

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

***THE IMPACTS OF PERCEIVED MANAGER ACCEPTANCE-
REJECTION AND CONTROL ON EMPLOYEES' ATTITUDINAL
AND PSYCHOSOCIAL OUTCOMES OF ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT, JOB STRAIN AND SELF-ESTEEM***

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Zeynep ERGİN

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Danışman: Doç. Dr. Seçil TAŞTAN

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MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) Bilim Dalı TEZLİ YÜKSEK LİSANS öğrencisi ZEYNEP ERGİN'nin THE IMPACTS OF PERCEIVED MANAGER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION AND CONTROL ON EMPLOYEES' ATTITUDINAL AND PSYCHOSOCIAL OUTCOMES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB STRAIN AND SELF-ESTEEM adlı tez çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 1.08.2019 tarih ve 2019-24/13 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Tez Savunma Tarihi 26.08.2019

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Tez Türü ve Tarihi:	Yüksek Lisans - Temmuz 2019
Anahtar Kelimeler:	Örgütsel Bağlılık, İşe Bağlı Gerginlik, Öz Değerlilik, Yönetici Kabulü-Reddi-Kontrolü

ÖZET

ALGILANAN YÖNETİCİ KABUL, RED VE KONTROLÜNÜN ÇALIŞANLARDA TUTUMSAL VE PSİKOSOSYAL SONUÇLAR OLARAK ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK, İŞE BAĞLI GERGINLIK VE ÖZDEĞERLİLİK ALGISINA ETKİLERİ

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, algılanan yönetici kabulü, reddi ve kontrolünün çalışanların örgütsel bağlılığına, özdeğerliliğine ve işe bağlı gerginliklerine etkilerini değerlendirmektir. Mevcut çalışmada, sonuçlar konuyu hem örgütsel hem de bireysel açıdan incelemek için psikolojik, tutumsal ve örgütsel olmak üzere üç seviyede ele alınmıştır.

Bu bağlamda, çalışmanın ana değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiyi göstermek için literatür çalışması yapılmıştır. Çalışma, algılanan yönetici kabulü, reddi ve kontrolü alanında yapılan ilk çalışma olduğundan, bağlantılı kavramlar literatür kısmında incelenmiştir.

Bu çalışmada veri toplama yöntemi olarak, çalışanlar tarafından doldurulan özbildirim raporları kullanılmıştır. Ankete değişik sektörlerden ve departmanlardan 305 kişi katkıda bulunmuştur.

Veriler toplanmasının ardından, faktör analizi, korelasyon analizi, bağımsız gruplar T testleri, parametrik olmayan tek yönlü varyans testleri ve çoklu regresyon analizlerini içeren çeşitli istatistik analizleri uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, çalışanların örgütsel bağlılığı üzerinde algılanan yönetici kabul, red ve kontrolünün etkilerinin anlamlı olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ayrıca, çalışanların özdeğerliliği ve işe bağlı gerginlikleri üzerinde algılanan yönetici kabul, red ve kontrolünün etkilerinin kısmi olarak anlamlı olduğu bulunmuştur.

Çalışmanın bulgularının, algılanan yönetici kabul, red ve kontrolünün çalışmadaki bütün bağımlı değişkenleri etkilediğini ortaya çıkardığı görülmüştür. Bu sonuçlar, kuramsal ve pratik açıdan ele alınmış olup, uygulamaya yönelik değerlendirmeler kısmında çalışanların red veya kontrol yerine kabul hissedebilecekleri

bir ortam yaratabilmeleri için yöneticilere atmaları gereken bazı somut adımlar önerilmiştir.



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Keywords:	Organizational Commitment, Job Strain, Self-Esteem, Manager's Acceptance, Rejection and Control

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACTS OF PERCEIVED MANAGER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION AND CONTROL ON EMPLOYEES' ATTITUDINAL AND PSYCHOSOCIAL OUTCOMES OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB STRAIN AND SELF-ESTEEM

The main goal of this study is to evaluate the effects of perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control on the employee's Organizational Commitment, Self-Esteem, and Job Strain. In the current study, the consequences addressed in three levels as psychological, attitudinal, and organizational to examine the issue from both organizational and individual perspectives.

Within this concept, the literature review was conducted to illustrate the relations between the study's main variables. Since it was the first study in the field of perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control in Turkey, the related concepts were examined in the literature part.

As data collection method, the self-report surveys filled by employees were used in the research. 305 participants from different industries and departments contributed to the survey.

After data was collected, various statistical analyses were performed, including factor analyses, correlation analysis, independent sample t-tests, non-parametric one-way ANOVA, and multiple regression analyses. The results indicated that the effects of perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control was found significant on Organizational Commitment of employees. Moreover, it was also found out that the impacts of perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection was found significant on Self-Esteem and Job Strain of employees partially.

These findings of the study revealed that all of the dependent variables of the current study were affected by the perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control. The findings of the study were handled with conceptual and practical views and in practical implications part, some concrete steps were illustrated for managers to create an environment where employees feel more accepted rather than rejected or controlled.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Seil Bal Tařtan for her constant support, guidance, and motivation.

I would also like to extend my gratitude to my beloved family for their ever love, affection, and support to me throughout their lives.

DEDICATED TO

All managers who make their employees' world a better place by making them always feel "accepted."

İstanbul, 2019
Zeynep ERGİN




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ABBREVIATIONS

MA	:	Manager Acceptance
MR	:	Manager Rejection
MC	:	Manager Control
SE	:	Self-Esteem
OC	:	Organizational Commitment
JS	:	Job Strain
KMO	:	Kaiser Meyer Olkin
R&D	:	Research and Development
HR	:	Human Resources
W/A	:	Warmth/ Affection
H/A	:	Hostility/ Aggression
I/N	:	Indifference Neglect
U/R	:	Undifferentiated Rejection

1. INTRODUCTION AND THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

As social beings, we all have a strong human need for being accepted by others for a quest of satisfying and peaceful life. Accepting others is an inestimable ability to let others be how actually they are, how they think or feel, no matter how much different they are from us. This is what makes acceptance difficult for many people since it requires true empathy, avoidance of judgment, not trying to change or control others' ideas or actions. As George Orwell says: "Happiness can exist only in acceptance." Thus, to ensure happiness in all kinds of our relationships, in friendship, work, marriage, parenthood, first and foremost we need to accept one another. From this point of view, the fundamental element of this study is the Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control concept, with the aim of showing the vital importance of "acceptance" at work life.

The concept took its roots from Rohner's Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection theory. To begin with the definition of basic terms used in the current study, 'acceptance' refers to the affection, warmth, and love of managers towards their employees, and 'rejection' refers to the absence or withdrawal of affection, warmth, and love by the managers from their employees. The concept of managerial acceptance or rejection is an entirely new topic in Organizational Behavior field. If a person feels accepted or rejected by his or her manager, we estimate that this situation will come up with several consequences. In this study, these consequences will be addressed in three levels as psychological, attitudinal, and organizational to examine the issue from both organizational and individual perspectives. According to the results of the study, we believe that the management world may acquire insights and take concrete steps for more happy, satisfied, and productive working environments.

New leadership styles are emerging in the leadership literature. Liberating Leadership can be an example of these new leadership styles. In this kind of leadership, the main goal is to create a free culture in organizations. In his paper, Getz (2011) proposed four ways to managers on the path to become a liberating leader, including stop telling and start listening, start sharing your vision openly and actively, stop trying to motivate people, and stay alert. If such an environment is created, people will start to feel equal and try to motivate themselves rather than expecting it from managers. This was a

completely new notion and brought many positive outcomes with it. The parallel concept of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control can also contribute a lot to the management world as this new concept does.

In today's business world, it becomes more and more critical to retain employees in organizations for several reasons such as maintaining productivity and performance, reducing recruitment costs and employee turnover, avoiding interruption of customer service and improving employer branding. Employee retaining process starts with hiring the right person for the correct position. Newton and Jimmieson (2009) define person-job fit as matching the person and the requirements that are directly associated with a specific job. It is also important to remember that the person-organization fit is crucial since it refers to the alignment between individual and organizational goals, needs, and values (Kristof, 1996). As retaining an employee who is suitable for the task and organization increasingly gains more importance, the situation gets more complicated. People need to feel committed to their organizations so that organizational commitment is one of the core variables of interest in the management world.

On the other hand, there is a view that personality has a little impact in the workplace because of the high degree of situational strength characterizing most organizational context (Uçar, 2009). However, self-esteem is a personality attribute that can both be influenced by and influence many organizational behavior concepts. In psychology, self-esteem can be defined as a person's assessment or appraisal of his or her worth. Rosenberg and Coopersmith can be shown as pioneer researchers who worked in the 1960's on self-esteem. Self-esteem is related to similar notions like self-worth, self-respect, and self-regard that all encompass the individual's beliefs about his or herself like "I am worthy to be loved" etc. The current study gives place to different self-esteem views, which are global self-esteem and organization-based self-esteem.

Stressful events we face at work have many consequences on us, such as behavioral, psychological, and physiological. There are many antecedents to these stressful events. Since it shows up as a significant risk factor, job strain is another underlying variable that will be discussed in the current study. An important approach that contributes to the conceptualization of work-related tension is Karasek's (1979) Demand-Control Model. The model states that job strain is caused by job-related

conditions rather than an individual's personality or demographic characteristics. If the demands are high and control is low, it is inevitable to have job strain. By empirically examining perceived manager acceptance and rejection, we hope to produce a complete understanding of job strain.

This study aims to evaluate how perceived Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control affects employee's self-esteem, job strain, and organizational commitment, and as the first study in Turkey related to Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control concept, we believe that it will contribute to filling the gap in the literature, trying to advise on managerial implications.

The following questions can describe the problem statement of the current study:

Q1. Does Perceived Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control affect the organizational commitment of employees?

Q2. Does Perceived Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control affect the self-esteem of employees?

Q3. Does Perceived Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control affect the job strain of employees?

In the current study, first, a literature review will be presented on Organizational Commitment, Organization-based Self-Esteem, Job Strain, and Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control. Then, the hypothesizes regarding concepts and model of the study will be presented. Next, the findings of the study will be shown. As the last step, results will be discussed, and managerial implications and limitations will be displayed. The pre-assumed conceptual model of the study is shown in Figure 1:

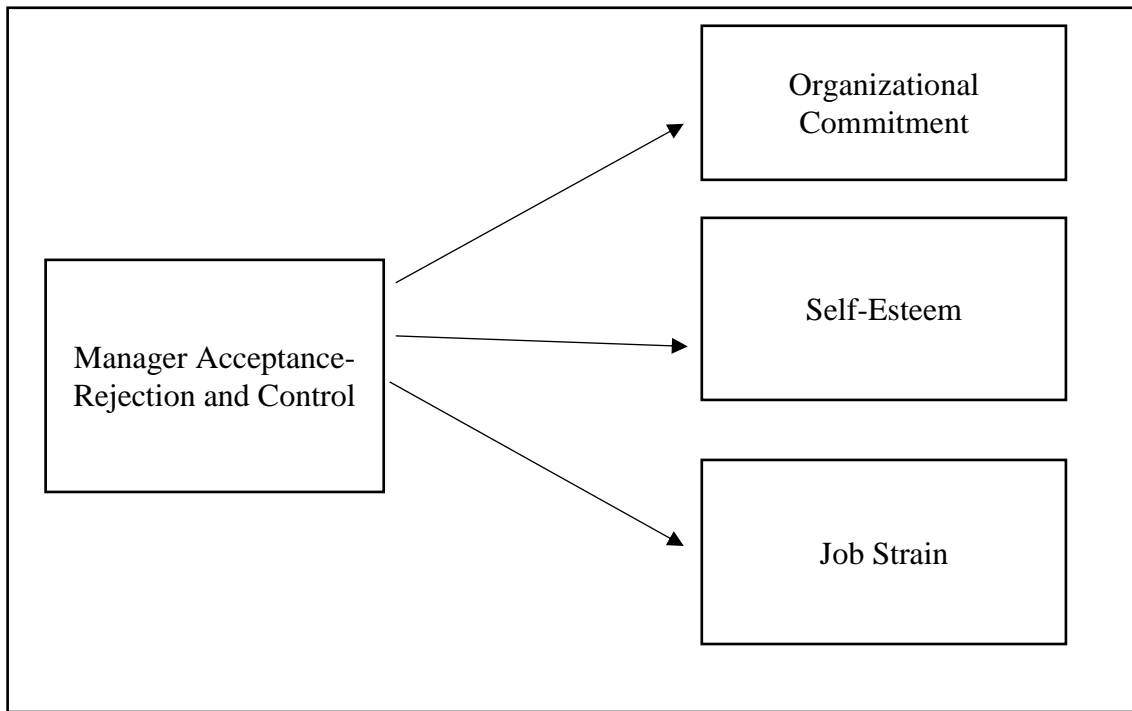


Figure 1 : Pre-assumed Conceptual Framework of the Study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1.1 Definitions and Different Approaches to Organizational Commitment

There are numerous organizational commitment definitions and approaches in the literature; however, most of these definitions and approaches follow each other in a similar vein. Even though Organizational Commitment (OC) was first proposed and defined by Porter (1974) as 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (cited from Mentor, 1989), it can be traced back to earlier times. Becker (1960) presented the term "side-bet theory." According to Becker (1960), people make choices in the light of assumptions related to the world around us and previous experiences. People make calculations in their mind, and these calculations bring a commitment to the organization according to the side-bets theory. The sources of these calculations are generalized as cultural expectations, personal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustment to social positions, self-expression problems, and off the job concerns (Becker, 1960).

Kanter (1968) stated people are willing to spend their energies on social systems, and employees want to show their loyalty in these social systems. According to Kanter, commitment is consist of three dimensions: continuance, cohesion, and control. Continuance refers that employees have difficulty in quitting their jobs because there are plenty of investments that are made for these employees by their employers, which gets employees to reconsider about quitting their job, comparing their existing benefits with those of their potential new job. Cohesion means that employees have a sense of belonging to their colleagues and organizations. Lastly, control commitment is that employees feel committed to the organization's norms to shape their behaviors as required.

Furthermore, Sökmen (2000) defended that Kanter divided Organizational Commitment into three sub-dimensions that differ from each other. It is argued that the more continuance commitment employees have, the more these employees will be likely to stay in the organization. In organizations where cohesion commitment level is high,

the organization has a higher power to defend itself against external threats and dangers. Finally, in organizations where the control commitment is present, members find their values and norms in harmony with the values and norms of the organization. Although the types of commitment have such different consequences, Kanter suggests that these three types of commitment are interrelated. Organizations need to use all three approaches together to ensure the commitment of members.

Etzioni arose another model of Organizational Commitment in 1961. According to Etzioni (1961), the main reason for the emergence of organizational commitment is the authority and power of the organization over the employees. Organizational commitment is defined as the compliance of employees with the rules set by the organization. As individuals become committed to organizations and feel closer, these employees begin to accept the power and authority of the organization.

