suggest a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, with turnover being preceded by intentional variables such as "intent to leave" or " withdrawal cognitions" (Morell, Loan- Clarke, and Wilkinson, 2001). In other words, a relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover was identified. These models are presented in the section referred to as the "model of the research".

A Turkish study (Kitapçı, Çakar, Demircan, and Sezen, 2005) conducted with 133 middle- level managers from 35 manufacturing organizations on the relationships among trust in supervisors, organizational identification, and employees' intention to quit the organization has revealed that trust in authorities and identification are negatively and significantly related to turnover.

Schwarz, Carayon, and Hoonakker (2002) cite Moore and Burke (2002) when they state that turnover is also influenced by the so- called "turnover culture", meaning that whithin a certain occupational group, attitudes toward turnover are learned from each other and perpetuated.

I. C. 3. Types of Turnover

There are several types of turnover. According to a model that considers the causes or factors that lead to employee turnover, the primary cause is job- related (Labor Act of Turkey, 2005, p. 11), which includes causes that are somewhat within the direct control of the employer. Examples of these factors are dissatisfaction with working conditions (lighting, furniture, tools, office space and equipments etc), schedules, organizational culture (leadership style and developing commitment), job's attractiveness or status, supervisor attitudes (no guidance or excessive control, lack of respect and appreciation), compensation, growth, and advancement opportunities (Causes of High Turnover, 1998) etc.

There is also non job- related turnover due to some causes (Tett and Meyer, 1993) that are somewhat difficult to be controlled by the employer. These factors usually refer to things in employees' personal lives (family problems, relocation, marriage, children, health problems, emotional instability, substance abuse etc) that impact their job performance.

Another type of employee turnover occurs due to a lack of fit within the organization (Milgrom and Oster, 1987). This means that employee's beliefs or personality does not fit the job (Overview of Employee Turnover Research, 2006) or that his/her abilities contrast with the organization or the co- workers. In other words, the employee is not qualified enough to perform the job or on the contrary the employee is overqualified and the position does not make use of his/her skills.

A different model separates voluntary turnover from involuntary turnover (Milgrom and Oster, 1987). Voluntary turnover occurs when the employee chooses to leave the organization while involuntary turnover occurs when the employee is forced to leave the organization (because of the need to cut costs, downsizing, restructuring etc). However, sometimes the intentional character of turnover can vary significantly from the employee's viewpoint to that of the employer. An employee with a below average performance or another one that has recently become a parent may be forced,

through unattractive schedules and assignments, to initiate termination and thus, to be recorded as a voluntary quitter.

Job- related turnover, which is voluntary is the one most relevant to this research. Thus, we expect identifying its relation to discriminatory practices would help us suggest ways of dealing with discrimination.

I. C. 4. Costs of Turnover

Any company's main objective is to increase profit by decreasing expenses. In a human resources context, controlling for employee turnover becomes essential, even on a free market, where employee mobility is considered a necessary cost. Schwab (1991) distinguishes hard or tangible costs of turnover from intangible costs or missed sales (Hammerberg, 2002, p. 23). Hard costs are those associated with the separation of formal employees and their exit interviews, recruitment (advertising), selection and afferent costs, training of new employees etc. Sometimes they include auxiliary staff necessary for processing the large number of applicants and even the loss of time for the managers who could otherwise deal with daily functions or for the co- workers that have to help the new employee. These are usually administrative costs. Intangible costs are more difficult to be quantified. They refer to productivity losses due to lack of experience on the part of new employees, time spent for the training of the incomers, and loss of confidence in a company that does not offer stability and social security on behalf of the customers.

Briefly, these costs reflect on productivity, money, time, and employees' state of mind.

I. C. 5. Preventing Turnover

Preventing turnover begins with identifying the positive and the negative aspects of the business and continues with reducing or eliminating the negative aspects, while emphasizing the positive ones. Turnover could be controlled by creating pleasant

working conditions, offering opportunities for advancement, providing a fair wage and job security; by making employees feel appreciated and valued for their work and by treating them fairly (CCH Business Owner's Toolkit, 2001).

A human resources tools site (Smartmanager, 2006) offers some clues on the way turnover could be detected and prevented in all the phases of the employment process. The first step is to hire the right person, to ensure fit between the employee and the organization. In order to do that, a thorough evaluation of the potential employee should be done. A second step is to integrate for success, that is to gain employee's trust and commitment from the first weeks of work. The third step is to provide training in in the course time, without overloading recruits from the very beginning. The final step consists of providing employees with growth opportunities. However, the authors do not forget to mention salary as the most important factor in motivating someone to stay with the organization.

I. D. THE MODEL OF THE RESEARCH

The model of the research was inspired by previous studies and by the models they included. One of the prominent models is the one of March and Simon (1958, p. 99) who emphasized that the most important factor in determining turnover was job satisfaction. This model is based on the "organizational equilibrium" theory, which states that there is a balance between the organization and its employees in terms of inducements and contributions that ensures the survival of the organization. The organization offers inducements (pay) to encourage employees to contribute (work). Leaving is determined by the "perceived desirability of movement" related to job satisfaction and the "perceived ease of movement", implying the extent to which one can find alternative jobs or opportunities. However, this model overemphasizes the motivator role of pay as a predictor of job turnover.

Another model developed by Mobley (1977, p. 238) suggests that there are four determinants of the decision to leave: job satisfaction, expected utility of alternate roles within the organization, expected utility of alternate roles outside the organization,

and non- work values and roles. This model stresses the role of individual perceptions leading to differences between employees in evaluating their jobs.

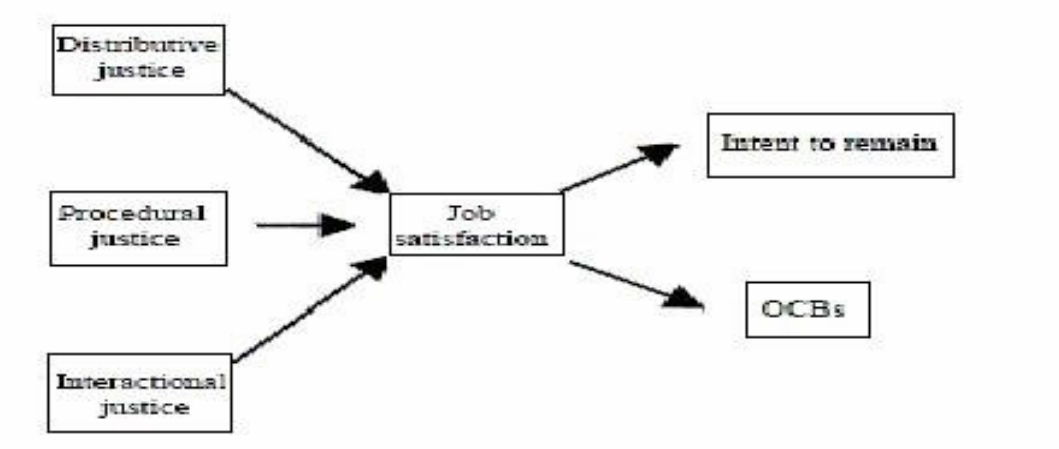
A number of studies conducted by Freeman (1978); Akerlof, Rose, and Yellen (1988); Gordon and DeNisi (1995) indicated that there was a causality running from job satisfaction to employee turnover, job satisfaction being considered a valid predictor of employee turnover (Gazioğlu and Aysıt, 2002, p. 3).

