

OPPORTUNITY AT WORK:
ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES

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OPPORTUNITY AT WORK:
ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES

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Dissertation Abstract

Elif Çiçekli, “Opportunity at Work: Antecedents and Consequences”

The present study explores the under-researched topic of opportunity at work. The study aims first to analyze the relationship between opportunity and major organizational outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and employee performance. Second aim of the study is to analyze the relationships between opportunity and possible antecedents of opportunity, i.e. leadership and high performance work practices (HPWPs).

Based on literature review, a questionnaire is developed and administered to a pilot sample of 102 white-collar employees in Istanbul. After the questionnaire is revised, it is administered to 550 white-collar employees in Istanbul. Using data from this latter sample, results of factor analyses show that opportunity is explained with three factors: promotion, development, and recognition. Using regression analyses, it is found that opportunities of development and recognition are predictors of major organizational outcomes. Promotion is predictor of only job satisfaction. The results also show that the effects of development are stronger than those of recognition except for in the case of absenteeism.

Another significant finding of the study is that leadership creates opportunity for employees. All types of leadership studied create one type of opportunity or the other. Results also show that HPWPs predict opportunities of promotion and development. In contrast to findings of previous studies, alternative opportunities are positively related to organizational commitment and employee performance. It is also found that alternative opportunities moderate the relationships between opportunity and major organizational outcomes in a negative way.

Tez Özeti

Elif Çiçekli, “İşyerinde Fırsat: Sebep ve Sonuçları”

Bu çalışma az araştırılmış olan işyerinde fırsat konusunu incelemektedir. Çalışmanın ilk amacı fırsat ile örgütsel bağlılık, iş tatmini, işten ayrılma niyeti, devamsızlık, ve çalışan performansı gibi başlıca örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkileri analiz etmektir. Çalışmanın ikinci amacı fırsat ve fırsata sebep olabilecek liderlik ve yüksek performans iş uygulamaları gibi olası etmenleri incelemektir.

Yazın taraması ışığında bir anket oluşturulup İstanbul’da çalışan 102 beyaz-yakalı çalışandan oluşan pilot bir örnekleme uygulanmıştır. Anket gözden geçirilip düzeltildikten sonra İstanbul’da 550 beyaz-yakalı çalışana uygulanmıştır. Bu ikinci örneklemeden elde edilen veriler kullanılarak yapılan faktör analiz sonuçları fırsatın üç faktörle açıklandığını göstermektedir: terfi, gelişim, ve tanınma. Yapılan regresyon analizleri sonucunda gelişimsel ve tanınma fırsatlarının başlıca örgütsel sonuçları öngördüğü bulunmuştur. Terfi ise sadece iş tatminini öngörmektedir. Sonuçlar devamsızlık durumu dışında, gelişimin etkilerinin tanınmanın etkilerinden daha güçlü olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çalışmanın bir diğer önemli bulgusu da liderliğin çalışanlar için fırsat yarattığıdır. Araştırılan tüm liderlik tipleri bir tür fırsat yaratmaktadır. Sonuçlar ayrıca yüksek performans iş uygulamalarının terfi ve gelişimsel fırsatları öngördüğünü göstermektedir. Önceki çalışmaların bulgularının aksine, alternatif fırsatlar örgütsel bağlılık ve iş çalışan performansı ile pozitif ilişkilidir. Alternatif fırsatlar ise fırsat ve başlıca örgütsel sonuçlar arasındaki ilişkileri olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Opportunity is vital both for employees and employers influencing major organizational outcomes. Kanter (1977) argued that “opportunity affects a person’s overall mode of work involvement” (p. 161) and that “aspirations, work commitment, and a sense of organizational responsibility could [...] be aroused by a dramatic increase in opportunity” (p. 135). Opportunity has been shown to be related to many organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and job performance (Kanter, 1977; Smith 1979; Kanter and Stein, 1981; Yucelt, 1982; DeConinck and Bachman, 1994; Quarles, 1994; Wallace, 1995; Ganesan and Weitz; 1996; McElroy et al., 1996, Allen et al., 1998; Allen et al., 2003), which shows that opportunity is significant for both employees and employers.

Although opportunity is a significant topic of research, a study exploring the concept of opportunity in depth examining its antecedents and consequences was not carried out before. There was a gap in research that should be filled. This is the first study, which explores the concept of opportunity in depth examining its antecedents and consequences, with important implications for both research and practice

The aim of this study is to analyze the concept of opportunity, which is under-researched, antecedents and consequences of opportunity, and alternative opportunities based on social information processing approach and cognitive dissonance theory. Based on literature review, hypotheses on the antecedents and consequences of opportunity moderated by level of alternative opportunities are presented.

The research objectives include:

- 1- To construct a valid and reliable scale to measure perceived level of opportunity at work,
- 2- To analyze how evaluation of opportunity at work and evaluation of alternative opportunities elsewhere, affect major organizational outcomes (i.e. organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and employee performance).
- 3- To examine the possible antecedents of opportunity.

The following chapter, Chapter 2, covers the review of literature on opportunity, effects of opportunity and alternative opportunities on major organizational outcomes, and antecedents of opportunity. In Chapter 3, hypotheses are presented and summarized. Chapter 4 is on the methodology of the study and covers the variables of the study, measures used, sequencing and translation of the questions on the questionnaire, and sample and procedures. Findings of the study, which include reliability tests, factor analyses, summary statistics, and results of hypotheses testing, are presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 is the discussion and conclusion chapter including the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, literature review on opportunity; antecedents and consequences of perceived opportunity; perceived alternative opportunities and its effects on major organizational outcomes are presented.

Opportunity

Kanter (1977) described opportunity as “the relationship of a present position to a larger structure and to anticipated future positions that is critical” (p. 161). She distinguished the effects of opportunity from job satisfaction:

Job satisfaction may reflect day-to-day comfort, whereas opportunity affects a person’s overall mode of work involvement. A person could feel reasonably satisfied with the content of a job but frustrated about growth through it or movement from it, and thus depress aspiration and look to other realms for opportunity (p. 161).

Thus, Kanter (1977) did not confine the definition of opportunity to promotion. Opportunity in a specific job is related to either “movement from it” or “growth through it” (p. 161). Formal advancement from one job to another is not the sole type of opportunity. There are other ways such as development of professional skills and continual challenge (Kanter and Stein, 1981).

Some scholars restricted the definition of opportunity to promotions. For instance, Harlan (1989) defined opportunity “as position in the organizational hierarchy and as workers' perceptions of the degree to which the firm's administrative system awards promotions through fair and open competition” (p. 766).

Others argued that we should not restrict the conceptualization of opportunity to promotions due to decline of upward mobility possibilities. Iles (1997) suggested that fast-track programs for high-potential employees needed to be re-evaluated since organizational restructuring, downsizing, outsourcing, and delayering cause a decline of the upward mobility. “Yet organizations still need to recruit, retain and motivate people with the potential to lead the organization, suggesting a need for different approaches” (Iles, 1997, p. 352). Caudron (1994) argued that instead of upward movement, companies could provide opportunities for lateral growth, enrich current jobs, and provide “dual career paths, in which employees are given additional challenges and compensation without having to advance into managerial positions” (p. 64L). Similarly, although Yang et al. (2004) covered only promotion aspect of opportunity in their study, they recommended future researchers to investigate how employees valued other dimensions such as developing skills and accumulating work experiences.

Kanter (1986) highlighted the importance of recognition and argued that due to shrinking corporate hierarchies and removal of organizational layers, companies could not afford promotion as the primary means of recognizing performance. She discussed that when employees were not promoted and stay in their places longer, greater accessibility to rewards at all levels was a necessity and recognition was an important part of this (Kanter, 1986). Wayne et al. (2002) argued that recognition and visibility were likely to be given to a small group of employees, and recognition implied a bright future. Thus, recognition is a special type of opportunity as well.

Thus, there are four types of work opportunities:

1. Promotion opportunities (Kanter, 1977; Kanter and Stein, 1981; Harlan, 1989; Caudron, 1994),

2. Developmental opportunities (Kanter and Stein, 1981; Yang et al., 2004),
3. Continual challenge (i.e. opportunity for challenging work, lateral moves with new challenges, and new responsibilities) (Kanter and Stein, 1981; Caudron, 1994),
4. Recognition (Kanter, 1986; Wayne et al., 2002).