Etzioni (1961) put down to the fact that commitment includes three different types: moral, calculative, and alienative. In moral commitment, employees interiorize the values and norms of the organization. Employees internalize that work is the most important issue, and this creates a sense of commitment. Calculative commitment is based on an exchange relation between employees and the organization. People feel committed because of that reward will exist in return for investments that are made by employees. Alienative commitment refers to a negative attitude that employees feel restricted and are not free to act at their own will. In addition to this, the person is forced to remain as a member despite not being psychologically committed to the organization.

A different model of Organizational Commitment is offered by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) that psychological identification of the individual within the organization is the definition of commitment term. The researchers examined commitment in three categories: Compliance is composed of attitudes and behaviors that bring reinforcements and rewards. Identification includes the acceptance of the individual where the employee develops a close relationship with the organization. Lastly, internalization emerges if there is a match between personal and organizational goals. However, Caldwell (1990), in his study, found out that identification and internalization dimensions have a

multicollinearity problem, so the researcher decided to combine these two dimensions as one dimension: normative commitment.

It can be said that the three models mentioned above represent different and independent dimensions of commitment concept. On the other hand, it should be taken into consideration that the dimensions of psychological commitment concept may vary from person to person.

Penley and Gould's (1988) model discovered different three dimensions moral, calculative, and alienative. This model is an adaptation of Etzioni's (1961) model of organizational commitment. According to Penley and Gould, it is not apparent that Etzioni (1961) used moral and alienative commitment terms as different or independent dimensions, so the researchers thought that model is complex and clarified that it is better to use these two dimensions independently. Moral commitment can be interpreted as not only the acceptance of organizational goals but also identification with these corporate goals. "Calculative commitment is based on the committed person feeling more or less compelled to continue the relationship in question" (Roxenhall and Andresen, 2012). Alienative commitment emerges when an employee decides to stay in the organization due to environmental pressures even though employee knows that there will be no rewards anymore. As described above, Organizational Commitment is an important issue that has been historically explained and conceptualized by various approaches.

2.1.2 Allen and Meyer's Model of Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1996) developed a final model which helps the literature to find a middle ground. The researchers define organizational commitment as a 'psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization.' According to their study, there are three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. In their research, it is revealed in particular that this three-term should not be viewed as different three dimensions. In contrast with this, these terms should be considered as components of organizational commitment since all of them can show up for an employee. To illustrate, the fact that a worker feels affective commitment to the

organization does not guarantee that worker will feel the same way in later career stages since organizations are organic structures that are always open to change.

2.1.2.1 The Definition of Affective Commitment

The concept of affective commitment is defined as the emotional integration of individuals with the organization and the active participation to the activities in the organization wholeheartedly. In other words, it means the full integration of individuals with the organization. The reason why people continue in the workplace is because they want it wholeheartedly since one's values and goals and the organization's values and goals are in harmony. As a result, the person is motivated to stay in the organization, to participate in the activities of the organization, and to establish good relations with other people. People who are affectively committed to their organization are loyal people who devote themselves to the organization, so they have a positive attitude towards the organization and do not avoid making extra efforts when necessary (Allen and Meyer, 1991).

2.1.2.2. The Definition of Continuance Commitment

Continuance Commitment can be defined as the continuation of a person's job because of the costs that arise when the person leaves his / her current job and the lack of job opportunities in the market. According to Allen and Meyer, there are two factors that lead to the Continuance Commitment which are the investments made by the individual to the organization and the lack of business alternatives. Those who have a high Continuance Commitment think that it is imperative that they remain in the organization because of the calculations they make in their minds, not because they want to stay from the heart. The workers compare the time they spent and the acquisitions they got in the firm.

On the other hand, due to the lack of business in the market, the workers exhibit minimum performance in their current jobs (Allen and Meyer, 1991). In addition, Allen and Meyer argue that as continuance commitment increases, affective and normative commitment level of employees decreases. Consequently, it would not be wrong to say that continuance commitment is an undesirable type of commitment.

2.1.2.3. The Definition of Normative Commitment

Meyer and Allen first mentioned Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment concepts in their model of Organizational Commitment; however, the researchers added the Normative Commitment concept that is developed by Weiner (1982) as a third dimension to their model. Employees perceive this kind of commitment as a task and feel morally obligated to stay in the organization. The employees continue to work in the firm not because they want to stay, but because they think this is morally correct. Normative Commitment does not result from the sense of obligation as in Continuance Commitment. The motivation beyond it is that the employees think they are virtuous and ethical. Allen and Meyer (1991) stated that people with high normative commitment think that there is a debt that needs to be paid back, and it's their responsibility to stay in the organization. Normative commitment is related to employees' loyalty norms and is affected by their social and cultural characteristics (Allen and Meyer, 1997).

2.1.3 The Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Over the past 30 years, there has been a steady increase in Organizational Commitment studies which investigate the antecedents and the consequences of the concept. Many studies have been employed to show the relationship between personal characteristics such as age, gender, and education level and organizational commitment. In the literature, it is seen that age is linearly related to the organizational commitment, and the level of employee's organizational commitment increases with age; however, other studies claim the exact opposite. Allen and Meyer (1993) stated that the older workers become more committed to their companies, since the job opportunities for them decrease and the costs of quitting a job increases. The other way round, Kirel (1999) argued younger workers are more committed compared with older ones, owing to the fact that the younger workers find their job more fruitful, and they work more eagerly.

Different insights have been gained in studies on the organizational commitment level of women and men towards the organization. Where some researchers suggest that women have higher organizational commitment, whereas others claim that

men's level of organizational commitment is higher, setting forth different reasons. Due to the reasons such as work-family conflict, role conflict, legal norms, moral, religion, and cultural structures, women feel less committed to their organizations (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). On the other hand, Morrow, McElroy, and Blum's (1988) findings indicate the opposite. The researchers argue that female employees do not like to change their jobs and organizations frequently as The challenges make female employees feel stronger and more committed, and they spend more effort.

Like other personal characteristics, there are different perspectives on the relationship between an employee's education level and organization commitment level. Mowday et al. (1982) asserted that the organizational commitment level decreases as the educational level of the employee increases. There is an inverse relationship between the educational level and organizational commitment: The higher the educational level of employees, the more job opportunities they will likely to have. However, organizations will have difficulty to meet employee's expectations because workers who have high education, have more expectations when they are compared with workers who are less educated. However, Gallie and White (1993) hold a different perspective regarding education level. The researchers defended that well-educated people have more opportunities to work in jobs they love, so there is a positive correlation between education level and organizational commitment that is caused by doing the job the workers are happy to involve.

On the other hand, organizational factors such as job characteristics and organizational culture can be illustrated as the antecedents of Organizational Commitment. For low-level employees, personal factors are more significant on organizational commitment, whereas for high-level employees, organizational factors have more impact on organizational commitment. For such employees, participation in decision-making process, role ambiguity, and autonomy, emerge as more critical factors regarding commitment (Cohen, 1992). In his study, Wiener (1982) also stated greater control over the quantity and quality of work, working as groups rather than individual, feedback on work, and opportunities for social interactions increase organizational commitment.

Organizational culture acts as a bridge between the objectives of the organization and the priorities of the employees, and it also affects the organizational commitment level of the employees. Organizational culture strengthens the organizational commitment by developing a sense of common identity among employees, and by helping them to align their objectives to those of the organization. In her study, Wasti (2001) pointed out that Turkish employees feel normatively committed to their organizations due to their family structure, cultural values, and personality characteristics. It is also found out that people hired thanks to their relatives' support, do not want to quit their job, because leaving a job means for them is to damage the reputation of their relatives. Another result was that people feel normatively committed because of the collectivistic culture in Turkey.

The main drivers of Affective Commitment are demographic variables, individual differences, work experiences, and investments. Nevertheless, work experiences were found the most influential antecedents of Affective Commitment (Meyer et al 2002). Morrow (2011) put forward that interpersonal relationships, human resource practices, and socialization are positively correlated with a high level of Affective Commitment. In addition to this, Kehoe and Wright (2013) defended that human resource practices based on organizational commitment theories help employees to feel more committed affectively. Allen and Shanock (2013) worked on perceived organizational support and how it affects the commitment level of employees. In their study, it was concluded that employees develop an affective commitment towards their organization if they perceive an organizational support. Odoardi et al. (2019) investigated the relationship between affective commitment and employee innovation. At the end of the study, it was seen that employee innovation was found as the consequences of affective commitment.

In the past three decades, a number of studies have sought to determine the consequences of Organizational Commitment. In terms of the relationship between organizational commitment and performance, different opinions and findings are seen in the literature. It is discussed that individuals who have identification with, and emotional commitment to the organization, perform better than the other employees. Besides,

employees with higher organizational commitment work more intensively, and their performance are better (Meyer and Allen, 1997). On the other hand, Brett, Cron, and Slocum (1995) claim that there is no relationship between organizational commitment and performance. The researchers stated that individuals perform better due to the economic conditions, social and psychological pressure caused by being unemployed, and scarcity of job opportunities rather than an individual commitment to the organization.

Morris and Steers (1980) figured out that there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and the decentralization of the decision-making process and the formalization of policies and procedures.

Mowday et al. (1982) suggested that Organizational Commitment should be examined deeply with a holistic perspective, since the concept comprises numerous implications for employees, organizations, and society. It is stated that employees acquire both extrinsic and psychological rewards if they feel committed to their organizations. Extrinsic rewards cover benefits and wages, whereas psychological rewards include internal states such as job satisfaction and good and fulfilling relationships with people in a positive work environment. Employers give high importance to commitment because it helps to reduce turnover, absenteeism, and lateness. As we all know, people are expected to be more creative and multitalented in today's highly competitive and demanding business world. In their study, Katz and Kahn (1978) demonstrated that the more commitment the employees have towards their organizations, the more creative and innovative they become, and it helps employees to stay in such a tough working world.

The consequences of affective commitment have been investigated by many researchers. Albrecht and Andretta (2011) reported that as employees' affective commitment levels increased, the turnover rate decreased. Another study on turnover was made by Vandenberghe, Panaccio, and Ayed (2011). The authors came up with the result that the employee's turnover rate increases if their continuance commitment level decreases. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (2013) suggested that there would be less absenteeism as a result of feeling more affective attachment. Liu (2009) argued that employees would exhibit more organizational citizenship behavior if they were

committed to their company affectively. Schmidt (2007), on the other hand, showed that affective commitment mediates stress level of the employees by diminishing emotional exhaustion and burnout. Moreover, Kuo (2012) showed that when employees have a clear understanding of their roles and obligations, their affective, continuance, and normative commitment levels will increase. This increase will reflect on their organizational performance positively.

In their study, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) worked on the antecedents and consequences of Organizational Commitment. The researchers' findings are as follows in figure 2.

Figure 2 : The Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment

ANTECEDENTS	CONSEQUENCES
Personal Characteristics	Job Performance
Age	Perceived Job Alternatives
Sex	Intention to search
Education	Intention to leave
Marital Status	Attendance
Position Tenure	Lateness
Organizational Tenure	Turnover
Perceived Personal Competence	
Ability	
Salary	
Job Level	
Role Ambiguity	
Role Conflict	
Role Overload	

Source: Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological bulletin*, 108(2), 171.

As described above in the table, there are many factors forming the concept of organizational commitment and many consequences caused by the concept of organizational commitment.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF SELF-ESTEEM

2.2.1 Definitions and Different Approaches to Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is a concept which stays on the agenda for a long time for researchers. Rosenberg is known as the first researcher focused on self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965) defined self-esteem as a construct in which people do an overall self-evaluation regarding his/her competencies. In other words, self-esteem shows a person's self approval or disapproval as a result of the evaluation of his/her internal psychological state.

In the 1960s and 1970s, Rosenberg (1965) and Coopersmith (1968) were the pioneer researchers who used the self-esteem concept within social-learning theory and were able to measure self-esteem by using questionnaires.

People make judgments about themselves and value themselves as positive or negative. In his study, Rohner (1999) divided self-esteem into two categories: positive and negative. According to Rohner (1999), positive self-esteem includes feeling worthwhile, accepted, and approved. These people also see themselves as beneficial and worth being respected. Negative self-esteem is consist of feeling worthless, rejected, and disapproved. People with negative self-esteem feel not being approved by others and have a sense of inadequacy leading to a tendency to inferiority complex.

According to Simpson and Boyle (1975), self-esteem concept can be divided into two subdimensions: 1) global, 2) task or situation-specific self-esteem. Global self-esteem refers to a general self-esteem level an individual has, whereas, task or situation-specific self-esteem means a self-esteem level that occurs when there is a unique situation or task. For example, a person can have high self-esteem about socializing people at work. However, this person, at the same time, can have low self-esteem when it comes to present a project to his/her colleagues.

Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989) developed a new concept for self-esteem, which is called Organizational-Based Self-Esteem. This term was described

as a self-perceived value of how effective an employee performs his/her roles within the context of an organization.

Franks and Moralla (1976) claimed that self-esteem has a dual process. In the first process, people want to be approved by others around them since it increases the feeling of self-worth. As a second process, individuals want to feel that their selves are evaluated by others as efficient and competent. It is also stated that self-esteem has two sources: inner source and outer source. The inner source refers to how effectively a person makes his or her evaluation, whereas the outer source relates to the opinions of others.

Culture is another significant aspect of self-esteem. Many social psychologists observed that construals of self vary from country to country. Markus and Kitayama (1999) found out that American or Western European views put forward autonomy and individuality. On the other hand, in Asian and African societies, people associate their selves with other people.

Because many concepts start with self, people confuse them frequently. It will be beneficial to indicate the differences between the concepts pertaining to self and self-esteem. According to Hollenbeck (2004), self-esteem and self-confidence are completely different concepts. Self-esteem refers to the sense of personal worth and worthiness, whereas self-confidence means individual's having a sense of personal capacity and appraisal of competence, abilities, and skills in a specific field. Self-esteem and self-efficacy are other terms that are often confused by people. According to Lane, Jones, and Stevens (2002), self-efficacy is a motivational trait that encompasses an individual's belief in the ability to overcome different situations. In other words, it is one's self-assessment in terms of efficacy and competence.

2.2.2 The Antecedents and Consequences of Self-Esteem

The concept of self is one of the issues that has been discussed for years. Many theorists have expressed different opinions about the concept of self. In their social identity theory, Tajfel and Turner (1979) stated that self-concept is consist of two parts:

social identity and personal identity. Personal identity refers to the traits and characteristics that make each person unique, whereas social identity means how we identify ourselves in a community. Humanist psychologist, Carl Rogers (1959) indicated that there are three different parts of self-concept, which are self-image, self-esteem, and ideal self. Where Self-image can be defined as how you see yourself, Ideal Self refers to how you wish to be. Furthermore, self-esteem is also related to how much you value yourself. As stated before, Rosenberg (1965) described self-esteem as a self-concept that people make self-evaluation about themselves.

Many factors affecting self-esteem were studied in the literature. Thomas and Raj (1985) conducted a factorial study on self-esteem by working with 624 secondary school students. The researchers added eight variables as antecedents of self-esteem, which are socioeconomic status, parental attitude, home environment, home relations, acceptance-rejection, dependence-independence, autocracy-democracy, and mutual trust and approval. Three factors are extracted according to the result of factor analysis. The results of the factor analysis stated that all of these eight variables' subitems could be reduced to three crucial dimensions which are "Physical Facilities," "Parenting Practices," and "Family Harmony."