Clark, Georgellis, and Sanfey (1998) found out in their cross- sectional studies that the relationship between job satisfaction and quitting outcomes was a strong one and that there was no unobserved individual heterogeneity that could simultaneously determine job satisfaction and employee turnover (Simoens, Scott, Sibbald, Bojke, and Gravelle, 2002, p. 9).

A meta- analytical review on organizational justice (to some extent, perceived as the opposite of unfairness and discrimination) revealed the following facts: it seems that organizational justice highly correlates with outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, evaluation of authority, and withdrawal (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng, 2001).

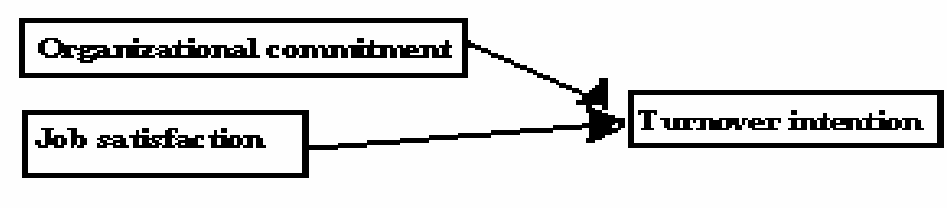
Another research is that of Bhupatkar and Bergman (2001, pp. 24- 25), a cultural comparison on the way the Indians and the Americans perceive organizational justice and the effects of justice on attitudes and behaviors. The authors hypothesized that the three dimensions of organizational justice, namely, distributive, procedural, and interactional would be positively related to job satisfaction and that job satisfaction would be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and to intention to remain (Figure 1). They also predicted that the strength of the relationships between variables would vary in degree, in India and in the USA. Indeed, the predictions were confirmed, showing strong positive relations between the two sets of variables. Additionally, the research brings evidence on the importance of interactional justice for the Indian employees.

Figure 1. The Model of Bhupatkar and Bergman



A study was done in 1993 on the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among correctional employees of the Federal Bureau of Prisons in U. S. A. . The researcher (Camp, 1993, pp. 9- 11) assumed that there was a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to turnover of the correctional workers on one hand, and between job satisfaction and intention to turnover on the other, and that commitment would be a stronger predictor of turnover intention than job satisfaction. The model of the research is presented below.

Figure 2. The Model of Camp

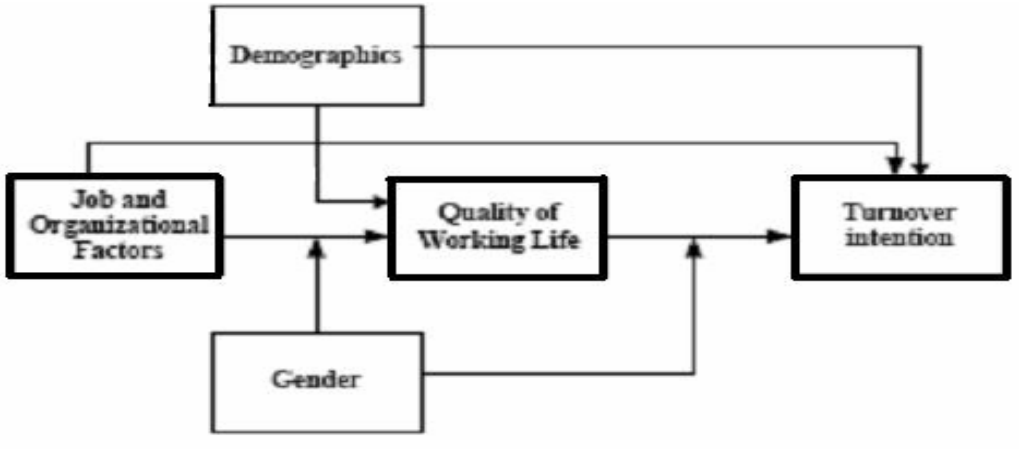


Camp found out that commitment was indeed a strong predictor for turnover intention, but could not find a significant influence of job satisfaction on turnover intention (1993, p. 26). However, most of the previous investigations established strong correlations between job satisfaction and intention to turnover.

Some of these studies on turnover intention were conducted in the IT sector. Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992) used questionnaires to test a model of turnover intentions among 464 management information systems (MIS) employees. Turnover intention was strongly influenced by job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The impact of other variables, such as demographics, role stressors, and career experiences on turnover intention was mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Schwarz, Carayon, and Hoonakker (2002) carried out a pilot study with a sample of 125 IT workers on the causes and consequences of intention to turnover. An interesting finding was the difference in the rate of turnover based on gender. One of the reasons expressed for leaving the company was "feeling discriminated against". While 23% of women mentioned discrimination as a cause for potential turnover decision, only 2% of men reported discrimination.

In another study conducted with 624 IT workers in five companies, Hoonakker, Carayon, Schoepke, and Marian (2003) brought evidence on the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relation between job and organizational characteristics and turnover intention (Figure 3). Demographic characteristics and gender were also examined. While for men, there were direct effects from rewards to intention to turnover, for women, quality of work life (QWL), more specifically, job satisfaction and burnout seemed to have an influence turnover intention.

Figure 3. The Model of Hoonakker, Carayon, Schoepke and Marian

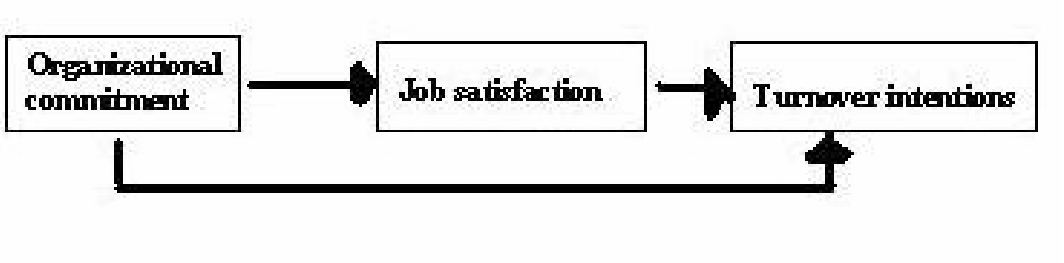


In a study done in Finland (Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, 2004) it was shown that employees facing adverse working conditions (in terms of wage, harm, overtime, atmosphere, discrimination etc.) were more likely to switch jobs. Moreover, there was evidence that adverse working conditions were leading to an increase in job dissatisfaction and the latter was the one driving employees' intention to turnover and to search for a new job.