Effects of Opportunity on Major Organizational Outcomes

Kanter (1977) stated that “opportunity affects a person’s overall mode of work involvement” (p. 161). Opportunity has been studied as an antecedent of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and job performance (Kanter, 1977; Smith 1979; Kanter and Stein, 1981; Yucelt, 1982; DeConinck and Bachman, 1994; Quarles, 1994; Wallace, 1995; Ganesan and Weitz; 1996; McElroy et al., 1996, Allen et al., 1998; Allen et al., 2003).

Organizational Commitment

The most widely accepted definition of organizational commitment in current research is the definition of Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974), who developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mayer and Schoorman, 1992).

Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) define organizational commitment as:

the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Such commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to

exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership (p. 604).

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1974) is a 15-item questionnaire to measure the degree of commitment felt by subjects to the employing organization.

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a measure of organizational commitment with three major components and corresponding scales. The affective component of commitment “refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization”; the continuance component of commitment “refers to commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization”; and “finally, the normative component refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization” (Allen and Meyer, 1990, p. 1).

Many scholars argued that opportunity affected organizational commitment (Kanter, 1977; Landau and Hammer, 1986; DeConinck and Bachman, 1994; Ganesan and Weitz, 1996). Kanter (1977) stated that commitment referred to overall attachment to the organization and was shaped in a major way by opportunity. “Aspirations, work commitment, and a sense of organizational responsibility could [...] be aroused by a dramatic increase in opportunity. (This is the Gerald Ford syndrome; not aspiring to the Presidency until becoming President.)” (Kanter, 1977, p. 135).

Those in low opportunity may [...] be less committed to the organization or to their work in general. A common research finding is that people at the upper levels of organizations tend routinely to be more motivated, involved, and interested in their jobs than those at lower levels. But even within similar ranks, upward mobility has tended to be associated with identification with the organization. [...] What clerical worker with low motivation to be promoted might need is a promotion; what the chronic complainer might need is a growthful challenge. But who would be likely to give it to them? (Kanter, 1977, p. 143 and 158).

Based on their study covering 300 clerical employees in a university and 372 clerical employees in a state agency in northeastern U.S., Landau and Hammer (1986) found that employees who perceived that they had advancement opportunities were more committed to their organizations than employees who desired mobility but perceived no opportunities.

DeConinck and Bachman (1994) found that higher level of promotional opportunity was a significant predictor of organizational commitment. In a study of lawyers (Wallace, 1995), it was found that organizational commitment was highly dependent on perceived opportunities for career advancements.

Ganesan and Weitz (1996) studied 207 retail buyers and divisional merchandise managers. They compared employees of companies with promotion from within policy with employees of companies that hire employees from outside of the firm. They found that the former group of employees found their work more rewarding and were more committed compared to the latter group. The promotion from within policy created positive attitudes even though employees working under this policy had a lower compensation on average. Ganesan and Weitz (1996) argued that retail organizations could increase commitment of their retail buyers and divisional merchandise managers by developing strong career paths and offering job mobility within the organizations.

Job Satisfaction

Based on data from 126 internal auditors, Quarles (1994) found that satisfaction with promotion opportunities was positively related to job satisfaction and organizational

commitment for internal audit supervisors and to job satisfaction for staff level internal auditors. In both samples, job satisfaction was negatively related to turnover intentions. Thus, “for both groups, satisfaction with promotion opportunities has an indirect effect on turnover intentions” through job satisfaction (Quarles, 1994, p. 186).

McElroy et al. (1996) surveyed 690 employees of a state agency and found that “having one’s internal mobility expectations met, as opposed to unmet, was associated with more favorable work-related attitudes”, namely, job satisfaction, perceived work climate, job involvement, and organizational commitment (p. 363).

Allen et al. (2003) found that perceptions of supportive human resources practices, which were participation in decision making, fairness of rewards, and growth opportunities, were positively related to perceived organizational support, which was in turn positively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Turnover Intentions

Smith (1979) studied 13 job chains with 6,493 employees in a state civil service. He defined a high opportunity chain as one in which more than 15 % of the jobs were at the lowest managerial level or above. She found that advancement opportunity had a negative relation with quit rates.

As stated in section ‘Job Satisfaction’, using data from 126 internal auditors, Quarles (1994) found that satisfaction with promotion opportunities had an indirect effect on turnover intentions through job satisfaction.

Absenteeism

Yucelt (1982) carried out a study in nine industrial plants in Istanbul from 1973 to 1975. Based on data from 154 white-collar workers (vice-presidents, managers, and clerical employees) and 110 blue-collar workers (foremen and workers), Yucelt (1982) found that dissatisfaction with promotion opportunities and work insecurity were significantly related to rate of absenteeism for white-collar workers.

Job Performance

Kanter and Stein (1981) argued that employees who lack opportunity lost enthusiasm and contributed less. They discussed that employees could be motivated for improved performance and productivity through expanding opportunity.

“Continuing opportunity is the motivator most people need to keep them working with a high degree of effort and enthusiasm” (Kanter and Stein, 1981, p. 45). Kanter (1987) argued, “people trapped in low opportunity situations [...] felt stuck and tended to respond with lower aspirations for performance and less commitment” (p. 258).

Allen et al. (1998) studied 607 managers of a large southeastern state government in terms of career plateauing. Hierarchical plateauing means having little chance of further vertical movement in an organization. Job content plateauing means being no longer challenged by one’s work or job responsibilities (Allen et al., 1998). Allen et al. (1998) found that managers who were both hierarchically and job content plateaued reported having performance levels lower than managers who were nonplateaued.

Effects of Alternative opportunities on Major Organizational Outcomes

Alternative opportunities for employees have been studied as an antecedent of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and absenteeism.

In cognitive psychology, one of the effects of context on social judgment is presence of comparison alternatives. “Judgment is relative. [...] How we evaluate and perceive an object is highly dependent on the nature of the alternatives around it – the point of reference we use to make a comparison” (Aronson, 1994, p. 23).

Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) developed a social information processing approach to attitudes, behavior, and job characteristics, which emphasizes context and effects of past choices. The basic assumption is that individuals adapt attitudes, beliefs, and behavior to their social context and to the reality of their own past and present behavior and situation. According to this approach, commitment occurs when behavior is made under conditions of choice at the beginning (such as choosing a job offer among many other job offers), when it is irrevocable, public, and explicit. However, the model implied that once in the situation (such as once accepted a job offer), having fewer options creates higher commitment. One of the implications of the social information processing approach was that:

persons with few options, committed to a situation, come to appreciate its positive aspects. In contrast, persons who feel uncommitted to a situation, because of other options, may feel less favorable toward the job they have. [...] The external offers and environment are the most salient information. [...] The frequently noted difference between urban and rural workers' reactions to their jobs might represent differences in the availability of job options. [...] An important component of the process of commitment is choice. [...] Once in the situation, it is better for the person to perceive few options, so that he or she is forced to come to terms with the present environment. The presence of alternatives, both at the time of the choice of behavior and subsequently, can thus determine satisfaction and other job attitudes. It

is, again, the context of the job, not merely its content that determines affective reactions (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978, p. 244-245).

Another support for alternative opportunities as an antecedent of major organizational outcomes came from Festinger's (1957, as cited in Aronson, 1997) cognitive dissonance theory, which has been empirically verified in many experiments (Stone, 1998). The essence of cognitive dissonance theory is that if a person holds psychologically inconsistent cognitions, he or she experiences dissonance. The person will struggle to reduce dissonance because it is negative and unpleasant (Aronson, 1997). One way of reducing dissonance is changing the discrepant cognition so that it will be in line with other cognitions (Doran et al., 1991). This includes what Aronson (1994) calls "psychology of inevitability" in which "a situation arises that is both negative and inevitable. Here people attempt to make the best of things by cognitively minimizing the unpleasantness of the situation" to decrease dissonance (p. 223). In an experiment, it was found, the children who were made to believe it was inevitable that they would eat a particular vegetable in the future, changed their attitudes positively towards the vegetable, which they disliked before (Aronson, 1994). This is what Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) meant by "coming to terms with the present environment" when they state "once in the situation, it is better for the person to perceive few options, so that he or she is forced to come to terms with the present environment. The presence of alternatives, both at the time of the choice of behavior and subsequently, can thus determine satisfaction and other job attitudes" (p. 245).

Organizational Commitment

Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) imply that commitment is a natural consequence of lack of alternative opportunities when they state “Another implication of this argument is that job satisfaction should be higher in times of high unemployment, or for those workers with either personal characteristics or skills that make them less mobile and therefore more committed to their present jobs” (p. 245).

Meyer et al. (1991) examined the effect of perceived alternatives on commitment among recent university graduates who accepted jobs in different organizations. They found that continuance commitment was strongly and negatively related to the level of perceived alternatives.