Another study on self-esteem done by Naganandini (2017) in India. The author worked with 60 students from a selected residential school to find the relationship between selected demographic variables and self-esteem. Age, year of education, father's education level, mother's education level, occupation of the head of the family, number of siblings, and gender were chosen as independent variables of the study. All independent variables were found significant in children's self-esteem, excluding gender.

A cross-temporal meta-analysis was conducted by Twenge and Campbell (2001) to understand age and birth cohort differences in self-esteem. In the study, three models were summarized and made predictions for age differences in self-esteem, cohort differences in children's self-esteem, and cohort differences in young adult's self-esteem. The first model was named as Social Acceptance. Its core idea was that high self-esteem was formed by other's acceptance. This model predicts a decrease in self-esteem at adolescence because of the relationship problems. However, an increase will start after

this stage. Because of the hostile environment in the 1970s, self-esteem may decrease; however, it will start rising in 1980s again. Little or no effect was expected on young adult's self-esteem. The second model was named as Competencies and defined as self-esteem is a product of accomplishments in a field such as academia, social skills or popularity, etc. The model predicts that self-esteem will tend to be low in adolescence and a modest increase in self-esteem is supposed to be seen in both birth cohorts. The culture of self-worth model was the third one and was related to social and cultural norms. The model predicted an increase in self-esteem from childhood to adulthood since individualism becomes more critical in these ages. College student's self-esteem was expected to increase over time; however, it was expected after the 1980s for children's self-esteem. It can be concluded from this study that our relationships with others, our achievements, biological changes in our bodies, period in which we live, social and cultural norms of the era can be shown as factors that shape our self-esteem.

Self-esteem is a milestone part of self-development process. Self-esteem assessments begin with birth and continue until death. It is essential to say that forming "self-esteem" is much more important in childhood and adolescence. As Cüceloğlu (1996) stated in his study, the level of self-esteem is more resistant to change in adulthood.

Twenge and Campbell (2002) also conducted another meta-analytic review that evaluates the relationship between socioeconomic status and self-esteem. 446 studies were investigated in this meta-analysis. It was found out that people who have a higher socioeconomic status report higher self-esteem. It was also observed that effect size is very small in children, increases in young adulthood and middle age; however, it starts decreasing after the age of 60, so it can be inferred that age and socioeconomic status are significant factors that predict the self-esteem.

Phinney, Cantu, and Kurtz (1996) studied ethnic and American identity as predictors of self-esteem. 669 American born African American, Latino, and White adolescents participated in the study. Participants filled measures of self-esteem, American identity, ethnic identity, attitudes toward other groups, and demographic variables. According to the results, ethnic identity was significant for all groups. Only for White adolescents, American identity was significant in predicting self-esteem. It can be

seen that the result of this study shows the importance of group identity as a predictor of self-esteem.

In another study related to self-esteem, gender was taken as the independent variable, and its effects on self-esteem were investigated with the participation of 804 women and 127 men. Total global self-esteem scores of women and men were equal. However, when the factors were examined, it was found that while men's self-esteem was related to task-related issues, women's self-esteem was related to social skills. Men gave themselves high scores in mathematics, science, and leadership (Zuckerman, 1985).

In the literature, studies on the consequences of self-esteem are generally conducted on students. In their study, Rosli et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and academic performance of undergraduate students. The researchers added stress and body image into the study. However, the results showed that self-esteem was the key factor that affects a student's academic performance more than their stress and body image. Another study on primary school students was conducted by Rahmani (2011). The author examined the relationship between self-esteem, achievement goals, and academic achievement. It was found out that self-esteem, achievement goals, and academic achievement were all correlated. Also, the academic achievement of these primary school students was explained by both self-esteem and achievement goals. Not only academic performance was evaluated by researchers, but also loneliness among college students was studied by Zhao, Kong, and Wang (2012). In their study, the mediator effects of humor style and self-esteem on the relationship between shyness and loneliness were investigated. The results released that humor style and self-esteem partially mediated the relationship between loneliness and shyness.

Literature also covers how an individual's self-esteem affects the relationships that are developed by this person. In their study, Ford and Collins (2010) studied self-esteem as a moderator of psychological and physiological responses to interpersonal rejection. Salivary cortisol and self-reported affective and cognitive responses were measured in the study. People who had low self-esteem had greater cortisol level and showed self-blaming attributions. Also, these people appraised themselves more negatively.

Lafreniere et al. (2011) conducted an unusual study on self-esteem. The researchers tried to figure out the relationship between self-esteem and passion for activities by examining 105 university students from the USA. Passion was divided into two subgroups, which are harmonious passion and obsessive passion. Harmonious passion can be defined as a strong desire to engage freely in an activity, whereas obsessive passion means an uncontrollable urge to engage in the activity. According to results, harmonious passion was explained by explicit self-esteem, whereas implicit self-esteem negatively predicted obsessive passion.

It is shown in this section that there are many factors affecting self-esteem and how a decrease or an increase in self-esteem affects a person's life.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF JOB STRAIN

2.3.1 Definitions of Job Strain

Employees' mood can be highly impacted by work environment. There is an invisible aura at workplaces that affects the relationships between people and the feelings of employees. Thus, it is crucial to maintain a healthy ambience at workplaces to avoid job strain.

Lazarus (2006) stated that stress and strain can be interchangeably used terms. However, there is an important difference when it comes to their meanings. Stress can be defined as an external load or demand on a psychological, social, or biological system, whereas strain is the distortion on the system caused by stress.

Lee and Ashforth (1996) also defined strain as a person's feeling a lack of energy and having no emotional resources to cope with stressful events. Stress causes not only psychological strains but also physical and biological strains.

In their book "Healthy Work, Stress, Productivity and the Reconstruction of Working Life," Karasek and Theorell (1990) claimed that psychological strains, such as depression and anxiety, might occur due to stress. Moreover, stress may also lead to physical or biological diseases.

A milestone approach contributing to the conceptualization of Job Strain is Karasek's Demand Control Model. Karasek (1979) proposed a new model that includes two significant aspects initially: job demands and job decision latitude. Job demands express an expected workload level, work-related conflicts, unexpected task, and other stressors. The term "job decision latitude" can be defined as an employee's ability to choose his or her way on his or her job.

Karasek (1979) divided his model into four segments. In the first segment, job demand and job decision latitude are both low. It shows that employee can be defined as a passive employee, so this situation will not contribute employee much, but rather it can downgrade his or her all activities and problem-solving skills. In the second segment, job demands are high, and job decision latitude is low at the same time. It creates a high job strain. In the third segment, job demands and job decision latitude are both high. In this situation, the employee can be called as an active employee where he or she can develop a new behavioral pattern. In the last segment, job demands are low, job decision latitude is high, which means lower chance of job strain..

Karasek and Theorell (1990) added another aspect, social support, into Karasek's Job Demands and Control Model. According to the new model, employees with jobs combining high job demands, low control, and low social support from their peers or supervisors were more likely to have higher job strain.

Karasek (1979) stated that if there are high job demands, there is low control, and low social support, job satisfaction of employees decreases due to the increased strain.

2.3.2 The Antecedents and Consequences of Perceived Job Strain

Today's business conditions bring along many responsibilities and workload. People try to maintain a healthy balance in different spheres of life: in family, at work, and in their social environments. This huge effort to find a midpoint may cause some level of stress. In this study, job strain caused by perceived manager acceptance, rejection, and control will be investigated since workplace is where employees spend most of their time, in a continuous interaction with their managers and colleagues, which also becomes one of the main causes of stress in their lives. Physical environment conditions, personal

characteristics of employees, organizational structure, and the way the work is done can be shown as factors that give rise to work strain (Kanbay and Üstün, 2009). Aydın (2004) divided stress generating factors into three groups, which are organizational, individual, and environmental stress factors.

In his book, Luthans (2002) grouped organizational stress factors under four categories: organizational policies, organization's structural characteristics, physical conditions, and organizational processes. Organizational policies include unfair audits, wage inequality, strict organizational norms, unrealistic job descriptions, and role ambiguity. Organization's structural characteristics involve: a high degree of centralization, lack of worker participation in business decision-making, difficulty in getting promoted, high degree of specialization, long working hours, imbalance between employee's competencies and job specifications, lack of supervisor support. physical conditions consist of: crowded workspace, excessive noise, extremes of temperature (hot or cold), poor illumination, and occupational accidents. As a last factor, organizational processes contain poor communication, insufficient feedback on performance appraisal, and ambiguous and contradictory objectives.

Role ambiguity and role conflict can be thought of as the antecedents of job strain. Role ambiguity arises if employees do not have clear and well-planned objectives, are not informed about their responsibilities and expectations required for their positions, whereas role conflict refers to situations in which employees have more than one role in their current job, and these roles are contradictory with each other, causing employee's confusion with which role they need to take. In his study, Yeşilyurt (2009) found out that role ambiguity and role conflict cause job strain on nurses.

Salary is a fundamental and critical issue, especially from an employee's point of view because of its growing role in raising standard of living, welfare, and providing assurance. In this context, if compensation fairness is not provided, and if salaries are not suitably regulated according to their positions, employees will be unsatisfied, accompanied with a sense of injustice. Such an effort-reward imbalance and perceived unfairness at work will be a cause of job strain (Yılmaz and Ekici, 2006).

If an organization's structure has a high degree of hierarchy and centralization, job strain will be expected to be higher in such company since the relationship between managers and employees is highly formal, and the employees feel obligated to satisfy their superiors. Authoritarian leaders raise fear and anxiety in their employees by applying pressure, punishing, and strictly controlling. Such a rigid organizational structure causes distance between subordinates and superiors, leading to an unpeaceful organizational climate, which generates stress on employees, and lowers their job satisfaction.(Yetişen, 2010).

Most employees are willing to develop their careers in a specific field. Therefore career development is important for them. Even though it motivates people, it can also lead to negative consequences. Though getting promoted seems to be a reward at first glance, it requires gaining new skills, building a strong network and strengthening the old ones, coping with new responsibilities. If promotion brings along excessive responsibilities to an employee, the employee begins to suffer from job strain due to a high level of stress arising from the over-responsibility anxiety (Soysal, 2009).

Work overload and monotony at workplace were studied in the literature as the antecedents of Job Strain. Ergun (2008) defines work overload as an employee's shouldering a job which is beyond his/her personal capabilities. The researcher also stated that monotony is another issue that employees get bored with their jobs easily. In his study, Güney (2011) argues that monotony creates higher job strain than work overload because monotony leads people to a pessimistic psychological state. Güney (2011) also indicates that relationships with subordinates, peers, and superiors can be a stress factor for employees. Constructive relationships in an organization help both employees and organization to achieve their goals. On the other hand, in a toxic, destructive workplace, it becomes harder to succeed in achieving goals, and job dissatisfaction also increases. This kind of work environment takes the lead in job strain.

As stated above, all stress factors bring plenty of consequences. In his study, Ergun (2008) remarks that job strain affects employee's performance, attendance, and turnover negatively. Another study by Samad, Reaburn, and Milia examined the contribution of job strain to work-family conflict. It was estimated that long working

hours and job strain are strongly associated with work-family conflict. According to the result of the study, it was valid that employees' working overtime and having a high level of job strain trigger family problems.

In their study, Dollard, Helen, Anthony and Jan (2000) used Karasek's Job Demand Control and Support model and figured out that job satisfaction level was the lowest when job demands were high, and control and support were low; however it is stated that job satisfaction was high when employees have control on their jobs and get social support from their co-workers and employers.

Moreover, job strain also causes individual consequences.. In their study, Santavirta, Solovieva, Theorell (2007) found out that workers have emotional exhaustion if they have a high job strain. There are numerous studies conducted to illustrate the relationship between job strain and employee's health. Most of these studies claim that high job demands and control causes stress, and employee's health is affected negatively (Jones and Harris, 2002; Harvey et al., 2018).

In her study, Taştan (2016), using Karasek's DCS model, argued how organizational support, job control, psychological hardiness, and work overload predict perceived job strain, . According to the results, psychological hardiness, organizational support, and job control had a strong relationship with job strain, and, work overload had a positive relationship with job strain.

Since stress level increases day by day at workplaces, many researchers publish studies on job strain and coping strategies . In his research, Güçlü (2001) advises managers some ways to reduce job strain as follows:

- * Providing social support
- *Identifying organizational roles and reducing conflicts
- *Determination of training programs to ensure career development
- *Ensuring the participation of employees in the decision-making process

*Career planning and management

*Job enrichment.

Reducing job strain levels can be achieved by using the methods mentioned above. As employees become more involved in the decision-making processes, as they feel invested for their growth, and as they have clear job roles, their job strain level is supposed to decrease.

2.4 THE CONCEPT OF MANAGER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION, AND CONTROL

2.4.1 The Definition of Manager Acceptance-Rejection, and Control

Interpersonal acceptance-rejection theory (IPARTheory) is a theory of socialization and life expectancy improvement that is brought to light by Ronald Rohner, the founder of "Center for the Study of Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection" at Connecticut University, intending to foresee and clarify real outcomes and different associates of relational acceptance and rejection around the world (Rohner, 1986, 2004; Rohner and Rohner, 1980).

Initially, in the early 1980s, the theory, with the name of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory (PARTheory) was mainly concentrated on the impacts of perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood and its reflections on adulthood. In 2014, the theory expanded to incorporate intimate adult relationships and other relationships, which led to the change in the name of the theory as Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory (IPARTheory).

In 2017, with the development of Manager Acceptance-Rejection (MA-R) and Control Questionnaire (Appendix 1), the theory expanded into manager acceptance-rejection and control. This questionnaire has recently been started to use in the first research currently been conducted in Bulgaria, Portugal, and the USA. In Turkey, the first data in this context have recently been collected for this study, and there had not been a study specifically addressing manager acceptance-rejection and control in Turkey before. Thus, at this moment, this research is supposed to be the first.

From a business perspective, there are five dimensions of the theory, which are listed below:

1. Warmth-Affection (W/A): Employee does not feel (or vice versa) the warmth of his/her manager.

2. Hostility-Aggression (H/A): Employee feels (or vice versa) his/her manager's aggression verbally or physically.

3. Indifference-Neglect (I/N): Employee feels (or vice versa) his/her manager's ignorance about his/her existence.

4. Undifferentiated Rejection (U/R): Employee does not feel his/her manager's aggression; however, as he/she does not feel any positive attitudes of the manager he/she feels unloved.

5. Control: Employee feels (or vice versa) that his/her manager controls him/her (Rohner, 2014).

These five dimensions are the evaluations that employees make in their inner world, regarding their managers' behaviours. In this study, these five dimensions' effects will be investigated.

2.4.2 Studies Related with MA-R and Control

In the literature, there is no study addressing the relationship between manager acceptance, rejection, control, and its effects on employees. Therefore, similar relations such as teacher and students, parents and children will be examined to predict how the relationship between managers and workers can be.

Literature shows that many types of research on Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory are based on parent and child relationship. In their study, Erkan and Toran (2004) aimed to evaluate which factors affect mother's acceptance and rejection towards their children. Participants of the study consisted of mothers from low-income level. The study showed that age, education level, income level, and the number of

children affect mother's acceptance and rejection. However, the gender of children was found insignificant.