An American research that investigated the relationship between perceived treatment discrimination and job satisfaction among accounting graduates of African-American origin, working in diverse accounting firms, suggested a significant relation between the two variables (Moyes, Williams, Quigley, and Behnaz, 2002). Specifically, perceived ethnicity discrimination was related to job dissatisfaction. Again, respondents that were most dissatisfied also reported their intention to leave the job. Moreover, the higher the tenure African- Americans employed in a firm, the higher was the level of job satisfaction among them.

Another study, this time Israelite, investigated the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions (Freund, 2005). The research done with 220 Israeli persons working in welfare organizations found out that, on one hand, commitment affected the level of job satisfaction and, on the other, both commitment and job satisfaction influenced the intentions to leave the job. The model of the research is presented below.

Figure 4. The Model of Freund

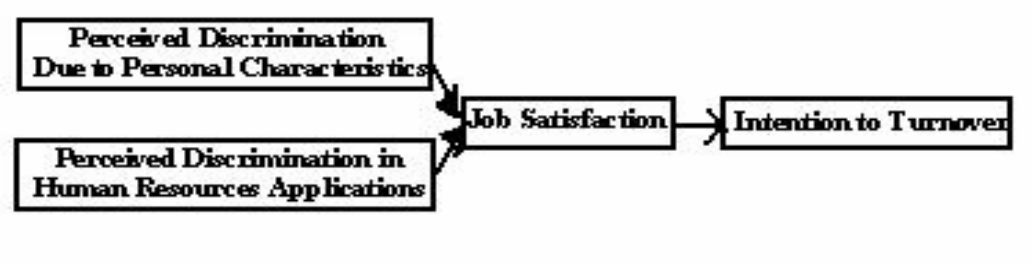


Briefly, the models and results of the studies presented above leaded to the model of the present investigation. First of all, a direct relationship between

discrimination and turnover intention could not be established, a mediating variable seemdnecessary. Secondly, some of the studies found significant relations between discriminatory practices (adverse working conditions, inequity, injustice, etc.) and job dissatisfaction, while others related job satisfaction to intention to turnover. Findings of previous investigations brought evidence that job satisfaction was a powerful predictor of intention to turnover. Finally, the model of the study was elaborated as in Figure 5.

Figure 5

The Model of the Research: The Relationship between Perceived Employment Discrimination and Intention to Turnover, and the Intervening Effect of Job Satisfaction



I. E. THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study were:

- To establish a relation between the perceived presence of discrimination and the intention to quit of those being discriminated against and to establish its nature;

- To find out whether the job satisfaction of those employees being discriminated against intervenes in the relation between perceived discrimination and intention to turnover;

- To establish relations between different demographic characteristics (personal, educational, professional) and discrimination due to personal characteristics on one hand, and discrimination in human resources applications, on the other.

I. F. HYPOTHESES AND QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

H1: There is a direct and negative contribution of perceived discrimination on the job satisfaction of those feeling discriminated against.

H2: There is a direct and negative contribution of job satisfaction on the intention to turnover of the employees.

H3: Job satisfaction intervenes in the relation between perceived discrimination and intention to turnover of those feeling discriminated against.

Q1: What is the relation between demographic variables (personal, educational, professional characteristics) and discrimination due to personal characteristics that people perceive?

Q2: What is the relation between demographic variables (personal, educational, professional characteristics) and discrimination in human resources applications (recruitment, hiring, promotion, delegation etc.) that people perceive?

II. METHOD

II. A. PARTICIPANTS

The sample consists of employees working at different private organizations in Istanbul. The 229 participants were selected via convenient sampling. With 49% men (N= 112) and 51% (N= 117) women, gender was equally represented in the research. The age of the subjects varies between 19 and 56, with a mean age of 36 years. When it comes to marital status, 42 % (N= 97) of the subjects are single and 58% of them (N= 132) are married. The mean tenure level in the company is eight years (minimum 0,10 years, maximum 36 years), while the mean tenure in the work field is 13, 9 years (minimum 0,25 years, maximum 38 years). In this research, managers account for 19% (N= 43) of the total number of participants, while those in non- managerial positions account for 81% (N= 186). As to the distribution of the participants according to the company' s profile, 44% (N= 100) of them work in production and 56% (N= 129) work for service provider firms. Other demographic characteristics of the subjects are presented in the table below.

Table 1

Distribution of the Subjects by Demographic Characteristics

	Demographic Category	Frequency	Percent
	Birthplace		
1	Istanbul	140	61
2	Other	89	39
	Number of Children		
1	No children	112	49
2	1-2 children	88	38
3	3-5 children	29	13
	Educational Degree		
1	Primary and secondary school	30	13
2	High school	80	35
3	University	86	38
4	Postgraduate	33	14
	Business Sector		
1	Production	100	44
2	Service provider	129	56
	Number of Employees		
1	Less than 50 employees	49	21

2	50 to 250 employees	57	25
3	More than 250 employees	123	54

II. B. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The subjects involved in this study were required to answer a questionnaire (see Appendix 1) with four parts on different personal and employment related aspects (demographic characteristics, employment discrimination, job satisfaction, intention to turnover).

Section 1 of the questionnaire includes 11 items on demographic characteristics: age, gender, birthplace, marital status, number of children, education degree, management position, tenure in the company, tenure in the work field, company's profile, number of employees.

Section 2 refers to discrimination types that can occur in employment field. The items of the scale were inspired by European Union's Directives (EUMC, 2004), Krieger's Experience of Discrimination Questionnaire (1990), discrimination claim questionnaires retrieved from different American employment law offices' sites, discrimination questionnaires elaborated by Kutlu (2002), Ciner (2003), and Ozcan (1999), D. Buchanan and A. Huczynski's Organizational Behavior Manual (1997), and a pilot study conducted by the author with 19 employees working in private sector in Istanbul. The pilot study suggested that beside generally accepted grounds for discrimination, favoritism should also be considered as a discriminatory event. The translation and adaptation into Turkish was realized by the author with the help of the advisor. This section contains two discrimination factors. First factor is "discrimination due to personal characteristics" and it contains 12 items referring to discrimination type based on: age, gender, marital status or status as a parent, pregnancy, ancestry, religious, philosophical or political belief, sexual orientation, physical disability, physical appearance, social- economic status, educational level, and favoritism. The second factor is "discrimination in human resources applications " and it contains 12 items on discrimination types in: recruitment, hiring, promotion, assignments, delegation, evaluation, travel, leaves or vacations, payment and rewards, benefits, training, and

working conditions. The two discrimination factors constitute the independent variable of the study.