Job Satisfaction

Pond III and Geyer (1987) surveyed 226 employees working in an health institution in the U.S. and found that perceived work alternatives were negatively related to job satisfaction and “accounted for approximately 24% of the job-satisfaction variance” (p. 554). “The prediction of job satisfaction with perceived work alternatives was enhanced, however, when employee age was combined with perceived work alternatives” (Pond III and Geyer, 1987: 554). The moderating effect of employee age was such that the relation between perceived work alternatives and job satisfaction was weaker in the case of older employees.

Turnover Intentions

Withey and Cooper (1989) operationalized alternative opportunities as “the ease of finding a job in the same geographic area that is better than or much better than the present one” (p. 528). Based on data from 303 graduates and 134 employees of an accounting firm, they found that alternative job opportunities were related to turnover intentions.

Fujiwara-Greve and Greve (2000) studied job mobility data from the 1991 Norwegian Life History Study and found that:

workers’ decisions to change jobs within and out of an organizational population are affected by the diversity and inequality of [size of] organizations in the population, indicating that outside opportunities are important for job change behaviors. As expected, we found that workers are more likely to change jobs within industries and areas of high diversity or inequality and to leave industries and areas with low diversity or inequality. According to matching theory, diversity gives poorly matched workers greater opportunity to find different jobs, and according to reputation theory, inequality gives workers greater incentives to change jobs (p. 571-572).

Hwang and Kuo (2006) argued that employees would evaluate alternative employment opportunities in the external environment when they considered leaving their organizations. Based on a study of 259 executives and staff employed in public sector in Taiwan, they found that perceived alternative employment opportunities had a positive effect on turnover intentions.

Absenteeism

Larson and Fukami (1985) studied perceived ease of movement of 104 blue-collar workers and 132 nurses. They operationalized perceived ease of movement using a

five-item scale that measured ease of movement by asking respondents “(1) the probability of their finding an acceptable alternative job, (2) the number of similar and more attractive opportunities available, and (3) the time necessary to find an acceptable alternative” (Larson and Fukami, 1985, p. 466).

Thus, perceived ease of movement is availability of alternative work opportunities. Larson and Fukami (1985) found that “perceived ease of movement was significantly related to excused absenteeism” (p. 469).

Markham (1985) studied the relationship between unemployment and absenteeism. He found a significant relationship between absenteeism and national unemployment rate based on monthly absenteeism rates in about 350 companies from 1976 to 1982. He discussed that “the perceived ease of finding alternative employment might be an overlooked, but important predictor of absenteeism” (p. 233).

Job Performance

Review of literature showed that alternative opportunities for employees have not been studied as an antecedent of job performance.

Antecedents of Opportunity

Many factors have been shown to be or may be considered significant antecedents of opportunity at work. These factors are high performance work practices, leadership, and some other factors such as employee demographics (age, gender, education), and tenure of the employee.

High Performance Work Practices

High performance work practices (HPWPs) are human resource practices that have consistently been found as enhancing firm performance by empirical work (Huselid, 1995). These are practices such as:

extensive recruitment, selection, and training procedures; formal information sharing, attitude assessment, job design, grievance procedures, and labor-management participation programs; and performance appraisal, promotion, and incentive compensation systems that recognize and reward employee merit (Huselid, 1995, p. 640).

HPWPs have been studied with different names. Arthur (1992, 1994) labeled HR practices such as employee involvement, participation, and training as commitment human resource practices.

Den Hartog and Verburg (2004) studied high performance work system “consisting of a combination of practices with an emphasis on employee development, strict selection and providing an overarching goal or direction” (p. 55). HPWPs have been studied in relation to many organizational outcomes

Although there are many studies on the relationship between HPWPs and different organizational outcomes (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Tsui et al., 1997; Berg, 1999; Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; Taylor et al., 2008), there are no studies examining the relationship between HPWPs and opportunity perceptions of employees. Nevertheless, HPWPs, i.e. practices such as treating employees as permanent, hiring new employees with care, promoting from within the company, support for growth and development, level of training (Taylor et al., 2008) may be related to opportunity perceptions of employees.

Leadership

Leadership attributes such as paternalistic, transactional, transformational and participative leadership may be antecedents of opportunity.

Paternalistic Leadership

The word paternalism originated from the word patriarchy (Fleming, 2005: 1469-1470). In patriarchy “the father is the supreme authority and is the highest-ranking member in the family, clan, or tribe” (Lee, 2001, p. 841). The paternalistic relationship has been described as resembling to the relationship between a father or a parent and a child (Aycan, 2001; Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal, and Bodur, 2001; Fleming, 2005; Lee, 2001), between a master and a servant (Fleming, 2005), and between a teacher and a pupil (Fleming, 2005). The authority figure in the paternal relationship has been described as “analogous to a father who does not forcibly control or direct the activities of his child or children but guides them in an understanding and loving way” (Lee, 2001, p. 841).

Paternalistic HRM has been described as a reciprocal, cooperative style of management. In paternalistic HRM, the paternal figure considers employees and takes the employees' rights and feelings into account (Lee, 2001). The paternal figure (employer or manager) provides support and protection to those under his or her care. In return for this support and protection, subordinates show loyalty, deference, compliance, and cooperation (Aycan, 2001; Lee, 2001).

More specifically, the paternal figures “take a personal interest in workers’ off-the-job lives and personal problems and attempt to promote workers’ personal

welfare and help them achieve personal goals” (Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal, and Bodur, 2001, p. 561). Like a parent, they care about the private problems of employees, take the initiative in deciding for the employees in relation to their problems, attend social events such as wedding ceremonies of employees’ children, act like one of the employees in social events, and create a family-like atmosphere in the organization (Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal, and Bodur, 2001).

Both advantages and disadvantages of paternalism have been examined in previous studies. As stated previously, paternalistic HRM has been described as a reciprocal, cooperative style of management. In paternalistic HRM, the paternal figure considers employees and takes the employees' rights and feelings into account (Lee, 2001). The paternal figure (employer or manager) provides support and protection to those under his or her care (Aycan, 2001; Lee, 2001).

Lee (2001) argued that since both authoritarianism and paternalism belonged to patriarchy, paternalism had some characteristics in common with authoritarianism. Burrows (1993) stated that paternalism generally had a negative connotation. Paternalism as a government policy is generally “seen as illiberal, coercive, arrogant and patronizing; it is thought to destroy autonomy and freedom, to display a lack of respect for people” (Burrows, 1993, p. 542). Paternalism is seen as “the antithesis of freedom of choice” (Burrows, 1993, p. 542).

Fleming (2005) carried out an eight-month field study of an American owned call-center with around 1000 employees based in an Australian city. Although characteristics of paternalism such as job security, housing, education outside of work, insurance, crèches, and so on did not exist, a paternalist culture was evoked in the organization with a benevolent father figure (the founder CEO) who looked after employees when they could not do it themselves, a family-like atmosphere managing

both the work and non-work lives of employees. The results of the study showed that some employees resisted paternalism because it casted them as irrational children and undermined their dignity:

One reason these workers seem to resent being treated like children and cynically disparage such initiatives is because they find it compromises their identities as dignified adults. As was noted earlier, the paternalism in its most patronizing form aims to strip away this sense of self and instigate a weak, dependent and sometimes ignorant identity (Fleming, 2005, p. 1481).

These employees resisting paternalism “constituted a self-narrative that was mature and developed, capable of making consequential decisions and confident in their own assessments of the power relationships they found themselves embroiled” (Fleming, 2005, p. 1482).

Lee (2001) studied paternalistic HR practices in Korea and argued that paternalistic HRM lacked rationality since it depended on non-institutional and informal personal ties. Moreover, in many paternalistic systems there is no systematic scientific procedure for evaluation of individuals’ skills, abilities, and job performance. Instead, there is managerial autonomy in hiring, staffing, or training (Lee, 2001), which may imply that paternalism may be negatively related to opportunity perceptions of employees.

Aycan (2001) studied HRM practices in Turkey based on data from 307 private sector organizations and found that white-collar non-managerial and blue-collar employees were provided with benefits and allowances such as health insurance, cafeteria benefits, fuel or firewood for heating, pocket money for religious holidays, and contribution to children’s educational expenses which reflected paternalism in the Turkish society.

Fikret-Pasa et al. (2001) studied ninety-two employees in four companies in Turkey and found that there were four types of leaders in Turkish organizations: Transactional and team-oriented, paternalistic and considerate, laissez-faire, autocratic and hierarchical. Paternalistic and considerate leaders “support and care for their employees, help out with their family problems, and want to be loved and respected by them” (Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001, p. 571).