Pektaş and Özgür (2005) examined the relationship between perceived mother acceptance or rejection of primary school students. It was noted that boys feel more rejected than girls do. It is also figured out that children feel more rejected if their mothers are uneducated. On the other hand, an increase in the number of family members may cause children to be more likely to feel that they will be rejected by their parents.

Interpersonal acceptance and rejection occurring between a parent and child also affect the relationship between siblings. Kanyas (2008) found out that children who perceive rejection by their fathers have more conflicts with their siblings than children who perceive rejection from their mothers. Another finding was that daughters have a more intense battle between themselves in case of parental rejection.

Numerous studies also focus on teenagers. One of the studies done with teenagers by Karaca (2006) claims that the more parents ignore their children, the more aggression their children will have. Perceived acceptance and rejection also have significant effects on children's coping strategies, development processes, and empathy skills. In their study, Önder and Gülay (2007), sought for the relationship between the level of mothers' acceptance and rejection, and the empathy skills of their children. However, no correlation between these two variables was found.

Perceived acceptance and rejection of a child might affect his entire life, such as future romantic relationships and work relations. In his study, Varan (2004) figured out that if a child perceives acceptance or rejection by his/her parents, the child evaluates his/her relations in the same manner when he or she becomes an adult. To put it differently, if a boy felt rejected during his entire childhood stage by his mother, he would be most likely to feel rejected by his significant other. Furthermore, there was no significant difference found between women and men who perceived rejection by their parents during their childhood and by their significant others during their adulthood.

In their study, Rohner et al. (2019) investigated if psychological maladjustment mediates the relation between remembrances of parental rejection in childhood and

adult's fear of intimacy or not. Not only psychological maladjustment was taken as a mediator variable, but also relationship anxiety was added to the study as an additional mediator variable. 3483 young adults from different 13 countries participated in the study. The study estimated that relationships between variables would not vary according to ethnicity, culture, language, gender, or other conditions. It is figured out that parental rejection in childhood predicted participants' fear of intimacy in all 13 countries. The maternal rejection was a stronger predictor in fear of intimacy when it is compared with paternal rejection. Put in a nutshell, psychological maladjustment and relationship anxiety of participants regardless of the country and gender were predicted by parental rejection, which in turn predicted fear of intimacy.

Coping with the remembrance of parental rejection and its effects on adults' intimate partner relationships were studied by Ki, Rohner, Britner, Halgunseth, and Rigazio-Digillio (2018). Participants were divided into two groups; which are copers and non-copers. Copers refer people who reported themselves having a good psychological adjustment, whereas non-copers are defined as people with poor psychological adjustment because of exposure of parental rejection in their childhood. The sample was consist of 724 copers and 1121 non-copers. At the end of the study, it is emphasized that the psychological adjustment and remembered parental rejection of non-copers were mediated by perceived partner acceptance-rejection; however, copers were not affected by parental rejection in their current relationship.

Varan, Rohner, and Eryuksel (2008) studied how ongoing attachment relationships of Turkish adults were affected by their perception of intimate partner acceptance, parental acceptance in childhood, and psychological adjustment. 681 Turkish adults participated in the study. Different self-report questionnaires were used to measure perceptions of intimate partner acceptance, parental acceptance in childhood, and psychological adjustment. Results highlighted that people perceived moderate acceptance in all attachment figures (mother, father, and intimate partner). However, the less acceptance participants comprehend by their attachment figures regardless of it is mother, father, or intimate partner, the more psychological maladjustment these people have.

Regression analysis showed that the psychological adjustment of participants was significantly explained by all three attachment figures.

Ibrahim, Rohner, Smith, and Flannery (2015) also studied the relation between adult's remembrances of parental acceptance-rejection in childhood and current rejection sensitivity in adulthood. 271 undergraduates were the sample of the study. The current level of rejection sensitivity was predicted by the adult's remembrances of parental acceptance-rejection in childhood. Moreover, it is found out that women's rejection sensitivity was higher if there is a perceived rejection by their mothers in childhood. The same result was also valid for men. The more rejection men felt by their fathers, the more rejection sensitivity men have.

Remembered parental acceptance was also studied with another concept rather than psychological adjustment. In their study, Kuyumcu and Rohner (2016) studied the relationship between self-acceptance of young Turkish adults and remembered parental acceptance in childhood. The sample covered 236 young Turkish adults. Results indicated that both men and women tend to remember being accepted by their parents. Furthermore, women reported more maternal and paternal acceptance than men. In a similar way, self-acceptance was high in both men and women. Women's self-acceptance was higher than the level of self-acceptance of men. Women's self-acceptance was explained by age and remembered paternal acceptance, whereas maternal acceptance and age explained the men's self-acceptance. Remembered paternal acceptance was found insignificant in men's self-acceptance.

Plenty of studies were employed by researchers about how childhood experiences affect people's current relationships with their environment. Ali, Khaleque, and Rohner (2015) studied on a meta-analysis that addressing pancultural gender differences between psychological adjustment's of children and adults, and perceived parental acceptance. The meta-analysis covered 220 studies involving 33081 participants from 23 countries. Results demonstrated that the psychological adjustment of both adults and children were significantly affected by both maternal and paternal acceptance. In conclusion, gender was found insignificant in the relation between children's psychological adjustment and their perception of parental acceptance. However,

rememberance of their maternal acceptance in their childhood affected male adults in terms of their psychological adjustment, more than those of their female counterparts. In contrast, the paternal acceptance in childhood was a stronger predictor in female adults' psychological adjustment when it was compared with those of the male adults'.

There can be seen several studies examining the effects of teacher acceptance as well as perceived parental acception on children. In their paper, Khan, Armstrong, Haynes, and Rohner (2010) analyzed how students' academic performance and school conduct are influenced by their perception of teacher acceptance and perception of parental acceptance. 362 seventh-grade students participated in the study in the United States. Results showed that there is a positive correlation between perceived teacher acceptance and GPA's of boys, not girls. Girls' academic achievements were not correlated with parental acceptance. However, in both boys and girls, the more the students feel accepted by their teachers, the better behaviors they display. Lastly, perceived teacher acceptance caused a higher GPA and better school conduct among boys, not girls.

Another study was conducted by Rohner, Khaleque, Elias, and Sultana (2010). The study aimed to examine how perceived teacher acceptance and parental acceptance of Bangladeshi students explain their school conduct and psychological adjustment. The sample included 200 high school students. The reports prepared by their teachers, regarding the students' school conduct, were not correlated with the students' perception of both teacher acceptance and parental acceptance; however, students' psychological adjustments were found correlated with perceived teacher acceptance and parental acceptance. Moreover, multiple regression results showed that only perceived teacher acceptance contributed to students' psychological adjustment. Parental acceptance was found insignificant.

Rohner, Parmar, and Ibrahim (2010) also investigated how perceived teacher acceptance and parental acceptance of 205 Kuwaiti students explain their school conduct and psychological adjustment. The researchers added a behavioral control variable into the study, which refers to the students' perceptance of being controlled by their parents and teachers. As a measurement method, perceived parent and teacher acceptance surveys

were filled out by the students. According to the results, both the girls and boys reported being loved fairly and controlled moderately by their teachers and parents. The teachers reported both girls and boys behaving well; however, the girls are reported behaving better than the boys. Girls' school conduct was not correlated with teacher acceptance, parent acceptance, and behavioral control, whereas boys' school conduct was correlated with all. Psychological adjustment of both boys and girls were correlated with the perception of both parent and teacher acceptance. Regression analysis proved that perceived teacher acceptance was not found significant on students' psychological adjustments; however, parental acceptance was found significant.

Again, in their study, Ali, Khaleque, Rohner (2015), with a cross-cultural meta-analysis of nine studies about how psychological adjustment and school conduct of 2422 students from 12 countries were influenced by their perception of teacher acceptance and parent acceptance, showed that psychological adjustment and school conduct of children, regardless of gender, were significantly correlated with both teacher acceptance and parental acceptance in all countries.

Perceived rejection might create negative consequences on people. These consequences can be both physical and mental. Işık (2010) aimed to find the effects of parental acceptance and rejection on children with different coping strategies and different personality characteristics on psychological problems. According to the findings, depression, and anxiety were caused by perceived rejection when children do not have a secure coping mechanism and have sensitive personality characteristics.

To establish a theoretical framework on perceived MA-R and Control, the studies given above related to parent-child relationship and teacher-student relationship, are illustrated to point out the similarity with the relationship between manager and employee.

2.5 THE RELATIONS OF MANAGER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION, AND CONTROL WITH PERCEIVED SELF-ESTEEM, JOB STRAIN, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Since there has been no study investigating the relationship between Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control, and Organizational Commitment yet, associations between leadership styles and organizational commitment will be shown in this part, in order to provide some theoretical background. We assume that positive leadership styles will bring an idea that employees will feel acceptance, whereas negative leadership styles will be considered as rejection and control.

In their study, Clinebell, Skudiene, Trijonyte, and Reardon (2013) sought the impact of leadership style on employees' organizational commitment. 359 questionnaires were distributed to the participants, 194 of questionnaires were returned, and 184 of these questionnaires were used in the analysis. The study covered three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and avoidant. Bass (1999) stated that transactional leadership can be defined as a traditional leadership style in which the leader-follower relation is based on self-interests. Transformational leadership refers to followers' going beyond their self-interest and showing high personal identification with their employer since there is a shared vision between both parties (Hater and Bass, 1988). Lastly, Bass (1999) described avoidant leaders as people who do not take the lead until a problem emerges, and take no precaution beforehand. The results showed that both transactional and transformational leadership styles have a positive impact on employees' affective commitment. Besides, transformational leadership has also an impact on normative commitment of employees, and continuance commitment was found to be influenced by only transactional leadership. Finally, avoidant leadership style was reported having a negative impact on employees' affective commitment.

Similarly, Aghashahi, Davarpanah, Omar, and Sarli (2013) examined the effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles on the three components of Organizational Commitment. The sample was consisting of 300 employees from a call center located in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The results indicated that affective and

normative commitment were predicted by only transformational leadership style. Any of the commitment components were predicted by transactional leadership.

Wang (2018) also studied the effect of leadership styles on organizational commitment by dividing leadership styles into two different sub-groups, which are regular and caring. The regular leader was defined as a leader concentrating only on work tasks and production, whereas the caring leader was defined as a leader who concerns about employees' needs. According to the results, employees' affective and continuance commitment were positively influenced by caring leader style; however, the normative commitment of the employees was found insignificant. Moreover, it was found out that people feel less affectively and normatively attached to their companies if the leader holds a regular approach.

Servant leadership can be an example of one of the positive leadership styles. In his book, Greenleaf (1977) defined servant leader who focusses on his/her followers' needs and gives priority to them rather than him/herself. In their article, Ramli and Desa (2014) also examined the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment. In doing so, 200 Malaysian employees were taken as a sample, and the employees' organizational commitment level was measured as a whole. The results of the study, in which the subcomponents of organizational commitment were not analyzed, revealed that servant leadership was a strong predictor of employees' organizational commitment.

When it comes to toxic leadership, in most general sense, it can be identified as a negative leadership style, with "poisonous effects". Pelletier (2010) identified some behaviors of leaders towards their employees as toxic such as disenfranchising, marginalizing, ignoring ideas, emotional volatility, harassment, blaming others for self mistakes, mocking, lying, treating employees job security, isolating out-group members, and pitting group members. Akça (2017) investigated the effect of toxic leadership on intent of employees to leave. For the study, 300 questionnaires were distributed to participants, and 282 of them were used in the analysis process as valid ones. Firstly, the correlation between toxic leadership and intention to leave was examined. There was a moderate positive correlation between the variables. Furthermore, the regression analysis showed that toxic leadership style explained 42% of intention to leave of employees.

In light of the above-mentioned studies, the following hypothesis is generated:

H1: Organizational commitment level of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control.

There is a lack of studies in the literature that tests the relationship between Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control theory, and the concept of self-esteem. Therefore, in this part of the literature review, leadership styles and their effects on employees, and parenting styles and their impacts on children will be reviewed to predict how analogically the relationship between employees and employers take shape.

Hughes and Palmer (2007) who have worked on the concept of organization-based self-esteem, argue that there are three significant antecedents: managerial respect, organizational structure, and job complexity. They found out that the more the employees experience job complexity and participatory management, the higher their organizational based self-esteem was. Clearly identified role expectations were also increasing the employees' organizational based self-esteem.

Self-esteem of an employee can be affected by his/her colleagues' or supervisor's evaluations and acceptance. Thompson (1971) figured out that employees with low self-esteem are satisfied with supportive or traditional supervision style, but not with the nonsupportive one, whereas employees with high self-esteem can only be satisfied with supportive supervision. In his study, Uçar (2009) stated that people make evaluation regarding their organization, in relation to whether they are worthy, accepted, approved, capable, and significant as a member of the organization. Some people feel that they are not beneficial, capable, and worthy for their organization. All of the above tells us that having a high or low organizational-based self-esteem may cause some organizational attitudes and behaviors. For example, Korman (1970) figured out that people who have higher self-esteem perform better in their job and have more positive attitudes towards their jobs compared to those with lower self-esteem.

Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, and Alarcon (2010) found out in their meta-analysis that organization-based self-esteem is positively correlated with attitudes

and behaviors such as job satisfaction, job involvement, in-role job performance, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior.

Rafiee and Mohammadi (2012) performed an empirical study to show how subordinates' self-esteem is affected by leadership styles. The study was conducted in Iran among 150 regular employees and 80 managers. Four groups of leadership styles, autocratic-exploitation, autocratic-charity, participative, and management consulting, were examined to see their effects on subordinates' self-esteem. The study results reported that autocratic-charity was negatively correlated with employees' self-esteem, which means the more leaders behave autocratically, the lower self-esteem employees have. Another consequence of the study indicated that participative leadership was positively correlated with employees' self-esteem. If leaders let their workers to participate in management, the self-esteem of the workers were higher. Other variables were not found correlated with self-esteem.

Ngussa and Mengo (2017) made a research on similar topic, and worked on correlation between leadership styles and employees' self-esteem, in Tanzania. The researchers divided leadership styles into four groups: transformational leadership style, autocratic leadership style, Laissez-Faire leadership style, and democratic leadership style. The study was conducted in colleges, with the participation of 125 teaching staff. According to results, only transformational leadership style and self-esteem of the employees were found positively correlated, which suggests that transformational leadership style can be executed by supervisors in higher education institutions, in order to contribute to their workers' self-esteem.

Afzal, Waqas, Farooq, and Hussain (2016) made a contribution to the literature with their study on the impact of transformational leadership style on nurses' self-esteem, in Pakistan. The sample included 200 nurses from two public hospitals located in Pakistan. The results of the study showed that transformational leadership style has a positive and significant effect on nurses' self-esteem, which also suggests health sector authorities to give higher importance to raise transformational leaders to ensure an efficient, productive and a peaceful working environment, which will lead to satisfied healthcare workers, and accordingly patients.