Section 3 of the questionnaire includes 20 items aiming to reveal the level of satisfaction with different aspects of the job (this is the hypothesized intervening variable of the study). The items represent the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) and translated and adapted into Turkish by Bayraktar (1996). They reflect intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions of job satisfaction and also the General Satisfaction, which is of interest for this research.

Section 4 includes four items on intention to turnover that were adapted from Rosin and Korabik's (1995) turnover intention scale. The time limit of six month was extended to one year in order to better serve the purpose of the study. The questionnaire was translated and adapted into Turkish by Tanriover (2005).

All the items were scored on an itemized rating scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

II. C. PROCEDURE

Questionnaires were administered directly and via e- mail. Out of 380 survey forms that were administered, only 229 (60%) were valid. The instruction paragraph asks subjects to answer the questionnaire thoroughly and completely. It also states that identities of the participants are not important for this research and that information provided will be kept confidential.

II. D. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis of this research was realized with SPPS 10 for Windows. First of all, reliability analyses were conducted for each of the factors of the research (discrimination due to personal characteristics, discrimination in human

resources applications, job satisfaction, and intention to turnover). Then means of the variables were obtained. After that, linear regression analyses were conducted between perceived discrimination types, job satisfaction, and intention to turnover in order to analyze the hypotheses. Finally, correlation analysis, t- tests, and One- Way Anova tests followed by Scheffe were used to analyze the relation between demographic characteristics and perceived discrimination types.

III. FINDINGS

Results related to the descriptive statistics are presented in the following tables.

Table 2

Reliability Analyses of the Variables

Variable	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics	12	0,84
Discrimination in Human Resources Applications	12	0,85
Job Satisfaction	20	0,93
Intention to Turnover	4	0,91

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics	1,30	,50
Discrimination in Human Resources Applications	1,60	,74
Job Satisfaction	4,18	1,18
Intention to Turnover	2,73	1,52

In order to investigate the hypotheses of the study, total score of discrimination types due to personal characteristics and total score of discrimination in human resources applications were used. However, the analysis of the questions required an item- by- item approach of the discrimination types.

III. A. RESULTS REGARDING THE HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

H1: There is a direct and negative contribution of perceived discrimination on the job satisfaction of those feeling discriminated against.

Simple linear regression is used to analyze Hypothesis 1 (tables 4 and 5). Perceived discrimination due to personal characteristics has a significant ($p<$,05) negative contribution (*Beta*= -,28) on job satisfaction. Perceived discrimination in human resources applications has also a significant ($p<$,05) negative contribution (*Beta*= -,35) on job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was confirmed for both discrimination types, even though the contribution of perceived discrimination on job satisfaction is moderate.

Table 4

Regression Analysis between Perceived Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics and Job Satisfaction

	Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics	,074	19,26	,00	-,28	-4,39	,00

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Table 5

Regression Analysis between Perceived Discrimination in Human Resources Applications and Job Satisfaction

	Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
Discrimination in Human Resources Applications	,12	32,22	,00	-,35	-5,68	,00

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

H2: There is a direct and negative contribution of job satisfaction on the intention to turnover of the employees.

Simple linear regression analysis is used to investigate Hypothesis 2 (Table 6), too. Job satisfaction has a significant ($p< ,05$) and strong, negative (Beta= -,56) contribution on the level of intention to turnover. Thus, the hypothesis is confirmed.

Table 6

Regression Analysis between Job Satisfaction and Intention to Turnover

	Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
Job Satisfaction	,30	102,07	,00	-,56	-10,10	,00

Dependent Variable: Intention to Turnover

H3: Job satisfaction intervenes in the relation between perceived discrimination and intention to turnover of those feeling discriminated against.

Here a multiple regression analysis in three steps was conducted in order to investigate the intervening role of job satisfaction.

First step included perceived discrimination types as predictors of job satisfaction. This step has already been analyzed as Hypothesis 1 (Table 4 and Table 5),

indicating both perceived discrimination types to have significant contribution on the level of job satisfaction.

Table 7

Regression Analysis between Perceived Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics and Intention to Turnover

	Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics	,04	10,60	,00	,21	3,26	,00

Dependent Variable: Intention to Turnover

Table 8

Regression Analysis between Perceived Discrimination in Human Resources Applications and Intention to Turnover

	Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
Discrimination in Human Resources Applications	,10	26,50	,00	,32	5,14	,00

Dependent Variable: Intention to Turnover

Second step included perceived discrimination types as predictors of intention to turnover (Table 7 and Table 8). Both perceived discrimination due to personal characteristics and perceived discrimination in human resources practices proved to be significant predictors (p< ,05) of intention to turnover.

Third step used both perceived discrimination types and job satisfaction as predictors of intention to turnover (Table 9 and Table 10). When used alone as predictors of intention to turnover, both perceived discrimination due to personal characteristics and perceived discrimination in human resources applications are significant (p< ,05). When combined with job satisfaction, perceived discrimination due to personal characteristics is no longer significant (p> ,05) in predicting intention to turnover. However, perceived discrimination in human resources applications remains a significant predictor of intention to turnover, even if its significance level decreases (p= ,01). Thus, Hypothesis 3 is partially confirmed.

Table 9

Regression Analysis among Perceived Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics, Job Satisfaction, and Intention to Turnover

		Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
1	Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics	,04	10,60	,00	,21	3,26	,00
2	Discrimination Due to Personal Characteristics				,06	1,05	,30
	Job Satisfaction	,31	51,60	,00	-,54	-9,41	,00

Dependent Variable: Intention to Turnover

Table 10

Regression Analysis among Perceived Discrimination in Human Resources Applications, Job Satisfaction, and Intention to Turnover

		Adjust. R^2	F	p	Beta	t	p
1	Discrimination in Human Resources Applications	,10	26,50	,00	,32	5,14	,00
2	Discrimination in Human Resources Applications				,15	2,49	,01
	Job Satisfaction	,32	55,29	,00	-,51	-8,69	,00

Dependent Variable: Intention to Turnover

III. B. RESULTS REGARDING THE QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The influence of demographic variables on the perception of discrimination in employment was assessed through the two questions of the study.

Q 1: What is the relation between demographic variables and discrimination due to personal characteristics that people perceive?