Yetim and Yetim (2006) studied 217 entrepreneurs of small and medium sized enterprises and 1140 employees in Turkey. They discussed the cultural roots of paternalism in Turkey. They argued that the roots of patriarchal-paternalistic relationships existed in Turkish social institutions. “It is possible to observe the paternalistic patterns in the family (the father and the children), in the religion (God and his’ subjects), and finally in politics (The father state and the citizens)” (Yetim and Yetim, 2006, p. 279).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is related “to the exchange relationship between leader and follower to meet their own self-interests” (Bass, 1999: 10). Transactional leadership involves contingent rewarding and management-by-exception (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007).

Contingent rewarding has its roots in Path-Goal Theory, which emphasizes the importance of clearing the paths to rewards for employees and contingent rewarding by leaders (House and Mitchell, 1974). In contingent rewarding, “the leader clarifies for the follower through direction or participation what the follower needs to do to be rewarded for the effort” (Bass, 1999: 11).

Contingent rewarding may have an effect on opportunity perceptions on employees since it involves “defining the exchanges between what is expected from the follower and what the follower will receive in return” (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007, p. 123).

Transformational Leadership

Bass (1996) studied transactional and transformational leadership, and discussed that effective leader was transformational or transactional as conditions change.

Although he stated that transformational leadership was more effective in dealing with stressful situations and crises, it was argued that in general transformational leadership was more effective regardless of contingencies. In transformational leadership, the leader moves “the follower beyond immediate self-interests” (Bass, 1999:11).

Transformational leadership involves inspirational motivation, idealized influence of the leader on the follower, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007).

Individualized consideration “refers to leader behaviors aimed at recognizing the unique growth and developmental needs of followers as well as coaching followers and consulting with them” (Bono and Judge, 2004: 901-902). It involves understanding the needs and abilities of, developing and empowering the individual followers (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007) and working continuously to get the followers to develop to their full potential (Avolio et al., 1999).

Rafferty and Griffin (2006) studied individualized consideration, and found that two dimensions of individualized consideration (i.e. developmental leadership

and supportive leadership) had a positive relationship with career certainty, which is “the extent to which individuals feel that they are provided with opportunities for career advancement, and the extent to which they feel that their job and career are secure” (p. 43). Thus, career certainty is opportunity for employees. Hence, Rafferty and Griffin (2006) found that individualized consideration (a dimension of transformational leadership) is related to opportunity perceptions of employees.

Participative Leadership

In participative leadership, superior and employees share influence in decision making (Huang et al., 2006). Participative leadership involves efforts by a leader to encourage and facilitate participation by others in making important decisions (Yukl, 2002: p. 80). It covers “opportunity for joint decision-making and the open-minded discussion of opposing views” (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006: 1727). Potential benefits of participative leadership are “higher decision-making quality, higher decision acceptance by participants, more satisfaction with the decision process, and more development of decision-making skills” (Yukl, 2002: p. 83)

There are no previous studies on the relationship between participative leadership and opportunity. However, it may be considered that influence in decision-making, which is a product of participative leadership, develops employees and hence creates opportunity for employees.

Other Antecedents of Opportunity

Tenure and Age

Employee tenure is one of the factors that have been studied as an antecedent of opportunity. Based on data on organizations from 1991 National Organizations Survey and on their employees from 1991 General Social Survey, Kalleberg and Van Buren (1996) found that employee tenure was negatively related to future advancement. They found that the longer employees had been with an organization, the greater the probability that they had received all the promotions that they were likely to obtain.

Landau and Hammer (1986) studied age and job tenure as antecedents of opportunity. Based on their study covering 300 clerical employees in a university and 372 clerical employees in a state agency in northeastern U.S., they found that age and job tenure were negatively related to perceived ease of movement:

Younger employees with shorter job tenure who felt that their personal characteristics matched organizational criteria for mobility and who received feedback from their supervisors perceived themselves as having the greatest opportunities for advancement (p. 385).

Gender

Smith (1979) studied gender as an antecedent of opportunity in 13 job chains with 6,493 employees in a state civil service. She defined a high opportunity chain as one in which more than 15 % of the jobs were at the lowest managerial level or above.

She found that women were predominantly employed in low opportunity jobs:

That men's advancement opportunity rather than their sex affected their quit rate was supported by the finding that men in low opportunity jobs

had slightly higher quit rates than their female counterparts and considerably higher quit rates than either men or women in higher opportunity chains. [...] Since low opportunity chains employ more people, mostly women, any net quit rate statistics would show a higher quit rate for women than for men (p. 378).

Smith (1979) suggested that male and female workers might be different “more in opportunity for career advancement than in interest or responsiveness to such advancement” (p. 379). Similarly, Cassirer and Reskin (2000) examined promotion aspirations using data on 1991 General Social Survey of a national probability sample of 733 U.S. employees. They found that men had a more favorable location in opportunity structures and discussed that since men were more likely to be located in positions that encourage them to hope for promotions, men attached greater importance to promotions than women.

Based on their study of 109 MIS employees, Igarria and Baroudi (1995) found that women were perceived to have less favorable chances for promotion than men based on supervisory ratings of the likelihood of promotion of the employee (Igarria and Baroudi, 1995: 107).

Okpara (2006) surveyed 512 bank managers in Nigeria and found that male managers were more satisfied with their company promotion policies than female managers.

Socioeconomic Status

Colarelli et al. (1987) studied promotability and found that personal variables of cognitive ability, socioeconomic status, and career goals account for the most variance in promotability.

Education

Some scholars studied education as an antecedent of opportunity. Tachibanaki (1987) used a sample of Japanese employees and found that even if they had longer experiences compared to other workers, “both junior and senior high school graduates had little chance to be promoted to higher job levels” and “only junior college and university graduates had the opportunity to be promoted” (p. 603).

Zhao et al. (2006) surveyed 137 MBA graduates on “how MBA education affected their careers in terms of employment, income, promotion, performance, and satisfaction” (p. 262). They found that MBA education had a positive impact on graduates' employment, annual income, and job promotion.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES

Many studies have provided the insights for the bits and pieces of the model. Kanter (1977) stated that commitment “refers to overall attachment to the organization and is shaped in a major way by opportunity” (p. 162). “Aspirations, work commitment, and a sense of organizational responsibility could [...] be aroused by a dramatic increase in opportunity. (This is the Gerald Ford syndrome; not aspiring to the Presidency until becoming President.)” (Kanter, 1977, p. 135). Parallel to the arguments of Kanter (1977), Landau and Hammer (1986) found that “employees who desired mobility but perceived no opportunities were less committed to their organizations than employees who perceived they had opportunities for advancement” (p. 385). DeConinck and Bachman (1994) found that higher level of promotional opportunity was a significant predictor of organizational commitment. Similarly, Wallace (1995) found that organizational commitment was dependent on perceived opportunities for career advancements. Moreover, Ganesan and Weitz (1996) found that employees of companies with promotion from within policy found their work more rewarding and were more committed compared to employees of companies that hire employees from outside of the firm. Allen et al. (2003) found that growth opportunities were positively related to perceived organizational support, which was in turn positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to organizational commitment.

Quarles (1994) found that satisfaction with promotion opportunities was positively related to job satisfaction. Similarly, McElroy et al. (1996) found that having one's internal mobility expectations met was positively related to job satisfaction. Allen et al. (2003) found that growth opportunities were positively related to perceived organizational support, which was in turn positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job satisfaction.

Smith (1979) found that advancement opportunity had a negative relation with quit rates. Quarles (1994) found that satisfaction with promotion opportunities affected turnover intentions indirectly through job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Yucelt (1982) found that dissatisfaction with promotion opportunities and work insecurity were significantly related to rate of absenteeism for white-collar workers.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to absenteeism.

Kanter and Stein (1981) argued that employees who lack opportunity lost enthusiasm and contributed less. They discussed that employees could be motivated for improved performance and productivity through expanding opportunity.

“Continuing opportunity is the motivator most people need to keep them working with a high degree of effort and enthusiasm” (Kanter and Stein, 1981, p. 45). Kanter (1987) argued that “people trapped in low opportunity situations [...] felt stuck and tended to respond with lower aspirations for performance and less commitment” (p. 258). Allen et al. (1998) studied 607 managers of a large southeastern state government in terms of career plateauing and found that managers who were both hierarchically and job content plateaued reported having performance levels lower than managers who were nonplateaued.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job performance.