The literature also covers the parenting styles and their effects on children. It is obvious that people expect parenting styles will be highly associated with a person's self-esteem in different realms of life such as relationships, school, and even workplace.

Khan, Tufail, and Hussain (2014) employed a study examining the effect of parenting styles and self-esteem on academic achievement of postgraduate students. 150 Pakistani students participated in the study. According to results, academic success and unsuccess of the students were not predicted by self-esteem statistically. However, the authoritarian parenting style was found significant in students' academic achievement.

The relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' self-esteem was investigated by Aremu, John-Akinola, and Desmennu (2018). Parental Authority Questionnaire and Rosenbergs' Self-esteem Scale were applied to a sample consisting of 504 Nigerian participants. According to the result of the Pearson correlation coefficient test, a positive correlation was found between flexible parenting style and adolescents' self-esteem. The regression test showed that perceived parenting styles predicted the self-esteem levels of the adolescents in the study.

In light of the above-mentioned studies, the following hypothesis is also generated:

H2: Self-esteem of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control.

As stated previously for other variables in this study, job strain has not been studied yet either, with Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control. Therefore, the impacts of leader styles on workers' job strain level will be illustrated in this part of the literature to estimate how the relation between Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control, and job strain can be.

Kim and Jung (2019) studied the mediating role of job strain in the framework of transformational leadership and safety behavior. The researchers also evaluated the employees' self-efficacy regarding safety, which moderates the relationship between job strain and safety behavior. The model contained a mediator and a moderator. 997 South

Korean employees were taken as a sample. The results showed that employees' job strain mediated and explained the transformational leadership and safety behavior link. It was also found out that employees' self-efficacy regarding safety moderated the association between job strain and safety behavior.

George, Chiba, and Scheepers (2017), in their study, looked for the impact of leadership style on stress-related presenteeism in South Africa. Their main assumption was that leadership styles influence workers' stress-related presenteeism. Three leadership styles, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire, were taken as the independent variables of the study. 242 participants from 12 different industries took place in the study. The analysis showed that transformational and transactional leadership styles had a negative correlation with stress-related presenteeism, whereas the laissez-faire leadership style had no correlation.

Ebrahimzade, Mooghali, Lankarani, and Sadati (2015) examined the relationship between nurse managers' leadership styles and nurses' job burnout in Iran. Leadership styles divided into three categories: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. The study was conducted with 207 nurses working at a hospital in Shiraz. A burnout scale and a multifactor leadership scale were used for measurements. The results indicated that both transformational and transactional leadership styles were significant on nurses' burnout. However, the laissez-faire leadership style was not found significant, which means that a combination of transactional and transformational leadership can reduce employees' burnout level.

Transformational leadership have stayed on the agenda for a very long time. Researchers worked with the concept as a whole in general. However, in their study, Franke and Felfe (2011) examined the relationship between the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership and their effects on employees' job strain. Transformational leadership's four sub-dimensions are: idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. The moderating effect of affective commitment was also added to the study in which 201 participants from a manufacturing company in Hamburg were analyzed. According to the results, it was figured out that strain was explained by individualized consideration and idealized influence, whereas

inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation did not contribute to the strain. It was also found that the relationship between strain, and individualized consideration and idealized influence was moderated by affective commitment.

In light of the above mentioned studies, the following hypothesis is generated:

H3: Job strain of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control.



3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 SAMPLE

The cross-sectional study design was used in the current study. A convenience-based sample of 305 employees working at private sector responded to our questionnaire. The ages of the respondents ranged between 20 and 59 with a mean of 35.56. The respondents were 183 women (60%) and 122 men (40%). The educational background of the sample was: 0.3% primary school graduate, 11.8% high school graduate, 50.8% university graduate, 37% held master's or doctoral degrees. There were 196 (64.3%) married, 74 (24.3%) single, and 35 (11.5%) partnered participants. 39 (12.8%) participants were working at a company where the numbers of the employees ranged from 1-50. 26 (8.5%) participants were working at a company where the numbers of the employees ranged from 51-150, and 240 (78.7) participants were working at a company where the numbers of the employees were above 150.

The current study includes different sectors including Business and Management, Information Technologies, Education, Energy, Automotive, Textile, Transportation, Logistics and Communications, Health and Social Services, Tourism, Food, Finance. Other sectors section was added.

The details related to gender, education, marital status, sector, department, position, and the total number of workers employed by the organization are presented in Table 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9.

Table 1 : Gender Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Female	183	60	60
Male	122	40	40
Total	305	100	100

Table 2 : Education Level Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Primary School	1	0.3	0.3
High School	36	11.8	11.8
University	155	50.8	50.8
Master's or Doctoral Degree	113	37	37
Total	305	100	100

Table 3 : Marital Status Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Married	196	64.3	64.3
Single	74	24.3	24.3
Partnered	35	11.5	11.5
Total	305	100	100

Table 4 : Sector Distribution of the Sample

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Business and Management	13	4.3	4.3
IT	19	6.2	6.2
Education	77	25.2	25.2
Energy	8	2.6	2.6
Automotive	10	3.3	3.3
Textile	2	0.7	0.7
Transportation, Logistic and Communications	8	2.6	2.6
Health and Social Services	12	3.9	3.9
Tourism	21	6.9	6.9
Food	25	8.2	8.2
Finance	28	9.2	9.2
Other	82	26.9	26.9
Total	305	100	100

Table 5 : Department Distribution of the Sample

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Law	3	1	1
Training / HR	121	39.7	39.7
Import / Export and Logistics	6	2	2
Corporate Communication	9	3	3
Financial Affairs	17	5.6	5.6
Marketing / Consumer Communication	24	7.9	7.9
Purchasing/Supplying	7	2.3	2.3
Sales	32	10.5	10.5
Strategy	6	2	2
Production / R&D	20	6.6	6.6
Other	60	19.7	19.7
Total	305	100	100

Table 6 : Job Position Distribution of the Sample

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Officer	16	5.2	5.2
Director/Manager	81	26.6	26.6
Engineer	14	4.6	4.6
Responsible	37	12.1	12.1
Specialist	87	28.5	28.5
Assistant Specialist	9	3	3
Other	62	20	20
Total	305	100	100

Table 7 : The Distribution of the Number of Workers Employed by the Organization

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
1-50	39	12.8	12.8
51-150	26	8.5	8.5
150+	240	78.7	78.7
Total	305	100	100

Table 8 : The Employees' Satisfaction from their Job Position

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	6	2	2
Dissatisfied	10	3.3	3.3
Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	66	21.6	21.6
Satisfied	152	49.8	49.8
Very Satisfied	71	23.3	23.3
Total	305	100	100

Table 9 : Satisfaction Distribution of the Employees related to Their Manager

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Very Dissatisfied	31	10.2	10.2
Dissatisfied	25	8.2	8.2
Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	59	19.3	19.3
Satisfied	110	36.1	36.1
Very Satisfied	80	26.2	26.2
Total	305	100	100

3.2 SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire used in the current study included five parts. In the first part, the demographic questions given above were asked to the participants. In the second part, the scales were given to the participants that were the measures of:

*Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control,

*Organizational Commitment,

*Self-Esteem,

*Job Strain.

Rohner, Saavedra, and Granum (1978) developed the Parental Acceptance-Rejection scale. Scale included four dimensions, which are Warmth-Affection (20 items), Hostility-Aggression (15 items), Indifference-Neglect (15 items), and Undifferentiated Rejection (10 items). Control dimension with 13 items was added later, in 1997. In his study, Rohner (2001) found out that the Questionnaire was both reliable and valid. The Turkish standardization of the scale was conducted by Varan (2003). Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control scale was adapted to Manager Acceptance-Rejection/Control scale by replacing the statements' subjects (mother and father) with manager. Manager version of this scale is used for the first time in the Turkish sample for this study. Sample items include: "My manager says nice things about me," "My manager nags or scolds me when I do something wrong," "My manager pays no attention to me," "My manager does not really like me," and "My manager sees to it that I know exactly what I may or may not do." There were 11 reverse items (numbers 8, 17, 23, 26, 32, 35, 41, 44, 53, 54, and 62; See Appendix 1). The responses were given on a 4-point itemized rating scale, which ranges from "Almost Always True" (1) to "Almost Never True" (4).

Organizational Commitment scale was developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). The Turkish standardization of the Organizational Commitment scale was conducted by Wasti (2000). The scale included 25 items which were divided into three groups: affective, continuance, and normative. Sample items contain: "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me", "I do not want to leave this organization due to the fact that I feel an obligation to the people here", and "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire". The 5-point itemized rating scale was used, which ranges from "Not at all true" (1) to "Entirely True" (5).

Rosenberg (1965) developed the Self-Esteem scale and applied it to the high-school students in the United States. Çulhadaroğlu (1986) conducted the Turkish standardization of the Self-Esteem scale. In the current study, Turkish version of the scale was used. The scale consisted of 10 items, and sample items include: “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself,” and “I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.” The responses were given on a 5-point itemized rating scale, which ranges from “Strongly Disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree” (5).

In their study, Revicki, May, and Whitley (1991) developed a scale to understand and analyse job strain. Aslan, Gürkan, Girginer, and Ünal (1996) studied on Turkish sample and figured out that scale that was adapted by them is reliable and valid. In this study, the approved scale was used to measure Job Strain. There was only one reverse item (number 8; See Appendix 1). Job Strain scale covers 18 items, and sample items include: “It seems like I cannot get the recognition that I deserve,” “I rarely daydream at work,” and “My preoccupation with work makes it hard to disengage from the job at home.” The 5-point itemized rating scale was used, which ranges from “Strongly Disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree” (5).

3.3 PROCEDURE

The questionnaire began with an informative cover letter to make sure that participants were informed about the details such as the aim, owner, and duration of the questionnaire. The time needed to complete the questionnaire was 17 minutes on average. In the study, the Internet-based questionnaire was used and sent to the participants by e-mail. Participants were assured that the output of the study would only be used for scientific purposes. Thus, they were asked to be sincere and comfortable when answering questions in order that the study can reach accurate results.

4. FINDINGS

This part of the study includes the results of the statistical analyses.

4.1 FACTOR ANALYSIS AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES OF THE SCALES

4.1.1 Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control

In the first part of the factor analysis, the items were first grouped into 21 clusters, as in Rohner's (1999) study. Every cluster covered three or four items, and sum of these items was evaluated in the factor analysis.

The first cluster (Acceptance) included ten items. Factor loadings of these ten items were changing between -0.907 and 0.758. The second cluster (Rejection) covered seven items, and factor loadings of these items changed between 0.805 and 0.601. The third factor (Control) included four items, and factor loadings ranged between 0.865 and 0.783.

To check consistency, Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha scores emerged. Results showed different scores (0.978, 0.940, 0.937, 0.912, and 0.862) for the five sub-factors, respectively, which are Warmth-Affection, Hostility-Aggression, Indifference-Neglect, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Control.

At the end of the analysis, three factors were yielded. For the three-factor solution, results indicated that KMO: 0.968; Bartlett's Test χ^2 : 8048,611; df: 210, and p:0.000.

The results for factor analysis and reliability test for Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control are presented in table 10.

Table 10 : Factor Analysis Results of Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control

Cluster	Acceptance	Rejection	Control
2	-.907	-.275	-.042
5	-.901	-.260	-.039
1	-.889	-.327	-.072
3	-.885	-.301	-.110
4	-.861	-.340	-.141
10	.848	.307	.074
13	.847	.277	.066
12	.838	.319	.028
11	.829	.321	.077
14	.758	.292	.141
8	.285	.805	.329
7	.404	.804	.269
6	.424	.789	.249
16	.441	.761	.216
9	.384	.751	.255
17	.522	.674	.365
15	.543	.651	.255
19	.057	.195	.865
18	-.115	.092	.818
21	.169	.381	.805
20	.212	.331	.783

The adopted version of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control scale by Varan (2003), which has 73 items, was used in the study. Original scale covered three dimensions. In line with Varan (2003) and Bilen (2014), the same three dimensions were yielded in the current study.

4.1.2 Organizational Commitment

After applying factor analysis, three factors were found in the organizational commitment scale. Three items needed to be excluded from the analysis as these three items had close values under different factors. The first factor covered seven items. Factor loadings of the primary factor ranged between 0.850 and 0.635. The second factor included five items, and factor loadings were changing between 0.828 and 0.664. The last factor covered three items. Factor loadings of these three items were varying between 0.834 and 0.552. Reliability tests were applied after factor analysis, and results showed several scores (0.930, 0.903, and 0.624) for the three factors, respectively. For the last factor, one item needed to be excluded from the analysis (item 17) to increase Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha value to 0.722. For the three-factor solution, results indicated that KMO: 0.932; Bartlett's Test χ^2 :3348,704; df: 91, and p:0.000. The results for factor analysis and reliability test for Organizational Commitment are presented in table 11.

Table 11 : Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Commitment

Factor Name	Item Numbers	Factor Loadings	Cronbach Alpha	Variance Explained
Affective Commitment	5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.850	0.930	34.289
	4. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	0.846		
	6. I feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to this organization.	0.841		
	3. I feel like 'part of the family' in this organization.	0.785		
	7. One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organization is that I think I have	0.685		

	obligations to remain in this organization.			
	1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	0.674		
	2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	0.635		
Normative Commitment	9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	0.828	0.903	27.383
	11. I do not want to leave this organization due to the fact that I feel an obligation to the people here.	0.802		
	8. Even if I get a job offer from another company, I do not feel it would be right to leave this organization now.	0.779		
	13. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	0.728		
	10. This organization deserves my loyalty.	0.664		
Continuance Commitment	15. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.878	0.722	12.998
	16. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	0.847		
			Total	74.669
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.932 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 3348.704 df = 91 Sig. = 0.00				

In the research of Organizational Commitment level of the participants, Wasti's (2000) Organizational Commitment scale was employed. In Wasti's (2000) paper, scale has three sub-dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Along similar lines, the organizational commitment scale which was used in this study covered the same three sub-dimensions.

4.1.3 Self Esteem

Factor analysis was applied for Self-Esteem scale, and two factors were found. Only one item was excluded from the analysis because it had close values under both the first factor and second factor. The first factor included six items, and factor loadings were ranged between 0.836 and 0.710. The second factor covered three items. Factor loadings of these three items were changing between 0.834 and 0.634. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha value for the first factor was 0.904, and it was 0.718 for the second factor. Results indicated that KMO: 0.883; Bartlett's Test χ^2 :1487,413; df: 36, and p:0.000. The results for factor analysis and reliability test for Self-Esteem are presented in table 12.

Table 12 : Factor Analysis Results of Self Esteem

Factor Name	Item Numbers	Factor Loadings	Cronbach Alpha	Variance Explained
Self-Acceptance	6. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	0.836	0.904	43.379
	7. Generally, I think that my deeds and I myself have an important value.	0.804		
	9. Generally, I see myself as a competent person.	0.802		
	8. The respect I have for myself is quite high.	0.775		
	10. Generally, I likely see myself as a successful person.	0.771		
	5. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	0.710		

Self-Worth	1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	0.834	0.718	24.205
	2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	0.806		
	3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	0.634		
Total				67.584
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.883				
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 1487.413				
df = 36				
Sig. = 0.00				

The self-esteem scale of Çulhadaroğlu's (1986) was applied in the study successfully with two factors as in original, as a further contribution to the literature.