In order to answer Question 1, each demographic characteristic was analyzed in relation with each discrimination subtype included in perceived discrimination due to personal characteristics (discrimination due to: gender, age, marital and parental status, pregnancy, ethnic origin, religious, political or philosophical belief, sexual orientation, physical disability, physical appearance, socio- economic status, educational level, favoritism).

Q 2: What is the relation between demographic variables and discrimination in human resources applications that people perceive?

In order to answer Question 2, each demographic characteristic was analyzed in relation with each discrimination subtype included in perceived discrimination in human resources applications (discrimination in: recruitment, hiring, promotion, assignments, delegation, evaluation, travel, leaves or vacations, payment and rewards, benefits, training, working conditions).

For an easier reading of the results, the two questions of the research were analyzed together. Also, sentences were preferred to a great number of tables in presenting the relationships.

Gender and Perceived Discrimination

The relationship between gender and perceived discrimination types was analyzed through Independent Samples T- Tests. The results are as follows:

1. Gender is significantly related to perceived gender discrimination (t= 3,12, p=,00), women (Mean= 1,37) reporting higher scores than men (Mean= 1,08) on gender discrimination.

2. Gender is significantly related to perceived age discrimination (t= 2,74, p= ,01), women (Mean= 1,65) expressing higher levels of age discrimination than men (Mean= 1,30).

3. Gender is significantly related to perceived recruitment discrimination (t= 2,00, p= ,04), women (Mean= 1,35) perceiving this discrimination type higher than men (Mean= 1,14).

4. Gender is significantly related to perceived travel discrimination (t= 1,99, p= ,05), women (Mean= 1,48) reporting higher levels of travel discrimination than men (Mean= 1,23).

Age and Perceived Discrimination

Correlations were used to assess the relationship between age and perceived discrimination types. It was found that age negatively correlated with reported age discrimination (*r*= -,21, *p*= ,00) and with leaves or vacations discrimination (*r*= -,21, *p*= ,00).

Birthplace and Perceived Discrimination

The influence of birthplace on perception of discrimination was analyzed through Independent Samples T- Tests. Birthplace categories were: *İstanbul* (1) for those born in İstanbul and *Other* (2) for those born in places other than İstanbul. It was found out that birthplace is related to perceived pregnancy discrimination (*t*= 2,10, *p*= ,04), those born in İstanbul (Mean= 1,13) expressing higher levels of pregnancy discrimination than those born in other places (Mean= 1, 02). Birthplace is also related to perceived leaves or vacations discrimination (*t*= -2, 18, *p*= ,03), those born in Istanbul (Mean= 1,43) reporting lower levels of leaves or vacations discrimination than those born in places other than Istanbul (Mean= 1, 89).

Marital status and Perceived Discrimination

Independent Samples T- Tests were also conducted to reveal the relationship between marital status and perceived discrimination types. Marital status categories used in analysis were *Single* (1) and *Married* (2). Those being divorced and widowed were also considered as singles. The results are as follows:

1. Marital status has a significant relation with perceived age discrimination (*t*=3,52, *p*= ,00), those being single reporting higher levels of age discrimination (Mean= 1,80) than those being married (Mean= 1,28).

2. Marital status has a significant relation with perceived favoritism discrimination (*t*= 2,06, *p*= ,04), singles reporting higher levels of favoritism discrimination (Mean= 2,19) than those being married (Mean= 1,73).

3. Marital status significantly relates to perceived recruitment discrimination (*t*= 2,72, *p*= ,01), singles reporting higher levels of recruitment discrimination (Mean= 1,47) than those being married (Mean= 1,11).

4. Marital status is significantly related to perceived leaves or vacations discrimination (*t*=2,40, *p*= ,02), those being single reporting higher levels of perceived leaves or vacations discrimination (Mean= 1, 81) than those being married (Mean= 1,40).

Number of Children and Perceived Discrimination

One- Way Anova tests were used to investigate the influence of number of children on the perception of discrimination. Then Scheffe Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons were conducted to establish the direction of the differences in perception due to number of children. There were three categories of number of children: *No Children* (1), *One to Two Children* (2), *Three to Five Children* (3). Findings are presented below:

1. The number of children is significantly related to perceived age discrimination (*F*= 7,40, *p*= ,00), those having no children (Mean= 1,71) reporting higher levels of age discrimination than those having one to two children (Mean= 1,31) and than those having three to five children (Mean= 1,07).

2. The number of children is significantly related to perceived travel discrimination (*F*= 3,80, *p*= ,02), those having no children (Mean= 1,52) perceiving higher levels of travel discrimination than those having three to five children (Mean= 1,03).

3. The number of children is significantly related to perceived leaves or vacations discrimination (*F*= 5,56, *p*= ,00), those having no children (Mean= 1,79) feeling more discriminated in leaves or vacations compared to those having one to two children (Mean= 1,35) and to those having three to five children (Mean= 1,20).

Education and Perceived Discrimination

The relationship between education level and perceived discrimination types was analyzed with One- Way Anova followed by Scheffe, in order to establish the direction of the differences in perception due to education. There were four categories of educational level: *Primary and Secondary School* (1), *High school* (2*), University Graduate* (3), and *Postgraduate* (4). Results are given below:

1. There is a significant relation between education level and perceived age discrimination (*F*= 4,90, *p*= ,00), high school graduates (Mean= 1,23) reporting lower levels of age discrimination than university graduates (Mean= 1,66) and than postgraduates (Mean= 1,82)

2. There is a significant relation between education level and perceived discrimination in assignments (*F*= 4,24, *p*= ,01), university graduates (Mean= 2,14) reporting higher levels of assignments discrimination compared to high school graduates (Mean= 1,51).

3. There is a significant relation between education degree and perceived delegation discrimination (*F*=4,76, *p*= ,00), university graduates (Mean= 1,74) expressing higher levels of delegation discrimination than high school graduates (Mean= 1,28).

4. There is a significant relation between education degree and perceived travel discrimination (*F*= 3,67, *p*= ,01), postgraduates (Mean= 1,76) reporting higher levels of travel discrimination compared to high school graduates (Mean= 1,18).

5. There is a significant relation between education and perceived training discrimination (*F*= 6,13, *p*= ,00), postgraduates (Mean= 2,24) reporting higher scores on training discrimination than high school graduates (Mean 1,16).

Managerial Position and Perceived Discrimination

The influence of managerial position on perception of discrimination was assessed with Independent Samples T- Test. The two managerial position categories were *Manager* (1) and *Non Manager* (2).

1. Managerial position has a significant relation with perceived education level discrimination (t= -3,75, p= ,00), those in non- management positions (Mean= 1,38) reporting higher levels of educational level discrimination than those in managerial positions (Mean= 1,07).

2. Managerial position has a significant relation with perceived evaluation discrimination (t= -3,08, p= ,00), those in non- managerial positions expressing higher levels of evaluation discrimination (Mean= 1,72) than those in managerial positions (Mean= 1,28).