In cognitive psychology, one of the effects of context on social judgment is presence of comparison alternatives. “Judgment is relative. [...] How we evaluate and perceive an object is highly dependent on the nature of the alternatives around it – the point of reference we use to make a comparison” (Aronson, 1994, p. 123). In their arguments, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) took this type of social context into account. Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) argued that:

persons with few options, committed to a situation, come to appreciate its positive aspects. In contrast, persons who feel uncommitted to a situation, because of other options, may feel less favorable toward the job they have... The external offers and environment are the most salient information [...] The frequently noted difference between urban and rural workers’ reactions to their jobs might represent differences in the availability of job options [...] An important component of the process of commitment is choice [...] Once in the situation, it is better for the person to perceive few options, so that he or she is forced to come to terms with the present environment. The presence of alternatives, both at the time of the choice of behavior and subsequently, can thus determine satisfaction and other job attitudes. It is, again, the context of the job, not merely its content, that determines affective reaction (p. 244-245).

Another support for alternative opportunities as an antecedent of major organizational outcomes came from Festinger's (1957, as cited in Aronson, 1997) cognitive dissonance theory, which has been empirically verified in many experiments (Stone, 1998) and which is closely related to the arguments of Salancik and Pfeffer (1978). This is what Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) meant by "coming to terms with the present environment" when they state "once in the situation, it is better for the person to perceive few options, so that he or she is forced to come to terms with the present environment. The presence of alternatives, both at the time of the choice of behavior and subsequently, can thus determine satisfaction and other job attitudes" (p. 245).

Thus, it is hypothesized that perceived level of alternative opportunities is negatively related to positive organizational outcomes and positively related to negative organizational outcomes.

Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) imply that commitment is a natural consequence of having less alternatives when they state: "Another implication of this argument is that job satisfaction should be higher in times of high unemployment, or for those workers with either personal characteristics or skills that make them less mobile and therefore more committed to their present jobs" (p. 245). Meyer et al. (1991) found that continuance commitment strongly correlated with perceived alternatives in a negative direction.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to organizational commitment.

Pond III and Geyer (1987) found that perceived work alternatives were negatively related to job satisfaction and explained approximately 24% of the variance in job-satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to job satisfaction.

Withey and Cooper (1989) found that alternative job opportunities were related to turnover intentions. Similarly, Fujiwara-Greve and Greve (2000) found that outside opportunities were important for job change behaviors. Hwang and Kuo (2006) found that perceived alternative employment opportunities had a positive effect on turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be positively related to turnover intentions.

Larson and Fukami (1985) found that perceived level of alternative opportunities was significantly related to excused absenteeism. Markham (1985) found that absenteeism and perceived ease of finding alternative employment were significantly related.

Hypothesis 9: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be positively related to absenteeism.

Although review of literature showed that alternative opportunities for employees have not been studied as an antecedent of job performance, it is estimated that, similar to its effect on other organizational outcomes, alternative opportunities will be related to job performance.

Hypothesis 10: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to job performance.

Turnley and Feldman (1999) examined the relationships between violations of employees' psychological contracts and their exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect behaviors. Based on data from 800 managers, they found that psychological contract violations result in increased levels of exit, voice, and neglect behaviors and decreased levels of loyalty to the organization. In addition, they found that availability of attractive employment alternatives moderated the relationships between psychological contract violations and exit, but not the relationships between psychological contract violations and voice, loyalty, or neglect. Although previous studies might have found relationships between alternative opportunities and major organizational outcomes, a more rigorous approach requires examination of both perceived opportunities at work and perceived alternative opportunities in an integrative manner. A similar effect of moderation between psychological contract violations and exit may be true for the relationship between opportunity variables and major organizational outcomes as well.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment will be moderated by perceived level of

alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 13: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 14: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism.

Hypothesis 15: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job performance will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative

opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job performance.

Although there are many studies on the relationship between High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and different organizational outcomes (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Tsui et al., 1997; Berg, 1999; Den Hartog and Verburg, 2004; Combs et al., 2006; Taylor et al., 2008), there are no studies examining the relationship between HPWPs and opportunity perceptions of employees. Nevertheless, it is estimated that HPWPs, i.e. practices such as treating employees as permanent, hiring new employees with care, promoting from within the company, support for growth and development, providing training (Taylor et al., 2008) will be positively related to opportunity perceptions of employees.

Hypothesis 16: HPWPs will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

Lee (2001) studied paternalistic HR practices in Korea and argued that paternalistic HRM lacked rationality since it depended on non-institutional and informal personal ties. Moreover, in many paternalistic systems there is no systematic scientific procedure for evaluation of individuals' skills, abilities, and job performance. Instead, there is managerial autonomy in hiring, staffing, or training (Lee, 2001), which may imply that paternalism may be negatively related to opportunity perceptions of employees. However, there are also positive effects of paternalism. Paternalistic HRM has been described as a reciprocal, cooperative style of management. In paternalistic HRM, the paternal figure considers employees and

takes the employees' rights and feelings into account (Lee, 2001). The paternal figure (employer or manager) provides support and protection to those under his or her care (Aycan, 2001; Lee, 2001). Since paternalism is perceived more positively in paternalistic cultures like Turkey (Aycan, 2001; Bodur, Kabasakal, 2002; Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal, and Bodur, 2001, Dilber, 1967), it is estimated that it will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

Hypothesis 17: Perceived level of paternalism will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

In transactional leadership, the dimension of contingent rewarding may have an effect on opportunity perceptions on employees since it involves “defining the exchanges between what is expected from the follower and what the follower will receive in return” (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007, p. 123).

Hypothesis 18: Perceived level of transactional leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

In transformational leadership, the dimension of “individualized consideration” may have an effect on opportunity since it involves “understanding the needs and abilities of each follower; developing and empowering the individual follower” (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007, p. 123). Rafferty and Griffin (2006) studied one dimension of transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and found that individualized consideration was related to opportunity perceptions of employees. It

is estimated that transformational leadership will be positively related to opportunity perceptions.

Hypothesis 19: Perceived level of transformational leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

In participative leadership, superior and employees share influence in decision making (Huang et al., 2006). There are no previous studies on the relationship between participative leadership and opportunity. However, it may be considered that influence in decision-making, which is a product of participative leadership, develops employees and hence creates opportunity for employees.

Hypothesis 20: Perceived level of participative leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

As discussed previously, employee tenure and demographics have been found to be antecedents of opportunity. Landau and Hammer (1986) found that job tenure was negatively related to perceived ease of movement. Kalleberg and Van Buren (1996) found that employee tenure was negatively related to future advancement. “In general, the longer employees have been with an organization, the greater the probability that they have received all the promotions that they are likely to obtain” (Kalleberg and Van Buren, 1996, p. 59). Landau and Hammer (1986) found that age was negatively related to perceived ease of movement. Smith (1979) found that women were predominantly employed in low opportunity jobs. Similarly, Igbaria and Baroudi (1995) found that women were perceived to have less favorable chances

for promotion than men. Moreover, Okpara (2006) found that male managers were more satisfied with their company promotion policies than female managers.

Tachibanaki (1987) found that even if they had longer experiences compared to other workers, “both junior and senior high school graduates had little chance to be promoted to higher job levels” and “only junior college and university graduates had the opportunity to be promoted” (p. 603). Zhao et al. (2006) found that MBA education had a positive impact on graduates' employment, annual income, and job promotion. Colarelli et al. (1987) studied promotability and found that personal variables such as socioeconomic status accounted for the most variance in promotability.

To control for the effects of age, gender, level of education, socioeconomic status and tenure, these variables are used as control variables in the analyses.

All of the hypotheses are summarized in Table 1 and Figure 1.

Table 1 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to organizational commitment.
Hypothesis 2: Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 3: Perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 4: Perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to absenteeism.
Hypothesis 5: Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job performance.
Hypothesis 6: Perceived alternative opportunities will be negatively related to organizational commitment.
Hypothesis 7: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 8: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be positively related to turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 9: : Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be positively related to absenteeism.
Hypothesis 10: Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to job performance.
Hypothesis 11: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment.
Hypothesis 12: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction will be moderated by perceived alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 13: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 14: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism.
Hypothesis 15: The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job performance will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job performance.
Hypothesis 16: HPWPs will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

Table 1. continued

Hypothesis 17: Perceived level of paternalism will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.
Hypothesis 18: Perceived level of transactional leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.
Hypothesis 19: Perceived level of transformational leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.
Hypothesis 20: Perceived level of participative leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.