4.1.4 Job Strain

As a first step, factor analysis was implemented, and four factors were found in the Job Strain scale. Item 18 was excluded from the analysis according to the rule that one item cannot stay alone under a factor. Furthermore, two items needed to be excluded from the analysis because of that their factor loadings were close under different factors (item 5 and 11). Item 7 was eliminated since its factor loading was lower than 0.50. The first factor covered seven items, and its factors loadings were ranged between 0.834 and 0.514. The second factor included four items, and factor loadings of these four items were changing between 0.753 and 0.632. The last factor was consisting of 3 items. Factor loadings of the last factor ranged between 0.826 and 0.588. Reliability test followed factor analysis; however, item 8 was a reverse item, so it needed to be converted before the reliability test was implemented. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha value for the first factor was 0.862. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha value for the second factor was 0.704. Factor 3 had a value under 0.70; however, it was involved in the study (0.625). Results showed

that KMO: 0.871; Bartlett's Test χ^2 :1582,615; df: 91, and p:0.000. The results for factor analysis and reliability test for Job Strain are presented in table 13.

Table 13 : Factor Analysis Results of Job Strain

Factor Name	Item Numbers	Factor Loadings	Cronbach Alpha	Variance Explained
Recognition	6. It seems like I cannot get the recognition that I deserve.	0.834	0.862	25.433
	2. My initial job expectations are being realized.	0.786		
	13. I often feel that others are out to take advantage of me.	0.689		
	17. Support for my contribution at work has been consistently lacking.	0.635		
	3. I am edgier than I used to be.	0.632		
	8. Colleagues at work do contribute their fair.	-0.623		
	10. My responsibilities are much different than I had anticipated.	0.514		
Perception of Productivity	4. I am still the contributor I used to be.	0.753	0.704	17.610
	16. I am working harder but getting less done.	0.752		
	15. I rarely daydream at work.	0.667		
	9. My productivity has increased.	0.632		
Work-Family Balance	12. My preoccupation with work makes it hard to disengage from the job at home.	0.840	0.625	14.581
	14. Arguments at home with those close to me have increased recently.	0.675		

	1. Work interferes with family life.	0.589		
Total				57.624
Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.871				
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 1582.615				
df = 91				
Sig. = 0.00				

Aslan, Gürkan, Girginer, and Ünal's (1996) scale was used to measure the employees' job strain level. Job strain items were loaded into three groups, which were the same with the original version of the scale developed by Revicki, May, and Whitley (1991).

4.2 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

The level of relations between the main variables of the current study was evaluated via Pearson Correlation Test. Factor analysis and reliability analysis proved that further statistical analysis could be applied since the total explained variance and reliability values were adequate to continue. In his paper, Köse (2008) categorized the power of correlation coefficient as follows:

0.00-0.29: Weak correlation

0.30-0.69: Moderate correlation

More than 0.70: Strong correlation.

In this study, correlation findings were reported according to Köse's categorization. The correlations related to all factors of the current study indicated as follows in Table 14:

Table 14: Correlation Analysis Findings of All Variables of the Current Study

Correlations								
	W/A	H/A	I/N	U/R	Control	OC	SE	JS
W/A	1	-.675**	-.915**	-.752**	-.262**	.505**	.083	-.574**
H/A		1	.679**	.919**	.575**	-.302**	-.142*	.547**
I/N			1	.773**	.269**	-.525**	-.101	.617**
U/R				1	.561**	-.351**	-.134*	.569**
Control					1	-.041	-.021	.299**

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) **

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) *

Normality was checked before the regression analysis was made. Kurtosis value was evaluated to conclude if the data were distributed normally or not. Kurtosis value was between ± 2.0 . In their book, George and Mallery (2010) stated that a kurtosis value between ± 1.0 is considered excellent; however, a value between ± 2.0 is in many cases also acceptable. Therefore, the data was accepted as normally distributed.

4.3 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FINDINGS

The first multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the impact of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control on Organizational Commitment. This study hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Organizational Commitment.

Table 15: Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Organizational Commitment

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.525(a)	.275	.273	10.03178
2	.535(b)	.286	.281	9.97332
a. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect				
b. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect, Control				

Table 16: Summary Results of Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Organizational Commitment

Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment			
Model	Beta	t value	P-value
1 (Constant)		36.957	.000
Indifference Neglect	-.525	-10.724	.000
2 (Constant)		23.440	.000
Indifference Neglect	-.554	-10.963	.000
Control	.108	2.136	.033

According to the results (Table 16), two models emerged. In the first model, Indifference Neglect was found significant ($\beta = -0.525$, $p < 0.05$). In the second step of the analysis, the variable Control contributed to the model. Moreover, Indifference Neglect is the strongest predictor of Organizational Commitment ($\beta = -0.554$). Table 15 shows that The R square is .275 means Indifference Neglect explains 27.5% of the variance in Organizational Commitment among participants; however, it reaches to 28.6% when the Control appears in the model. The other independent variables, Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, and Undifferentiated Rejection, were found insignificant. In their study, Falk and Miller (1992) stated that this ratio is sufficient to declare that there is a moderate relationship between variables. From the findings it can be concluded that if employees feel neglected by their managers, their organizational commitment level will decrease. On the contrary (and surprisingly), the more employees feel controlled by their managers, the higher their organizational commitment level are.

The second multiple regression analysis was employed to examine the impact of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control on Self Esteem. The second hypothesis was that there is a significant relationship between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Self Esteem.

Table 17: Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Self-Esteem

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.142(a)	.020	.017	4.90743
a. Predictors: (Constant), Hostility/Aggression				

Table 18: Summary Results of Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Self-Esteem

Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem			
Model	Beta	t value	P-value
1 (Constant)		51.267	.000
Hostility/Aggression	-.142	-2.493	.013

Table 18 illustrates that only Hostility/Aggression dimension affects the self-esteem of employees ($\beta = -0,142$, $p < 0,05$). All other variables were found insignificant since their p values were greater than .05. In addition to this, table 17 revealed that only 2% of Self Esteem could be explained by Hostility/Aggression. It can be inferred that the workers' Organizational-Self Esteem decreases if they perceive Hostility/Aggression by their employers.

The last multiple regression analysis was performed to explore the impact of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control on Job Strain. Another hypothesis related to the study was that there is a relationship between Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control on Job Strain.

Table 19: Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Job Strain

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.617(a)	.380	.378	7.47374
2	.641(b)	.411	.407	7.29948
a. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect				
b. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect, Hostility/Aggression				

Table 20: Summary Results of Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Job Strain

Dependent Variable: Job Strain			
Model	Beta	t value	P-value
1 (Constant)		14.532	.000
Indifference Neglect	.617	13.636	.000
2 (Constant)		12.871	.000
Indifference Neglect	.455	7.573	.000
Hostility/Aggression	.238	3.955	.000

In light of the above findings, Table 19 clarifies that two models appeared at the end of the multiple regression analysis. The first model stated that only Indifference Neglect has an impact on Job Strain level of the participants ($\beta = 0.617$, $p < 0.05$). The second model discovered that not only Indifference Neglect affected Job Strain but also Hostility/Aggression dimension had a little contribution to Job Strain. According to Table 19, it is inferred that Indifference Neglect can explain 38% of Job Strain, and it rises to 41.1% when Hostility/Aggression is added to the model. The other variables related to the MA-R and Control have no significant effect on Job Strain level since their p values were more than 0.05. Results indicate that workers' job strain increases if they percept hostility or neglect by their employers.

In the first part of the analysis, Organizational Commitment was evaluated entirely. The following section will investigate its subdivisions, which are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Table 21: Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Affective Commitment

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.524(a)	.275	.272	6.20648
a. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect				

Table 22: Summary Results of Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings Between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Affective Commitment

Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment			
Model	Beta	t value	P-value
1 (Constant)		34.033	.000
Indifference Neglect	-.524	-10.718	.000

According to Table 22, Indifference Neglect was found significant in explaining Affective Commitment level of the participants. The Affective Commitment level of the employees can not be explained by all other independent variables of the current study. Table 21 states that Indifference Neglect can explain 27.58% of the Affective Commitment level of the participants. It means that if workers feel neglected by their supervisor, the workers do not feel attached to their organizations from the heart.

Continuance Commitment is another element of Organizational Commitment. This step of multiple regression measured the effect of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control on Continuance commitment.

Table 23: Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Continuance Commitment

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.244(a)	.059	.056	2.12491
a. Predictors: (Constant), Undifferentiated Rejection				

Table 24: Summary Results of Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Continuance Commitment

Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment			
Model	Beta	t value	P-value
1 (Constant)		11.678	.000
Undifferentiated Rejection	.244	4.377	.000

In consequence of multiple regression, it was figured out that only Undifferentiated Rejection was found significant ($\beta = .244$, $p < 0.05$). Table 23 showed that Undifferentiated Rejection can explain 5.9% of Continuance Commitment of the participants. It means that even if employees do not feel an aggression from their managers, they do not feel any positive attitudes either. As a result of this, their level of continuance commitment, which is a somewhat an obligatory commitment derived from the fear of losing the benefits or advantages obtained thanks to the job, towards their organization increases.

All other independent variables, including Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control, were found insignificant in explaining the Continuance Commitment level of the participants.

The last element of the Organizational Commitment is Normative Commitment. Below, multiple regression was implemented to discover which indicators affect Normative Commitment.

Table 25: Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Normative Commitment

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.522(a)	.272	.270	4.70471
2	.533(b)	.284	.279	4.67612
a. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect				
b. Predictors: (Constant), Indifference Neglect, Control				

Table 26: Summary Results of Coefficients of Multiple Regression Analysis Findings between Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control, and Normative Commitment

Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment			
Model	Beta	t value	P-value
1 (Constant)		29.328	.000
Indifference Neglect	-.522	-10.650	.000
2 (Constant)		18.253	.000
Indifference Neglect	-.551	-10.905	.000
Control	.110	2.172	.031

According to Table 26, it is obvious to conclude that Indifference Neglect is the only indicator that has a contributory impact on model 1. Indifference Neglect explains 27.2% of the variance in Normative Commitment. Model 2 clarifies that Control also has an effect in explaining Normative Commitment. With the contribution of variable Control, the explanatory power of the model reached 28.4%. The more Indifference Neglect workers perceive, the less normative commitment they feel towards their organizations. On the other hand, their normative commitment level increases if they feel controlled by their managers.

4.4 INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST

In this section, independent sample T-test is employed to see the differences of Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control between two genders, there are two sub-groups: male and female. To see the differences between the groups, independent T-test was implemented. Before implementing T-test, variances of groups' equalities were tested via Levene's test.

Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control scores were compared to explore if they differ according to gender or not. Table 21 shows the results below:

Table 27 : Independent Samples t-test Results of Gender for Study Variables

Research Variables	Gender						95% CI for Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>
	Female			Male						
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>				
Manager Control	2.27	.635	183	2.44	.542	122	-.309 -.033	-2.451	.015	303

n = 305

Male and Female groups differed only in Manager Control scores $t(303) = -2.451, p = .015$. Males ($M = 2.44, SD = .542$) reported being controlled by their employers significantly more than Females ($M = 2.27, SD = .635$). Manager Acceptance and Manager Rejection scores were not presented in Table 21 because the means of males and females did not differ.

4.5 NON-PARAMETRIC ONE-WAY ANOVA

Non-Parametric One-Way ANOVA Tests were conducted as some groups had less than 30 participants. Kruskal-Wallis Tests were employed to explore the differences of Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control among groups.

Education level was the first variable that was examined to see whether people's perception of Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control differed according to their educational level or not.

Table 28: Non-Parametric One-Way ANOVA Test Results of Education Level for Study Variables

Educational Level	n	Manager Acceptance	Manager Rejection	Manager Control
		Kruskal - Wallis	Kruskal – Wallis	Kruskal – Wallis
		Mean Rank	Mean Rank	Mean Rank
High School	36	175.19	150.61	217.38
University	155	154.11	154.19	146.88
Master's or Doctoral Degree	113	143.06	150.79	139.54
H		3.768	0.117	22.733
p		0.152	0.943	0.000

Kruskal-Wallis test results indicated that Manager Control ($H(2) = 22.733$, $p = .000$) was significantly different between the group mean ranks of the participants' education levels. Kruskal-Wallis tests aim to show that if groups differ significantly from one another or not. To obtain more detail about what the differences are, Post Hoc test (Tamhane's T2) was needed. Post Hoc test results showed that High School graduates perceive more control on themselves by their managers, than the employees holding a University, Masters or Doctoral Degree.

Kruskal-Wallis tests also were conducted to see the differences of Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control among the marital status, sector,

department, position, and the total number of workers employed by the organization. No significant difference was found among all of these variables.

4.6 ONE-WAY MANOVA

The one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) was performed to understand whether there are any difference between the independent groups on more than one dependent variable. All the dependent variables, including Organizational Commitment, Self-Esteem, and Job strain divided into three categories by using Rank Cases option in SPSS. To illustrate an example, participants' Organizational Commitment level was divided into three categories, which helped us to see highly committed, moderate committed, and low committed people. This implementation was done also for both Self-Esteem and Job Strain. All of these three dependent variables were differentiated significantly according to the results of ANOVA tests that were performed to see if these groups were differentiated significantly or not.

Table 29: Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Commitment Groups and Their Differences on MAR-C

	Low Committed (1) N=100	High Committed (3) N=98	F(5, 192)	Comparisons	Sig
MAR-C					
W/A	55.32	73.37	92.055***	1<3	.000
H/A	26.85	21.98	12.507***	3<1	.001
I/N	34.53	22.34	94.835***	3<1	.000
U/R	19.05	14.51	22.361***	3<1	.000
Control	30.79	30.83	0.002		.967
Total	125.11	85.46	62.197***	3<1	.000

*** $p \leq .001$

According to table 29, there is a statistically significant difference in perceived MAR-C based on employees' commitment level, $F(5, 192)=25.503$. It can be concluded that low committed employees comprehend higher warmth/affection by their managers than the high committed employees do. Moreover, workers who have high commitment to their organizations perceive more hostility/aggression, indifference neglect, and undifferentiated rejection by their managers than the low committed workers do. Control was found insignificant between the groups.

Table 30: Descriptive Statistics of Self-Esteem Groups and their differences on MAR-C

	Low Self-Esteem (1) N=112	High Self-Esteem (3) N=104	F(5, 210)	Comparisons	Sig
MAR-C					
W/A	62.29	65.34	1.943		.165
H/A	25.75	22.56	6.685*	3<1	.010
I/N	29.83	27.26	3.188		.076
U/R	17.73	15.51	5.705*	3<1	.018
Control	30.24	30.01	0.041		.839
Total	111.03	100	4.308*	3<1	.039

* $p<.05$

Table 30 reveals a significant multivariate main effect for MAR-C (Low Self-Esteem vs High Self-Esteem), $F(5, 210)= 2.150$, and $p <.05$. It was found out that employees who have low self-esteem perceive more hostility/aggression and undifferentiated rejection than employees who have high self-esteem. Warmth/affection, indifference neglect, and control variables were found insignificant so that the groups were not differentiated in terms of MAR-C.