Tenure in the Company and Perceived Discrimination

Correlations were used to analyze the influence of tenure in the company on perception of discrimination.

Tenure in the company has significant negative correlations with perceived age discrimination (r= -,20, p= ,00), favoritism discrimination (r= -,15, p= ,03), delegation discrimination (r= -,14, p= ,03) and leaves or vacations discrimination (r= -,17, p= ,01).

Tenure in the Work Field and Perceived Discrimination

Correlational analyses were conducted again to investigate the relationship between tenure in the work field and perceived discrimination types.

Tenure in the work field has significant negative correlations with perceived age discrimination (r= -,19, p= ,00) and perceived discrimination in leaves or vacations. (r= -,22, p= ,00).

Business Sector and Perceived Discrimination

Independent Samples T- Test was conducted to establish the relationship between business sector and perceived discrimination types. The two business sector categories were: *Production Sector* (1) and *Service Provider Sector* (2).

1. Business sector significantly relates to perceived gender discrimination (*t*= -3,00, *p*= ,00), scores on gender discrimination being higher in service provider sector (Mean= 1,34) compared to production sector (Mean= 1,08).

2. Business sector is significantly related to perceived favoritism discrimination (*t*= -2,53, *p*= ,01), the reported level of this discrimination type being higher in service provider sector (Mean= 2,09) than in the production sector (Mean= 1,64).

3. Business sector significantly relates to recruitment discrimination (*t*= -2,46, *p*= ,02), those working for service provider sector reporting higher levels of recruitment discrimination (Mean= 1,36) than those working for production sector (Mean= 1,11).

4. Business sector is significantly related to perceived travel discrimination (*t*= -3,20, *p*= ,00), perceived travel discrimination being higher in service provider sector (Mean= 1,52) compared to production sector (Mean= 1,15).

5. Business sector is significantly related to leaves or vacations discrimination (*t*= -3,17, *p*= ,00), those working for service provider sector (Mean= 1,74) reporting higher levels of leaves or vacations discrimination compared to those working for production sector (Mean= 1,30).

6. Business sector is significantly related to perceived training discrimination (*t*= -2,40, *p*= ,02), reported training discrimination in service provider sector(Mean= 1,69) being higher than in production sector (Mean= 1,31).

Number of Employees and Perceived Discrimination

One- Way Anova test and Scheffe Post Hoc Comparisons were conducted in order to assess the relationship between the number of employees in a company

(organization size) and perception of discrimination. The three categories of the independent variable were: *Less than 50 Employees* (*Small Company*) (1), *50 to 250 Employees* (*Medium Sized Company*) (2), *More than 250 Employees* (*Large Company*) (3).

1. Significant relations occur between number of employees and perceived physical disability discrimination (*F*= 4,12, *p*= ,02), those working for medium sized companies (Mean= 1,19) reporting higher levels of physical disability discrimination compared to those working for large companies (Mean= 1,02).

2. Number of employees significantly relates to perceived recruitment discrimination (*F*= 5,06, *p*=,01), those working for small companies (Mean= 1,55) reporting higher levels of recruitment discrimination than those working for large companies(Mean= 1,13).

3. Number of employees significantly relates to perceived travel discrimination (*F*= 9,84, *p*= ,00), those working for small companies (Mean= 1,86) reporting higher levels of travel discrimination compared to medium sized companies (Mean= 1,33) and to large companies (Mean Difference= 1,17).

4. Number of employees is significantly related to perceived leaves or vacation discrimination (F= 10,42, p= ,00), those working for small companies (Mean= 2,14) reporting higher levels of leaves or vacations discrimination compared to ones working in medium sized companies (Mean= 1,50) and large companies (Mean= 1,33).

IV. DISCUSSION

IV. A. CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the presence and the nature of the relationships between perceived employment discrimination, job satisfaction, and intention to turnover. It also examined the relationships between the demographic characteristics of the participants and the way they perceived discrimination types.

Hypothesis 1- stating that there would be a direct and negative contribution of perceived discrimination on the job satisfaction of those feeling discriminated against- was confirmed by regression analyses. This means that the more the employees feel discriminated against, the lower their level of job satisfaction will be. In 2001, Bhupatkar and Bergman have reached a similar conclusion when they conducted a study on the way that organizational justice was perceived by Americans and Indians and on the way it affected attitudes and behaviors. The two researchers found out that perceived organizational justice was positively related to job satisfaction. Meta-analytical review of organizational justice literature also supports our conclusion, indicating high correlations between perceived fairness in employment and job satisfaction (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng, 2001). Even though employment discrimination is not directly mentioned as a variable in these studies, we could refer to organizational justice as the opposite of unfairness and discrimination and thus, assert that a positive effect of perceived justice on job satisfaction would be similar to a negative contribution of discrimination on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2- stating that there would be a direct and negative contribution of job satisfaction on the intention to turnover of the employees- was confirmed by regression analyses. That is, a decrease in the level of job satisfaction would lead to an increase in the level of turnover intention. This conclusion is strongly supported by previous literature examples, either that they indicate job satisfaction to be one of the several factors determining someone's intention to quit the organization (Mobley, 1977), or as the most important factor in influencing turnover intention (March and Simon, 1958). Moreover, Freeman (1978), Akerlof, Rose, and Yellen (1988), and

Gordon and DeNisi (1995) had found the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention to be a valid one. Clark, Georgellis, and Sanfey (1998) had shown before that the relationship between these two variables is a direct one, as their correlation was high and there was found no other variable intervening between the two. Our conclusion does not sustain Camp's investigation (1993), which found no significant relationship between job satisfaction and intention to turnover.

Hypothesis 3- stating that job satisfaction would intervene in the relation between perceived discrimination and intention to turnover of those feeling discriminated against- was partially confirmed by multiple regression analysis. Concretely, job satisfaction would have an effect on the relationship between perceived discrimination due to personal characteristics and turnover intention, but would not have much of an effect on the relationship between perceived discrimination in human resources applications and intention to quit. Even if there have not been found any previous literature examples to sustain the intervening role of job satisfaction between discrimination and intention to turnover, there is evidence that the three variables are closely related. Bhupatkar and Bergman (2001) found positive correlations between organizational justice and job satisfaction on one hand, and between job satisfaction and intention to remain, on the other. Correlations between the two sets of variables are actually a first step in demonstrating the intervening role of job satisfaction. Böckerman and Ilmakunnas (2004) discovered that job satisfaction had a mediating role in the relationship between adverse working conditions and employees' intentions to turnover and to search a new job. Moyes, Williams, Quigley, and Behnaz (2002) found that those employees that were most dissatisfied because of perceived ethnicity discrimination, also intended to quit the organization.