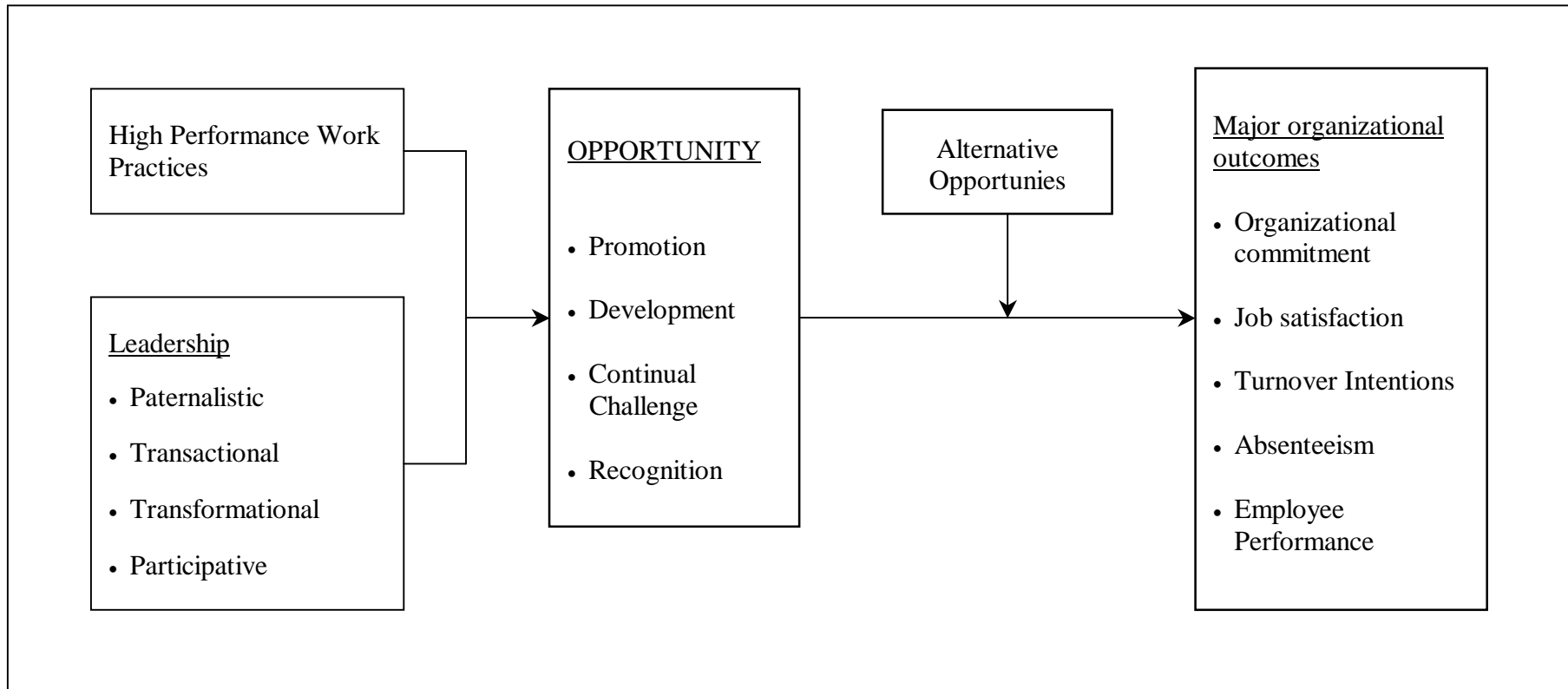


Figure 1 Summary of hypotheses

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, methodology of the study is presented. The chapter covers variables of the study, measures used, sequencing and translation of the questions on the questionnaire, and sample and procedures.

Variables

Variables of the study include opportunity, alternative opportunities, possible consequences of opportunity (i.e. organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and job performance), possible antecedents of opportunity (i.e. HPWPs and leadership dimensions of paternalistic, transactional, transformational, and participative leadership), and control variables (age, gender, level of education, socioeconomic status, and tenure).

Opportunity

There are four types of work opportunities (literature basis indicated in parentheses):

1. Promotion opportunities (Kanter, 1977; Kanter and Stein, 1981; Harlan, 1989; Caudron, 1994).
2. Developmental opportunities for employees (Kanter and Stein, 1981; Yang et al., 2004).

3. Continual challenge (i.e. opportunity for challenging work, lateral moves with new challenges, and new responsibilities) (Kanter and Stein, 1981; Caudron, 1994).
4. Recognition (Kanter, 1986; Wayne et al., 2002).

Alternative Opportunities

Alternative opportunities are availability of alternative job opportunities, which an employee perceives, outside the current organization he or she works for.

Criterion Variables

Organizational Commitment

Following Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974), the following definition of organizational commitment is adopted in this research:

the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Such commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Some evidence exists that a stated intention to remain with the organization (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604).

Job Satisfaction

Price and Mueller (1986) define job satisfaction as “the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organization” (p.

215). Following Price and Mueller (1986), in this research, job satisfaction is defined as the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation towards employment by the organization.

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions are intentions of quitting one's job.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is number of days an employee is absent from work except for entitled holidays in a year.

Employee Performance

Performance of employees as perceived by them is examined.

Independent Variables

High Performance Work Practices

High performance work practices are human resource practices that have consistently been found as enhancing firm performance by empirical work (Huselid, 1995).

These are practices such as treating employees as permanent, hiring new employees with care, promoting from within the company, support for growth and development,

and providing training (Taylor et al., 2008).

Leadership

Paternalism: Following Aycan (2006), paternalism is the degree of genuine concern for employee welfare received from one's manager.

Transactional leadership: One dimension of transactional leadership, namely contingent rewarding is used. Following Rowold and Heinitz (2007), contingent rewarding is the degree of defining the exchanges between what is expected from the follower and what the follower will receive in return.

Transformational leadership: One dimension of transformational leadership, namely individualized consideration is used. Following Rowold and Heinitz (2007), individualized consideration is the degree of understanding the needs and abilities of each follower and developing and empowering the individual follower.

Participative leadership: Participative leadership is the leadership style in which superior and employees share influence in decision making.

Control Variables

Employee Demographics

Employee demographics are age, gender, and level of education, and socioeconomic status of employees.

Tenure of Employee

Tenure of an employee is the length of time employee has been with the firm.

Measures

This section covers how the constructs of the study are operationalized.

Opportunity

Types of opportunity include promotional opportunity, developmental opportunity, continual challenge, and recognition.

Promotional Opportunity

Perceived promotional opportunity is measured with a total of three items.

Following Ganesan and Weitz (1996), promotion opportunity is measured with the item:

1. This company has a lot of promotion opportunities for me.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Perceived promotion opportunity for the next five years is measured with an item adapted from Kalleberg and Van Buren (1996):

2. What is the likelihood that you will be promoted to a higher position with your present employer in the next five years?

Response scale: 1=no likelihood, 2=low likelihood, 3=moderate likelihood, 4=high likelihood, 5=certain / no doubt.

Perceived promotion opportunity in general is measured with an item adapted from Greenhaus et al. (1990) and Igbaria and Baroudi (1995):

3. How would you rate your chances for promotions in this company in general?

Response scale: 1= no chance 2=low chance, 3=moderate chance, 4=good chance, 5=very good chance

Developmental Opportunity

Perceived developmental opportunity is measured with a total of three items.

Perceived level of opportunity for professional growth is measured with an item adapted from Kim et al. (1996):

1. The company I work for provides the opportunity for me to keep up with new developments related to my job.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Following Noe et al. (1988), perceived level of developmental opportunity is measured with the following adapted item:

2. I have sufficient opportunity to develop new skills and abilities in the company I work for.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Following Prince (2005), perceived level of developmental opportunity is also measured with the following adapted item:

3. My job gives me the chance to learn new things.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Continual Challenge

Continual challenge covers opportunity for challenging work, lateral moves with new challenges, and new responsibilities. Continual challenge is measured with a total of four items. Two items used by Carmeli (2005) to measure job challenge are adapted and used:

1. My job requires me to do many different things at work, using a variety of skills and talents.
2. My job is quite simple and repetitive.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Since there are no previously developed scales to measure the perceived level of opportunity for lateral moves with new challenges, a new item is produced. A lateral move at work can be a move to another department or another type of job without promotion. Perceived level of opportunity for lateral moves with new challenges is measured with the following item:

3. In my present company, I have the chance to do a different job or work in a different department in which I can learn new things.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Opportunity for new responsibilities is measured with the following item:

4. My job may get bigger through new responsibilities in the future.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Recognition

Perceived level of recognition is measured with a total of three items. Following Wayne et al. (2002), the following items are used:

Please compare yourself with your colleagues at about the same level at the company you work for and indicate how much of the following opportunities you have compared to them:

1. Visibility to upper management (opportunity to distinguish yourself).
2. Personal attention from upper management.
3. Recognition from upper level management.