Table 31: Descriptive Statistics of Job Strain Groups and Their Differences on MAR-C

	Low Job Strain (1) N=94	High Job Strain (3) N=107	F(5, 195)	Comparisons	Sig
MAR-C					
W/A	73.61	53.30	115.688***	3<1	.000
H/A	18.62	30.08	95.149***	1<3	.000
I/N	21.24	35.81	154.519***	1<3	.000
U/R	12.58	20.99	92.771***	1<3	.000
Control	27.20	32.86	28.818***	1<3	.000
Total	78.84	133.57	147.299***	1<3	.000

*** $p \leq .001$

According to table 31, it is clear that there is a statistically significant difference in perceived MAR-C in respect to job strain level of workers, $F(5, 195) = 36.310$ and $p \leq .001$. It means that employees who have low job strain level perceive more warmth/affection when it is compared with those who have high strain level. On the contrary, workers who have high job strain level comprehend more hostility/aggression, indifference neglect, undifferentiated rejection, and control by their employers than those who have low job strain level.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study's results were analyzed via SPSS version 20 program. As stated in the previous section in the study, the results of the hypothesis and beta values are shown in table 23 and figure 3, respectively.

Table 32: Summary of the Hypotheses of the Study

	The Hypotheses of the Study	Findings
H1	Organizational Commitment level of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control.	Partially Supported
H2	Self-Esteem of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control.	Partially Supported
H3	Job Strain of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control.	Partially Supported

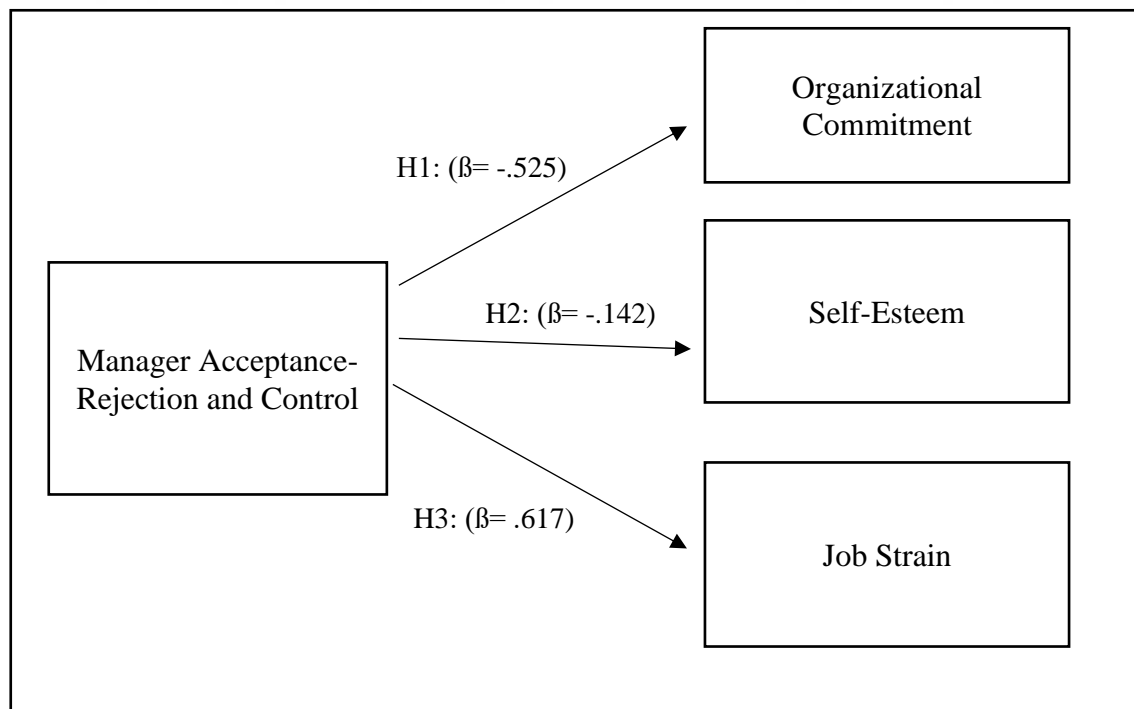


Figure 3: The Results of the Hypotheses.

5.2 DISCUSSION ON THE STUDY

The main goal of the current research is to examine the relationship between Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control and their impacts on employees' Organizational Commitment, Self-Esteem, and Job Strain. With the combination of the existing literature and the results of the current study, this section will include inferences and comments on the subject.

First of all, it is needed to be emphasized that the self-report surveys were utilized in the research before heading to main statistical findings and analyses. These self-report surveys were filled out by people who work in different sectors, have different titles and seniorities, etc. It provides a plus to the study since the study's results are needed to be generalized.

The minimum total score for a participant to get from Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control scale is 60 which refers to acceptance, whereas 240 is the maximum value that means participant feels totally rejected. 150 is considered an average value, which means that participant feels neither acceptance nor rejection. In a descriptive analysis of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control variable, the mean of participants was 106.13 in the study, which is shown in table 24 below.

Table 33 : Descriptive Analysis on Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control

Descriptive Analysis				
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Total	305	60	226	106.13
Valid N	305			

The table explains that people who participated in this study perceived more rejection since their average is 106.13. Bilen (2014) stated that the control dimension should be considered separately. The scores in the control scale are presented below:

13-26: Low Control

27-39: Moderate Control

40-45: Strict Control

46-52: Rigid Control.

The employees scored 30.44 in Control part on average, which means they perceive to be moderately controlled by their managers.

Independent sample T-test was employed to see the differences of Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control among only Gender variable since it was the only variable that participants could choose between only two options as man and woman. In terms of gender, it was only found significant in perceived Manager Control. Males ($M = 2.44$, $SD = .542$) stated they are more controlled by their managers when it is compared with Females ($M = 2.27$, $SD = .635$). As stated in the literature part, Rohner, Parmar, and Ibrahim (2010) studied perceived teacher control on students, and in their study it was also confirmed that the male students' level of perceived teacher control was higher than that of the female students.

Non-Parametric One-Way ANOVA Tests were used to see the differences of Manager Acceptance, Manager Rejection, and Manager Control among the education level, marital status, sector, department, position, and the total number of workers employed by the organization. A significant difference between the education level and perceived Manager Control was found in the current study. The employees who are High School graduates reported that they felt controlled by their managers more than the employees who hold a Masters or Doctoral degree. Any difference was not found among other variables on Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control. Since there has been no similar study in the literature yet, these findings of the study will contribute a new insight to the literature.

The first hypothesis related to the current study was that Organizational Commitment level of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control. According to results, 27.5% of Organizational Commitment was

explained by Indifference Neglect dimension of Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control. In a multiple analysis of Organizational Commitment, Indifference Neglect was strongest independent variable that predicts OC (27.5%). In the second Model, 28.6% of Organizational Commitment was explained by the combination of Indifference Neglect and Control dimensions of Manager Acceptance-Rejection and Control. Thus, the results supported H1 partially. Since the existing literature lacks studies related to Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control, the studies parallel to the issue were examined in this study to set the groundwork for the hypotheses. Park and Hae Seo (2016) studied the influence of leadership types on organizational performance and organizational commitment. The researchers analyzed the effect of Transactional and Transformational Leadership on Organizational Performance and Organizational Commitment. Their study also confirmed that both Transactional and Transformational Leadership were significant in explaining Organizational Commitment.

Even though they were not added to the study as hypotheses, the sub-dimensions of Organizational Commitment were analyzed to make the interpretations. Firstly, Affective Commitment was evaluated in terms of perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control. Indifference Neglect explains 27.6% of Affective Commitment. It can be concluded that if workers think that their managers neglects them, workers' affective commitment level decrease, whereas their affective commitment level increases when they perceive accepted by their managers. In their study, Çakınberk and Demirel (2010) argue these insights that the more people perceive a positive leadership style, the more they have affective commitment.

Secondly, Continuance Commitment was studied with Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control. The results indicated that only one model occurred in which Undifferentiated Rejection dimension of MA-R and Control predicted 5.9% of Continuance Commitment so that undifferentiated rejection was the only independent variable that was significant in the study. It is a reasonable result that employees who percept acceptance by their managers feel more Affective Commitment, instead of Continuance Commitment.

Lastly, the relationship between Normative Commitment and perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control were examined. As stated in the findings part, two models showed up. In the first model, 27.2% of Normative Commitment was explained by Indifference Neglect. The second model illustrated that Indifference Neglect and Control explain 28.4% of Normative Commitment together. Studies related to leadership styles and Organizational Commitment was also supported by the current findings by Clinebell et al. (2013) and Aghashahi et al. (2013).

The second hypothesis related to the current study was that self-esteem of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control. As stated in table 17, only Hostility/Aggression dimension of MA-R and Control was found significant on the Self-Esteem of employees. Hostility/Aggression explains 2% of Self-Esteem. Hence, the results supported H2 partially. It can be inferred that Self-Esteem is a highly deep and internal personality trait which is not easily shattered by external effects so that it is understandable to see a low rate here. If Organizational-Based Self Esteem was examined in the study, this ratio would be expected to be higher. Rafiee and Mohammadi's (2012) study also showed a similar result if employees perceive a negative leadership style by their supervisors; their self-esteem is affected negatively.

The last hypothesis related to the current study was that job strain of employees will be predicted by perceived manager acceptance-rejection and control. Table 19 clarifies that two models were emerged after multiple regression was applied. In the first model, Indifference Neglect dimension of MA-R and Control explains 38% of Job Strain. In the second model, explanation power increases to 41% when Hostility/Aggression dimension shows up in the model. Thereby, the results supported H3 partially. Since there is no direct study examined the relationship between perceived Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control and Job Strain, the close issues were investigated in the current study. George, Chiba, and Scheepers' (2017) paper also confirmed that if employees perceive negative attitudes from their managers, employees' stress level increases, which causes them to have reluctance to show up for work just because of their leaders' attitude.

All in all, all of the hypotheses generated for this study was supported partially. If an employee feels accepted, rejected, or controlled by his/her manager, the

organizational commitment level of the employee is affected. It is observed that if there is an acceptance or control, people feel committed to their organizations positively; however, if there is a rejection, employees' organizational commitment level decrease. It was logical to expect that if people feel controlled by their employers, they would have less commitment to their organizations; however, as it stated before people perceive moderate control in this study. Moreover, if an employee feels rejected by his/her manager, he/she starts to lose his/her self-esteem. Lastly, the more employees feel rejected by their managers, the more job strain they have.

5.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Many researchers study Organizational Commitment, Self-Esteem, and Job Strain; however, this paper is a pioneer study in Manager Acceptance, Rejection and Control concept in Turkey, so it highlights many points and has many assumptions that employers should consider. In the current study, the essential part was the perception of employees. Employees scored all surveys according to their own perceptions regarding themselves and their managers. As stated before, workers participated in the study perceived a moderate rejection by their manager on average. Hence, this paper tries to advise on managerial implications.

First of all, employees who hold managerial positions should be as empathetic as they can be. People work under challenging conditions such as working long hours, managing complex tasks and being expected to be multi skilled. These conditions increase the stress level of employees. Thus, managers should simplify their employees' jobs as possible as they can, rather than making things harder. Unfortunately, some managers think that their subordinates will take their place because of that these people restrict their employees' capacities and working spaces. This situation creates tension between employers and employees since their employees think they will never get what they deserve because of their employers, and they feel rejected. In his book, Burns (1999) stated that it is not easy to get along with others around us where emotions run high; however, it is possible. Firstly, managers need to be empathetic. According to Burns, most of the people do not want to hear advice, their will is only to be listened by a person;

in another saying, their desire is to be understood by others. A manager should be ready to listen to subordinates not only the problems they have but also good news about them.

Secondly, even though there is a fault in what employees do, it is crucial to remember that there is merit in every single move people make. If a manager found his subordinates' behaviors or actions false, using phrases such as "This is wrong" or "You could not succeed" lead employees to be felt rejected. To make them feel accepted, phrases such as "You had a great job, but you can toughen it with your efforts and insights" should be used. Nobody wants to hear how wrong he or she is acting.

Thirdly, questioning is playing an important role in the relationship between employers and employees. The managers should use a questioning method because our thoughts are determining how we act and how we feel. Therefore, the managers should direct their subordinates to think deeper by questioning them without bothering. This is a thin line because employees can believe their managers are questioning them or controlling them maliciously. The managers should strike a mild attitude towards their subordinates. That is to say, the managers should canalize their subordinates to think. If the employers follow this path, employees will feel more accepted.

Fourthly, the words managers use matter. The managers should use "I" statements rather than using "You" statements. You statements are inculpatory in general. In you statements, the listener is responsible, whereas I statements force us to take responsibility. The managers should try to tell how they feel without implying the action of employers. If a manager use more "I" statements, the workers will start to feel more accepted; however, the more "you statements" employers use, the more rejected employees will feel.

Lastly, praising is essential to provide a healthier relationship between the incumbents and their bosses. Everyone likes to be pampered by others. Regardless of the job's size, the managers should praise their subordinates for making them feel more accepted because employees feel ignored if their success is not appreciated.

If an employer tries to apply all of this advice, sincerely, employees will start to feel more committed. It is easy to find a person to work with; however, it is hard to maintain sustainability. People are less tolerant and understanding nowadays because of the changes in work conditions. If a person feels a rejection or control over him, it is hard to hold. In addition to this, some people feel continuance commitment, and this obligation is reflected in their performances and moods. Affective commitment can be provided with these steps.

Furthermore, employees will start to have more self-esteem, which will also impact their work relations and their work performance since they will feel more accepted. Finally, the stress level of the employees will decrease if employers consider these steps and apply in their daily business lives. It can seem as hard to apply all of these since the managers are also human-beings; however, to have a better output, this advice helps a lot.

5.4 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings related to the current study must be evaluated by taking into consideration the potential limitations of the study.

The first limitation of the study was that Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control theory is never studied in literature before. Even though this study contributes to the literature, there was no direct study to create interrelating literature. Hence, close concepts were examined to develop hypotheses.

Additionally, the self-report surveys were used as measurement instruments, so only one type of data collection was employed in this study. Participants scored the Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control scale, the Self-Esteem scale, the Organizational Commitment scale, and the Job Strain scale. In further studies, the researchers can add the managers to the process, not only employees. Furthermore, there are different data collection methods that aim to check the validity and see the different opinions about the phenomena. The goal is not only to check data from at least two sources but also it helps to increase the knowledge about the topic, and it strengthens the

author's standpoint from different aspects. Future papers can cover this method to gain more insight into the subject.

Furthermore, this study was not based on a specific sector to get more generalized results. There were different kind of industries from both private and public; however, most of the participants were from the Education sector and were working in the training department. In the next studies, the researchers can turn their steps towards specific sectors, which will also be helpful since the variables analyzed in this study can vary in every specific sector.

On the other hand, the Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control scale has 73 items, which were found very long by the participants. Parent Acceptance, Rejection and Control scale has different versions, including a short one and a long one. Starting from this, the researchers can create a new short version of the Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control scale. By doing this, better results can be showed up, and it helps to gain time in both data collection part and in analyzing part.