Beyond relations between variables, relations of demographic characteristics with each perceived discrimination type due to personal characteristics, and each perceived discrimination type in human resources applications, were also investigated (Question 1 and Question 2). It was found out that some demographic categories scored higher on certain discrimination types than others: women report higher levels of discrimination than men; singles higher than those being married; those having no

children higher than those having one to two or three to five children; university graduates and postgraduates higher than high school graduates; those in non-managerial positions higher than managers; those working for service provider companies higher than those working for production firms (see Findings). Moreover, perception of discrimination decreases with age and tenure. These differences could be explained in two ways: either some categories are indeed more subjected to discrimination than others because of various reasons or their expectations are greater and they tend to be more sensitive and perceive themselves as more vulnerable when it comes to discriminatory practices. However, most of the participants, no matter what their demographic characteristics were, scored pretty low (Mean= 1,45 out of 6) on discrimination perceived.

Discrimination in employment is unfair practice affecting both the employees and the organization. Laws protecting against discrimination existed for decades, but only recently employees became aware of their rights. Findings of this study suggest that employees feeling discriminated against, tend to be less satisfied with their job. In other words, discrimination occurs as one of the factors of job dissatisfaction which at its turn, can lead to unproductive employee behaviours, such as lack of interest and commitment to the job, irascibility, absenteeism, and finally turnover.

An important characteristic of this study is that it goes beyond the human aspect of discrimination and investigates its organizational implications. That is, it does not stick to presenting descriptive results, but it also tries to establish connections between variables. Results indicate that considering discrimination as a potential factor contributing to employee dissatisfaction, turnover intention could be controlled to some extent.

A theoretical contribution of this investigation consists of introducing a new type of discrimination, favoritism, that is not mentioned in any of the laws protecting against discrimination. Favouritism refers to discrimination against one person due to another person's relations in high places. Pretty uncommon in European Union's practices, this phenomenon should not be ignored though in the Eastern area of Europe.

Moreover, beyond personal characteristics grounds for discrimination mentioned in the specific legislation, this study approached discrimination in human resources applications, trying to identify demographic categories and areas of employment more prone to unfair treatment. This has practical implications, as concrete ways of avoiding discrimination could be established. For instance by initiating positive actions in favor of discriminated categories (women, disabled people, ethnic groups, newly graduates, less educated people etc.) these categories could be easier integrated into the work field. Concretely, women could be promoted to leading positions, disabled people could benefit from work environment facilities (stairs, parking spots, accessible/ adaptable office tools). Also, religious and ethnic groups could be stimulated to bring in cultural diversity, they should be allowed to freely express their beliefs in specially accommodated places, in moments of the day or year imposed by their beliefs, and should beneficiate from flexible working hours. On the other hand, less educated people should be given on the job education training and should be given the chance to attend foreign languages courses or other educational programs. Also, recruitment companies should not include in their adds characteristics that are not relevant for the job, they should avoid judgments based on physical aspect, organizations should promote, delegate, or assign according to the qualification and concrete capacity of fulfilling that job, they should organize sex- blind, marital status- blind, or age- blind interviews when promoting personnel. Here we have to consider the double mission of an organization, to be sex- blind, on one hand, and to positively discriminate less fortunate categories. The most recommended path is the one closely following the legislation. Rewards and working conditions should be according to type of work, similar compensations should be given for similar work types and similar working conditions should be created for similar jobs. Training should not be age- limited. Evaluation should measure performance on the job but not a personal characteristic with no connection to the work. Organizations must comply with legislation at every step they take and they must keep objectivity, especially in the context of a permanently changing legislation on employment discrimination in the European Union. This may be costly sometimes, but creating and accepting diversity in employment can have long- term positive effects on the organization.

As a conclusion, this study tried to draw attention to the perceived discrimination and its negative effects on individuals and the organization. Now, when more than ever, the world is preoccupied with human rights, respect for the individual becomes essential. Raising awareness towards human rights and highlighting the positive effects of a workforce with a diverse background, monitoring the way company policies are put into practice, positively discriminating in favor of social minorities and initiating positive actions, conducting national campaigns through mass- media and in schools, initiating legislative changes in problematic areas are only a few measures that could make an organization become one of "the best companies to work for".

IV. B. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study analyzed the effects of demographic characteristics on the way people perceive discrimination. Future investigations could consider the influence of personality factors as well, as perception is highly dependent on personal characteristics. Since this research ignored the influence of demographic characteristics on the job satisfaction and turnover intention. the relationships between perceived discrimination, job satisfaction, and intention to turnover should be regarded with caution, as it may have been influenced by demographic characteristics. Future studies should take this influence into consideration. Also, validity of discrimination types used in this investigation should be measured through other research instruments.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. The Questionnaire- Turkish

ANKET

Elinizdeki bu anket Marmara Üniversitesi'nde yürütülen bir yüksek lisans tezi çalışmasında kullanılmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Ankette yer alan ifadeler iş hayatında karşılaşılan durumlarla ve işin çeşitli yönleriyle ilgilidir. Hiçbir ifadenin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. ***Önemli olan ifadelerin samimiyetle cevaplanması ve eksik cevapların bırakılmamasıdır.*** Araştırmamız için kimliğinizin belirlenmesi önemli olmadığından, anket formlarına isim ve soyadı yazılması gerekli değildir. Araştırmacı dışında cevaplarınızı hiç kimse görmeyecek, değerlendiremeyecektir. Araştırmadan alınacak sonuçların, bizleri çalışanların iş hayatına dair önemli bulgulara ulaştıracağını umuyoruz.

Çalışmaya katılarak yardımcı olduğunuz için teşekkür ederim.

Özen Menişa- Marmara Üniversitesi,
Örgütsel Davranış Yüksek Lisans Programı

BÖLÜM 1

1. Yaşınız: ___
2. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek
3. Doğum yeriniz:_____
4. Medeni durumunuz: ( ) Bekar ( ) Evli
5. Çocuklarınız varsa, sayısı: ( ) Çocuğum yok ( ) 1- 2 ( ) 3- 5
6. En son aldığınız diploma: ( ) İlköğretim ( ) Lise ( ) Üniversite ( ) Yüksek Lisans-Doktora
7. Yöneticilik göreviniz var mı? ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır
8. Kaç yıldır bu işyerinde çalışıyorsunuz? ___
9. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatı içindesiniz? ___
10. İşyerinizin faaliyet alanı: ( ) Üretim ( ) Hizmet
11. İşyerinizde çalışanların sayısı: ( ) 50'den az ( ) 50-250 arası ( ) 250'den çok

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri; iş hayatınızı düşünerek cevaplayınız. Sağda bulunan cevap seçeneklerinden size uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.