Response scale: 1=much less, 2=less, 3=same level, 4=more, 5=much more

Alternative Opportunities

Alternative opportunities are measured with a total of four items. Two items by Kim et al. (1996) are adapted and used:

1. There is at least one other job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave my present employer.
2. Given the state of the job market, finding another job would be very difficult for me.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Following Price (2001), another scale by Kim et al. (1996) is adapted and used as well:

3. How easy would it be for you to find a job with another employer that is as good as the one you now have?

4. How easy would it be for you to find a job with another employer that is better than the one you now have?

Response scale: Very easy; easy; neither difficult, nor easy; difficult; very difficult.

Organizational Commitment

Two commonly used measures of organizational commitment are scales of Mowday and Steers (1979, as cited in Price and Mueller, 1986) and Allen and Meyer (1990).

Following Taylor et al. (2008) and Allen et al. (2003), organizational commitment is measured using four items from the 9-item version of the Organizational

Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday and Steers (1979, as cited in Price and Mueller, 1986). Originally, the scale had 15 items. However, Bozeman and Perrewé (2001) found that six of the 15 items (i.e. items 4, 7, 9, 11, 14, and 15) had overlapping content with turnover cognitions. Thus, items from the 9-item version of the scale, which removes withdrawal related items that may confound the scale (Allen et al., 2003) are used.

Some scholars, such as Schappe and Doran (1997) and Kondratuk et al. (2004) preferred to use the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Wasti (2000, 2003a, 2003b) preferred to use the scale of Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) in

her studies in Turkey. But even Meyer et al. (1991) identified Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday and Steers (1979, as cited in Price and Mueller, 1986) to be the most widely used commitment measure. Moreover, one type of commitment, namely continuance commitment (other two types are affective and normative), includes some items, which measure perceived lack of alternatives. Thus, it might be argued that correlation between perceived lack of alternatives and continuance commitment reflects content redundancy (Meyer et al., 1991). To test this possibility, additional analyses were performed by Meyer et al. (1991) by removing alternatives-related items from the continuance commitment scale. Correlations were significant indicating that there was no content redundancy. Normative commitment items in Allen and Meyer (1990) are irrelevant since the aim in this study is to measure employees' commitment to their organizations, not their general normative beliefs on commitment in organizations.

Moreover, cross-cultural generalizability of Meyer et al.'s scale is still in question (Taylor et al., 2008). A meta-analysis of commitment studies that used the Allen and Meyer's three-component measure of commitment revealed that the correlations among the affective and normative components of commitment is higher in studies conducted outside North America (Meyer et al. 2002), which may lead us to question the cross-cultural generalizability of three-component measure of commitment. Since, the study is carried outside of North America, in Turkey, it is found more appropriate to use the most widely used measure of commitment, which is Organizational Commitment Questionnaire by Mowday and Steers (1979, cited in Price and Mueller, 1986).

Following Taylor et al. (2008) and Allen et al. (2003), organizational commitment is measured with four items adapted from the 9-item version of the

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday and Steers (1979, as cited in Price and Mueller, 1986) as follows:

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
2. I feel very little loyalty to the company I work for.
3. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.
4. I really care about the fate of this company.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is measured with a total of four items. One item of Cole (1979, as cited in Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1985) is adapted and used as follows:

1. I would recommend this job to a friend.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

2. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your current job?

Response scale: 1 = totally unsatisfied, 2=somewhat unsatisfied, 3=neither satisfied nor unsatisfied, 4=somewhat satisfied, 5 = completely satisfied

Two items of Quinn and Shepard (1974, as cited in Pond III and Geyer, 1987) are used as well:

3. If you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?

Response scale: 1 = definitely not take it, 2=probably not take it, 3=I don't know, 4=probably take it, 5 = definitely take it

4. In general, I like my job a lot.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intention is measured with a total of three items. An item adapted from Landau and Hammer (1986) is used:

1. I am actively looking for a job in another company.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

An item by Ganesan and Weitz (1996) is used as well:

2. I intend to leave this company within a short period of time.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Moreover, one of the items used by Price (2001) adapted from Kim et al. (1996) is used as well:

3. I plan to stay with my present employer as long as possible.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is measured by asking employees how many days they are absent from work (except for entitled holidays) on average per year.

Job Performance

Job performance is measured with a total of three items. Two items from Becker et al. (1996) are adapted as follows:

1. Please rate your performance in terms of the quality of your work.
2. Please rate your performance in terms of the quantity of your work.

Response scale: 1=very low, 2=low, 3=neither low, nor high, 4= high, 5=very high

One item adapted from Allen et al. (1998) is utilized as well:

3. Please rate your overall performance.

Response scale: 1=very low, 2=low, 3=neither low, nor high, 4= high, 5=very high

Demographics of Employee

Age, gender, level of education completed (illiterate, primary school, secondary school, high school, 2-year degree, bachelors, masters, or PhD) of employees are obtained from employees.

Following Colarelli et al. (1987), socioeconomic status is measured by asking respondents occupational and educational status of their parents. The highest parental score (of a respondent's mother or father) becomes the respondent's socioeconomic status score. Occupational and educational status of mothers and

fathers may or may not be correlated. They form socioeconomic status together. In that sense, socioeconomic status is a formative scale. It is not a reflective scale like others in which factor analyses were appropriate.

To calculate socioeconomic status for each respondent, firstly parental scores are calculated. Educational score of a parent can be at least 1 ('did not complete primary school education') and at most 7 (graduate education, i.e., masters or PhD). Occupational score of a parent can also be at least 1 and at most 7. 1 is for unemployed or housewife; 2 is for peasant/farmer or worker; 3 is for tradesperson; 4 is for civil servant; 5 is for lower manager; 6 is for middle manager; and 7 is for top manager, company owner/partner, or self-employed professional (e.g. lawyer, doctor, dentist). This ordinal rating of occupations was formed by the author. One PhD student in the Department of Management and one Masters student in the Department of Politics, both at Bogazici University, were asked to rate the occupations from 1 to 7. Both formed the same rating with no exceptions.

A parent's score is calculated as the average of his or her education and occupation scores. Thus, it can be at least 1 and 7 at most. The scores of mother and father are compared and the highest parental score becomes the respondent's socioeconomic status score.

Tenure of Employee

Following Kalleberg and Van Buren (1996), tenure of an employee is measured by asking employees the number of years they have worked for their present employers.

High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

HPWPs are measured utilizing the scale compiled by Taylor et al. (2008) utilizing various previously developed scales of Arthur (1992), Huselid (1995), MacDuffie (1995), Delery and Doty (1996), Pfeffer (1998, as cited in Taylor et al., 2008). To measure HPWPs, the following four items are used:

1. This organization hires new employees with care.
2. This organization tries to retain rather than release employees when their jobs are eliminated.
3. Whenever possible, this organization promotes employees from within the company rather than filling positions with outside candidates.
4. This organization gives support for growth and development of employees.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Leadership

Paternalistic Leadership

Following Aycan (2006), paternalism is measured with four items from the 21-item scale used by Aycan (2006):

1. My manager treats his/her employees as if he/she were a family member (father/mother or brother/sister).
2. My manager expects attachment and loyalty from his/her employees in return for his/her care and involvement.

3. Performance is not the most important criterion while my manager is making decisions (e.g. on promotion, dismissal, etc.) about his or her employees.

4. My manager wants to have full control over and be fully informed about all issues related to work.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Transactional Leadership

Contingent rewarding (transactional leadership) is measured with a total of three items. The following items are adapted from Following Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999):

1- My manager clarifies rewards (that we can achieve based on our work, effort, and success).

2- My manager rewards my achievements.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

One item used by Greenhaus et al. (1990) in measuring supervisory support is adapted and used since it is very much related to contingent rewarding:

3- My manager makes sure I get the credit when I accomplish something substantial on the job.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Transformational Leadership

Individualized consideration (transformational leadership) is measured with a total of three items. The following items are adapted from Rafferty and Griffin (2006):

- 1- My manager encourages me to improve my job-related skills and abilities.
- 2- My manager gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Another item is produced using the operational definition of individualized consideration by Avolio et al. (1999) which is: “Individualized Consideration focuses on understanding the needs of each follower and works continuously to get them to develop to their full potential” (p. 444). The item is as follows:

- 3- My manager works to get me develop my full potential.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

Participative Leadership

Following Huang et al. (2006), four items from the scale of Empowering Leadership Questionnaire by Arnold et al. (2000), are adapted and used to measure perceived participative leadership behavior:

- 1- My manager encourages us to express ideas/suggestions.
- 2- My manager listens to our ideas and suggestions.
- 3- My manager uses our suggestions to make decisions that affect us.