Apart from this, if the next studies will use the same scale that is employed in this study, more participants can be found for research to get more generalized results. In this study, 305 participants were involved, and it was sufficient to interpret the relations between the variables.

In factor analysis part of the Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control scale, it was hard to analyze the statements since there were 73 items, so the cluster analysis method was used. It refers that the statements which were from the same sub-dimension were grouped in triple and quadruple, so they became like only one statement. It made easier to process cluster analysis. Further studies also can use this technique, or as it adviced above short version of scale can be used. Hence, factor analysis can be implemented.

In regression analysis, the Organizational Commitment and Self-Esteem were analyzed as a whole. In the next studies, these variable's sub-dimensions can be evaluated to see if they differ or not.

Moreover, the current study's conceptual model covers only independent variables and dependent variables. Another variable can be added to the study as mediator or moderator for a more in-depth insight since this study is the first study on the Manager Acceptance, Rejection, and Control, only dependent variables and an independent variable were used in the study.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A : Survey



Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket Marmara Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme Ana Bilim Dalı Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı'nda yürütülen bir tez çalışması çerçevesinde gerçekleştirilmektedir. Anketin doldurma süresi ortalama 17 dakikadır. Aşağıda doldurmanızı istediğimiz 1 Anket ile 4 Test bulunmaktadır. Testlerden birisi yöneticinizle ilgili düşünceleriniz hakkındadır. Diğer üçü çalışma hayatınızla ilgilidir. Bize vereceğiniz bilgiler araştırmacılar tarafından sadece bilimsel amaçlar için kullanılacaktır. Bu nedenle, sorulara samimiyetle vereceğiniz cevaplar çalışmanın gerçek sonuçlara ulaşması açısından büyük bir önem taşımaktadır. Araştırmamıza katıldığınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.

Not: Anket içerisinde ver alan bölümlerdeki tüm ifadeleri eksiksiz yanıtlamanız, araştırmamızın geçerliliği açısından son derece önemlidir ve isim, soy-isim bilgisine ihtiyaç duyulmayan bu anket araştırmacıda saklı tutulacaktır.

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TANITICI BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz : 1 () Kadın 2 () Erkek

2. Yaşınız?

3. Toplam kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz? (1 yıldan az ise 0 yazınız)

4. Bu iş yerinde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

5. Çalıştığınız bölüm nedir?

- 1 () Hukuk 2 () İnsan Kaynakları 3 () İthalat/İhracat/Lojistik
4 () Kurumsal İletişim 5 () Mali İşler 6 () Pazarlama/Tüketici İletişimi
7 () Satınalma/Tedarik 8 () Satış 9 () Strateji 10 () Üretim / AR-GE
11 () Diğer

6. Kurumdaki unvanınız nedir?

- 1 () Görevli 2 () Müdür/Yönetici 3 () Mühendis 4 () Sorumlu
5 () Uzman 6 () Uzman Yardımcısı 7 () Diğer

7. Medeni durumunuz: 1 () Evli 2 () Bekar

8. Eğitim durumunuz:

- 1 () Okur-yazar 2 () İlkokul Mezunu 3 () Ortaokul Mezunu
4 () Lise Mezunu 5 () Lisans Mezunu 6 () Lisansüstü veya Doktora

9. Kurumdaki görevinizden ne kadar memnunsunuz?

- 1 () Asla/Hiç 2 () Çok az 3 () Kısmen 4 () Çoğunlukla 5 () Tamamen

10. Yöneticinizle ne kadar iyi anlaşıyorsunuz?

- 1 () Çok İyi 2 () İyi 3 () Ne iyi/Ne kötü 4 () Kötü 5 () Çok Kötü

11. Yöneticinizin yöneticiliğinden ne kadar memnunsunuz?

- 1 () Asla/Hiç 2 () Çok az 3 () Kısmen 4 () Çoğunlukla 5 () Tamamen

BÖLÜM I

Aşağıdaki maddeler yöneticilerin iş görenlerine karşı nasıl davrandığını belirten ifadeler içermektedir. Lütfen her maddeye yöneticinizin size nasıl davrandığını düşünerek cevap veriniz. Anket sorularının doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Aklınıza ilk gelen cevabı tereddüt etmeden işaretleyiniz. (1=Her Zaman 4=Hiçbir Zaman).

Lütfen, aşağıdaki durumları çalışmakta olduğunuz bir üst yöneticinizi (yönetici, müdür, amir vb.) düşünerek cevaplayınız. Bu ifadelerin ne derece yöneticinize uyduğunu, onun ne derece benzer davranışlar sergilediğini ve ifadelerin ne derece onu yansıttığını verilen ölçek ile değerlendiriniz.		Her Zaman	Bazen	Çok Nadir	Hiçbir Zaman
Yöneticim...					
1	... benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söyler.	1	2	3	4
2	... yanlış bir şey yaptığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlar.	1	2	3	4
3	... benimle hiç ilgilenmez.	1	2	3	4
4	... beni gerçekten sevmez.	1	2	3	4
5	... neleri yapıp, neleri yapamayacağımı tam olarak anladığımdan emin olmak ister.	1	2	3	4
6	... işim hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinler.	1	2	3	4
7	... benden memnun olmadığında beni başkalarına şikayet eder.	1	2	3	4
8	... benimle yakından ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4
9	... işe ne zaman gelip, ne zaman işten çıktığımı çok dikkatlice izler.	1	2	3	4
10	... zor zamanlarımda beni destekler ve rahatlatır.	1	2	3	4
11	... başkalarının önünde benimle alay eder.	1	2	3	4
12	... onu rahatsız edecek bir şey yapmadığım sürece benimle ilgilenmez.	1	2	3	4
13	... bana kızdığı zaman sesini yükseltir.	1	2	3	4
14	... iş yerindeki davranışlar ve tavırlarla ilgili bir çok kurala sahiptir.	1	2	3	4
15	... bana karşı sert davranır.	1	2	3	4
16	... onun ekibinde olmamdan hoşlanır.	1	2	3	4
17	... benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırır.	1	2	3	4
18	... birçok kuralın olması ve kurallara uyulması gerektiğine inanır.	1	2	3	4
19	... bir şeyi iyi yaptığımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sağlar.	1	2	3	4
20	... hak etmediğim zaman bile beni eleştirir.	1	2	3	4
21	... bana verdiği sözleri unuttur.	1	2	3	4
22	... beni sorun çıkartan biri olarak görür.	1	2	3	4
23	... bana dilediğim kadar özgürlük tanır.	1	2	3	4
24	... beni başkalarına över.	1	2	3	4
25	... kızdığı zaman beni eleştirir.	1	2	3	4

26	... çalışma koşullarımın iyi olduğundan emin olmak ister.	1	2	3	4
27	... bana işimi nasıl yapmam gerektiğini en ince ayrıntısına kadar söyler.	1	2	3	4
28	... benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir şekilde konuşur.	1	2	3	4
29	... bana hemen kızar.	1	2	3	4
30	... sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldür.	1	2	3	4
31	... benden hoşlanmıyor gibi.	1	2	3	4
32	... istediğim zaman ona sormadan işe ara vermeme izin verir.	1	2	3	4
33	... hak ettiğim zaman bana güzel şeyler söyler.	1	2	3	4
34	... çabuk öfkelenir ve kabahati bende bulur.	1	2	3	4
35	... mesleki gelişimime önem verir.	1	2	3	4
36	... bana ne söylendiyse, aynen öyle yapmamda ısrar eder.	1	2	3	4
37	... yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4
38	... bana bir sürü kaba söz söyler.	1	2	3	4
39	... ondan yardım istediğimde hiç oralı olmaz.	1	2	3	4
40	... bir sorun yaşadığımda, sorunun bende olduğunu düşünür.	1	2	3	4
41	... ihtiyaç duyduğum her zaman işten izin almama müsaade eder.	1	2	3	4
42	... bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
43	... onun sınırlarına dokunduğumu söyler.	1	2	3	4
44	... bana çok ilgi gösterir.	1	2	3	4
45	... bana her zaman ne yapmam gerektiğini söylemek ister.	1	2	3	4
46	... bir işi iyi yaptığımda benimle ne kadar gurur duyduğunu söyler.	1	2	3	4
47	... duygularımı incitmek için elinden geleni yapar.	1	2	3	4
48	... benimle ilgili hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unuttur.	1	2	3	4
49	... yaptığım iş hoşuna gitmediğinde beni kötü hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
50	... bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermez.	1	2	3	4
51	... bana yaptığım işlerin önemli olduğunu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
52	... yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit eder.	1	2	3	4
53	... benimle zaman geçirmekten hoşlanır.	1	2	3	4
54	... işimi yaparken bana çok özgürlük tanır.	1	2	3	4
55	... üzüldüğümde ya da bir şeye canım sıkıldığında bana yardım etmeye çalışır.	1	2	3	4
56	... yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni iş arkadaşlarımdan önünde utandırır.	1	2	3	4
57	... benden uzak durur.	1	2	3	4
58	... benden şikayet eder.	1	2	3	4
59	... yaptığım her şeyi kontrol etmek ister.	1	2	3	4
60	... benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanır.	1	2	3	4

61	... ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer insanların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünür.	1	2	3	4
62	... bir plan yaparken benim de ne düşündüğüme önem verir.	1	2	3	4
63	... işime verdiğim emeği takdir eder.	1	2	3	4
64	... diğer insanların benden daha iyi olduklarını düşünür.	1	2	3	4
65	... bir sorum ya da sorunun olduğunda beni başka kişilere yollar.	1	2	3	4
66	... bana istenmediğimi hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
67	... yaptığım şeylerle ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4
68	... canım bir şeye sıkıldığında veya mutsuz hissettiğimde, kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapar.	1	2	3	4
69	... yanlış bir şey yaptığımda ne kadar hayal kırıklığına uğradığımı söyler.	1	2	3	4
70	... beni sevdiğini belli eder.	1	2	3	4
71	... bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalplidir.	1	2	3	4
72	... yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4
73	... beni iyi hissettirmeye çalışır.	1	2	3	4
74	... öfkeli olduğunda beni eleştirir.	1	2	3	4

BÖLÜM II

Aşağıdaki ifadeler insanların çalıştıkları kurumlara karşı içinde buldukları bazı hisleri içermektedir. Sizin için uygun olan durumları verilen ölçek ile değerlendiriniz.

		Hiç doğru değil	Doğru değil	Kararsızım	Doğru	Kesinlikle doğru
1	Kariyerimin geri kalan kısmını bu iş yerinde geçirmek beni mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Bu işyeriyle ilgili sorunları kendi kişisel sorunummuş gibi düşünüp çözmeye çalışıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Bu iş yerinde kendimi “ailenin bir üyesi” gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Bu iş yerinde kendimi “duygusal olarak bağlı” hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Bu iş yerinde görev yapmak kişisel olarak benim için büyük anlam taşıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Bu iş yerine karşı güçlü bir aitlik duygusu hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Bu iş yerindeki görevime devam etmemi gerektirecek herhangi bir yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Şu an başka bir kurumdan teklif alsam bile, bu iş yerinden ayrılmak bana doğru gelmezdi.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Şu an bu iş yerinden ayrılırsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Bu iş yeri benim sadakatimi hak ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Bu iş yerinde görev yapan insanlara karşı kendimi sorumlu hissettiğim için, bu iş yerinden ayrılmayı düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Bu iş yerine çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
13	İstesem bile bu iş yerinden şu an ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Bu iş yerinden şu an ayrılırsam hayatım altüst olur.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Bu iş yerinde çalışmaya devam etmem kendi tercihim olduğu kadar aynı zamanda bir zorunluluktur.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Bu iş yerinden ayrılmamamın en önemli nedenlerinden birisi başka seçeneğimin olmamasıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Bu iş yerinde göreve devam etmemin bir nedeni de, gideceğim diğer iş yerlerinde burada sahip olduğum imkân ve avantajların tamamına sahip olmayacağımı düşünmemdir.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Bu iş yeri için bu kadar çok fedakârlık yapmamış olsaydım, başka bir kuruma geçmeyi düşünebilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5

BÖLÜM III

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri kendi benliğinize yönelik değerlendirmeleriniz ile yanıtlayınız.		Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Birçok olumlu özelliklerimin olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Ben de diğer insanların birçoğunun yapabildiği şeyleri yapabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Kendimde gurur duyacak birçok şey buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içerisindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Genel olarak kendimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Genellikle yaptıklarımın ve kendimin önemli bir değerinin olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Kendime duyduğum saygı oldukça yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Genellikle kendimi yeterli bir insan olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Genellikle kendimi başarılı bir kişi olarak görme eğilimdeyim.	1	2	3	4	5

BÖLÜM IV

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri verilen ölçeklere göre dikkatlice okuyarak cevaplayınız.		Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	İşim aile yaşamımı olumsuz yönde etkiliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
2	İşe ilk girdiğimdeki beklentilerim gerçekleşiyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İşimde eskisine göre daha gerginim.	1	2	3	4	5
4	İşime hala eskisi gibi katkıda bulunuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5	İş yerimde fırsat buldukça başkalarından uzaklaşmak için odama kapanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İşimde hak ettiğim takdiri görmediğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7	İşim gereği karşılaştığım kişilere tam olarak yardımcı olamadığım zamanlar kendimi suçlu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8	İş arkadaşlarım kendine düşen görevi yerine getiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
9	İşimde üretkenliğim artıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
10	İşimdeki sorumluluklarım başlangıçta beklediğimden çok farklı.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Mesleki alanda bilgi ve becerilerim gelişiyor.	1	2	3	4	5
12	İşimle ilgili olaylar eve gittiğimde bile aklımdan çıkmıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
13	İş yerimde sıklıkla kullanıldığımı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Son zamanlarda evdekilerle tartışmalarım arttı.	1	2	3	4	5
15	İşte nadiren hayal kuruyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Daha çok çalışmama karşın daha az iş yapıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17	İşe katkıda bulunabilmem için iş arkadaşlarım veya amirlerimin gerekli desteği giderek azalıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
18	İşe sıklıkla geç gidiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

**ANKETİMİZİ YANITLAMAK ÜZERE AYIRDIĞINIZ ZAMAN İÇİN ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR
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- TURKISH INSURANCE INSTITUTION FOUNDATION
May 2012 - October 2012
Training and Development Specialist
- SABANCI UNIVERSITY, TURKEY
Nov. 2010 – May 2011
International Relations Specialist
- ECZACIBAŞI - SCHWARZKOPF PROFESSIONAL, TURKEY
Oct. 2009 - Nov. 2010
Translator & Marketing Assistant
- VIP TOURISM, TURKEY
Apr. 2004 – Jan. 2008
Project Responsible

CERTIFICATIONS:

- Change Management Certificate, Prosci, Turkey, Nov. 2016
- Copywriting Certificate, Boğaziçi University, Turkey, Jul. 2010
- American Studies Certificate, Boğaziçi University, Turkey, Jul. 2010
- TEFL Certificate, Yıldız Technical University, Turkey, Aug. 2010
- Fine Arts Certificate, Boğaziçi University, Turkey, Sept. 2010