BÖLÜM 2

A. Son bir yılda, işyerimde, aşağıda yer alan faktörlerden dolayı; ayrımcılığa uğramış, engellemelerle karşılaşmış, rahatsız edilmiş veya aşağılanmış oldum:	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Çok az katılıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1. cinsiyetim						
2. yaşım						
3. medeni ve ebeveyn olma durumum						
4. hamilelik durumum						
5. etnik kökenim (doğum yerim)						
6. dinim, mezhebim, siyasi veya felsefi inancım						
7. cinsel tercihim						
8. bedensel engelim						
9. fiziksel görünüşüm (boy, ağırlık, çekicilik vs.)						
10.sosyo- ekonomik statüm (sosyal sınıf veya gelir düzeyi)						
11.eğitim seviyem						
12.bir başka elemanın torpilli olması (hemşehrilik, yandaşlık, arkadaşlık, akrabalık vs.)						

B. Son bir yılda, işyerimde, aşağıda yer alan konularla ilgili olarak; ayrımcılığa uğramış, engellemelerle karşılaşmış, rahatsız edilmiş veya aşağılanmış oldum:	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Çok az katılıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Eleman seçimi						
2. İşe alım						
3. Terfi						
4. Görev dağılımı						
5. Yetki devri						
6. Performans değerlendirmesi						
7. Seyahat						
8. İzin						
9. Ücret ve ödüller						
10.Sağlık sigortası, servis, yemek fişi vb. imkanlar						
11.Eğitim						
12.Çalışma koşulları (mesai, iş yükü, ofis ve ofis alet özellikleri)						

BÖLÜM 3

İşyerim, aşağıda yer alan olanaklar açısından beni tatmin etmektedir:	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Çok az katılıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1.Beni her zaman meşgul etmesi bakımından						
2.Tek başıma çalışma olanağımın olması açısından						
3.Ara sıra değişik şeyler yapabilme şansımın olması bakımından						
4.Toplumda saygın bir kişi olma şansını bana vermesi açısından						
5.Kişilerin idare ediliş tarzı açısından						
6.Amirimin karar vermedeki yeteneği açısından						
7.Vicdanıma aykırı olan şeyleri yapma durumunda kalmamam bakımından						
8.Bana sabit bir iş sağlaması açısından						
9.Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme olanağına sahip olmam bakımından						
10.Kişilere ne yapacaklarını söyleme şansına sahip olmam bakımından						
11.Kendi yeteneklerimi kullanarak bir şeyler yapabilme şansımın olması açısından						
12.İşletme politikalarının uygulamaya konması bakımından						
13.Yaptığım iş karşılığında aldığım ücret açısından						
14.Terfi olanağı açısından						
15.Kendi kararlarımı uygulama serbestliğini bana vermesi bakımından						
16.İşimi yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi kullanabilme şansını bana sağlaması bakımından						
17.Çalışma şartları bakımından						
18.Çalışma arkadaşlarımın birbirleri ile anlaşmaları açısından						
19.Yaptığım iyi bir iş karşılığında takdir edilmem açısından						
20.Yaptığım iş karşılığında duyduğum başarı hissinden						

BÖLÜM 4

	Kesinlikle katılmıyoru	Çok az katılıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Oldukça katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Eğer imkanım olsaydı, işimden ayrılırdım.						
2. Son bir yıl içinde işimden ayrılmayı daha sık düşünmeye başladım.						
3. Aktif olarak yeni bir iş arıyorum.						
4. İşimden ayrılmayı düşünüyorum.						

APPENDIX 2. The Questionnaire- English

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of a postgraduate research at Marmara University. The assertions included in the questionnaire refer to diverse aspects of work life. There are no true or false responses to them. ***It is important that you answer the sentences thoroughly and as honestly as possible***. You do not have to fill in with your name and surname, as we are not interested in your identity. ***This questionnaire is confidential.*** We are hoping that your responses would provide us important information on work life.

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

Özen Menişa- Marmara University,
Organizational Behaviour Postgraduate Programme

SECTION 1

1. Age: ____
2. Gender: ( ) Female ( ) Male
3. Birthplace: _____
4. Marital status: ( ) Single ( ) Married
5. Number of children: ( ) No children ( ) 1- 2 ( ) 3- 5
6. Educational degree: ( ) Primary and secondary school ( ) High School ( ) University ( ) Postgraduate

7. Do you have a management position? ( ) Yes ( ) No
8. What is your tenure in the company? _____
9. For how many years have you been working? _____
10. Business sector: ( ) Production ( ) Service provider
11. Number of employees in your company:
( ) Less than 50 ( ) 50- 250 ( ) More than 250

Please think about your job when completing the assertions below. Check in the right of the table the answer that suits you most.

SECTION 2

A. In the last year, I have experienced discrimination, been prevented from doing something, been hassled or been made to feel inferior at my workplace because of:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rather Disagree	Rather Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My gender						
2. My age						
3. My marital status and parental status						
4. My pregnancy						
5. My ethnic origin (birthplace)						
6. My religious, political or philosophical belief						
7. My sexual orientation						
8. My physical disability						
9. My physical appearance (weight, height, attractiveness)						
10.My social- economic status (social class or income level)						
11. My educational level						
12. Favoritism for another employee who was relative, friend etc. of someone in special place						

B. In the last year, I have experienced discrimination, been prevented from doing something, been hassled or been made to feel inferior at my workplace in the following situations:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rather Disagree	Rather Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Recruitment						
2. Hiring						
3. Promotion						
4. Assignments						
5. Delegation						
6. Evaluation						
7. Travel						
8. Leaves or vacations						
9. Payment and rewards						
10. Benefits (transportation, health insurance, meal tickets etc.)						
11. Training						
12. Working conditions (working hours, office facilities etc.)						

SECTION 3

On my present job, I am satisfied with these aspects of my job:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rather Disagree	Rather Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Being able to keep busy all the time.						
2. The chance to work alone on the job.						
3. The chance to do different things from time to time.						
4. The chance to be " somebody" in the community.						
5. The way my boss handles his men.						
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.						
7. Being able to do things that don' t go against my conscience.						
8. The way my job provides for steady employment.						
9. The chance to do things for other people.						
10.The chance to tell people what to do.						
11.The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.						
12.The way company policies are put into practice.						
13.My pay and the amount of work I do.						
14.The chances for advancement on this job.						
15.The freedom to use my own judgement.						
16.The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.						
17.The working conditions.						
18.The way my co- workers get along with each other.						
19.The praise I get for doing a good job.						
20.The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.						

SECTION 4

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rather Disagree	Rather Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. If I had the possibility, I would quit my current job.						
2. In the last year, I have been thinking more often about quitting my job.						
3. I am actively searching for a new job.						
4. İ am thinking about quitting my job.						