4- My manager considers our ideas when he/she disagrees with us.

Response scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.

All the items, except for the third one, represent consultative leadership characteristics rather than ensuring participation of followers. Thus, it can be argued that the type of leadership explored under the heading of participative leadership in this study overlaps with consultative leadership. However, the third item (i.e. 'My manager uses our suggestions to make decisions that affect us') also brings a participative emphasis.

Sequencing of Questions

In their article introducing a social information processing approach to attitudes, behavior, and job characteristics, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) argued that attitude measurement could itself create attitudes due to the effects of information saliency. Thus, asking first about opportunity perceptions and alternative opportunity perceptions may make the issues (of opportunity and alternative opportunities) more salient than they are before. This kind of information saliency may create new attitudes. Thus, if opportunity and the moderator are asked before major organizational outcomes, subjects may show stronger attitudes than they would normally do. For instance, one subject may be committed to his/her organization. Having answered the questions on opportunity and alternative opportunities, he/she may realize that there is lack of opportunity for him/her in the current organization, and many alternative opportunities in other firms exist. Because of the attitude measurement, this committed subject may change his/her attitude to his/her current

organization, and score low on the commitment section. To avoid such information saliency effects, sequencing of questions has paramount importance. It is best to follow the model from the end to the beginning. Thus, the sequencing of questions is as follows:

- 1- Major organizational outcomes.
- 2- Opportunity and alternative opportunities.
- 3- Antecedents and control variables (High performance work practices, leadership, tenure, and demographics: age, gender, education, and socioeconomic status).

Translation of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire items are translated to Turkish by the author. They are then back translated to English by a professional translator. Differences between the original translation and back translation are then documented and analyzed by another professional translator. In the case of major differences, the second translator checks whether the Turkish translation is correct and makes corrections when necessary.

The items on paternalism by Aycan (2006) are originally in Turkish. The same procedures are carried out for these items. These items are translated to English by the author. They are then back translated to Turkish by a professional translator.

Differences between the original translation and back translation are then documented and analyzed by the second professional translator. There are no major differences for these items, thus no corrections are necessary.

The items are further clarified and purified using feedback from a pre-test sample and pilot sample, which are described below.

Sample and Procedures

The target respondents are white-collar employees in manufacturing and service companies from diverse industries in Istanbul, Turkey. Respondents are both manager and non-manager white collar employees working in different types of jobs in manufacturing and service companies with different sizes.

Pre-Test Sample

Before carrying out a pilot study, the questionnaire is filled in by ten white-collar employees from different companies. Five of the respondents are male and five of them are female. Eight of them are university graduates and two have high school diplomas. Three of the respondents are managers. Seven of the respondents work in service sectors, three work in manufacturing companies. Respondents are asked to fill in the questionnaire and note the questions that were unclear. Based on the feedback from the respondents, the pre-testing of the questionnaire result in clarification of the items.

Pilot Sample

A pilot study is carried out to test reliability of the scales and delete items when necessary. Three companies are visited and with the permission of the Chief Executive Officers, questionnaires are distributed to white-collar employees. Employees are briefed about the study and the questionnaire, and requested to feel

free to ask for any clarifications on the questions. Filled-in questionnaires are collected one hour later.

One of the companies is in manufacturing, one is in retailing, and one is in architecture. Numbers of respondents are 62 employees from the manufacturing company, 31 from the retailing company, and 9 from the architecture company. Total pilot sample size is 102 white-collar employees 56% of who are women. 1% of the respondents have secondary school, 20% have high school, 25% have 2-year university degree, 43% have bachelor's degree, and 11% have master's degree education. 28% of the respondents are managers.

Clarification requests on questions and the way the questions are clarified are noted which result in further purification of the questionnaire items. Reliability of each scale is computed using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alphas if items were deleted are computed as well. This results in deletion of some items, which is explained in the Findings chapter. The data from the pilot sample is not used in factor analyses or hypotheses testing.

Actual sample

The target population of the study is white-collar employees in Istanbul, Turkey. Since, the study covers many variables, the questionnaire is quite long, which would yield very low response rate in a probabilistic sample. Thus, convenience sampling of organizations, in which cooperation of management is present, is carried out in this study. Snowballing technique, in which connection with new organizations is obtained through referrals, is used.

Seven companies are visited, and with the permission of the Chief Executive

Officers, questionnaires are distributed to employees. Employees are briefed about the study and the questionnaire. Filled-in questionnaires are collected one hour later and in some cases several hours later or on a later day when the employees are too busy. In two companies, due to the requests of Chief Executive Officers, questionnaires are collected by an employee from the Human Resources department and mailed to the author. As in all cases, names of employees are anonymous.

There is one key contact person, who is the Chairman of the Board of Gebze Organized Industrial Zone. There are ninety-five firms in Gebze Organized Industrial Zone with approximately 13,000 employees. Due to the request of the key contact person, the author does not visit the firms referred by him. He coordinates the questionnaire distribution and collection himself, which results in 341 responses from 68 firms. An employee from each firm distributes the questionnaires and collects them. A control mechanism developed by the key contact person is applied. A cover page, which asks for the name of company, number of employees and type of industry, is filled in by the CEO or General Manager of each firm. The CEO or General Manager seals and signs the cover page as well. These cover pages are collected along with accompanying questionnaires. In all cases, anonymity is guaranteed. The filled in questionnaires are not available to CEOs or General Managers. An employee from each firm distributes the questionnaires, collects them, and gives them to the key contact person along with the cover pages filled in by the CEO or General Manager of each firm. As in all cases, names of employees are anonymous.

In total, 550 white-collar employees from seventy-five different companies fill in the questionnaire. Of the seventy-five companies, fifty-seven (76%) are in manufacturing (air conditioner, aluminum, automotive parts, chemical, electronics,

food, furniture, machine, metal, packaging, paint, plastic, polyester, sawdust, screw, shoe, souvenir, steel, textile, and toys), fourteen (19%) are in service (advertising, architecture, cargo services, catering, documentation, education, electric services, insurance, printing, real estate, security, and tourism), three (4%) are in export-import, and one (1%) is in retailing.

The sampling method is also judgment sampling. Since the aim is to collect data from both managers and non-managers working in different sized firms, while collecting the questionnaires, a balanced distribution of size of the firms and managers versus non-managers is sought after. In case of the responses from the Gebze Organized Industrial Zone, the key contact is also informed that the aim is to collect data from both managers and non-managers working in different sized firms.

Following the guideline by Observatory of European SMEs (2007), companies employing up to nine employees are categorized as micro firms, 10-49 employees as small-sized firms, 50-249 as medium-sized firms, and 250 and more employees as large-scaled firms. Out of 550 respondents, 528 answered the question on whether they were managers or not. Out of these 528 respondents, 242 (46%) are in micro and small firms, and 286 (54%) are in medium and large firms, which are quite close to each other. Moreover, percentages of managers are very close when micro and small firms (24%) and medium and large firms (26%) are compared. The crosstabulation of number of managers and non-managers across micro and small, and medium and large firms is depicted in Table 2. The smallest firm employs 2 employees and the largest employs 1300 employees. Number of employees and number of respondents are depicted in detail in Table 3.

Table 2 Crosstabulation of Being a Manager or Not and Size of Company

			Size of Company		
			Micro and Small	Medium and Large	Total
Manager or Not	Manager	Count	59	73	132
		% within Size of Company	24%	26%	25%
	Non-manager	Count	183	213	396
		% within Size of Company	76%	74%	75%
Total		Count	242	286	528
		% within Size of Company	100%	100%	100%

Only 19% of the companies employ fifty or more people. However, 56% of the respondents work in these companies. In Turkey, 42% of employees work in companies that employ fifty or more people (Yilmaz, 2003). It can be argued that the characteristic of sample in that respect is close to that of Turkish population.

Table 3 Crosstabulation of Number of Companies & Respondents and Company Size

	Number of Employees					
	1-9	10-49	50-249	250-499	500-999	1,000+
Number of companies	10	51	9	1	3	1
%	13%	68%	12%	1%	4%	1%
Number of respondents	27	217	114	40	95	57
%	5%	39%	21%	7%	17%	10%

Majority (64%) of the respondents are male. Majority of the respondents (68%) are between the ages of twenty-five and thirty-nine. 12% of the respondents are up to the

age of twenty-four, and 20% are at the age of forty or above. Majority of the respondents (55%) are high school graduates. 12% have primary or secondary school education, and 33% have university education (10% have two-year degree at universities, 20% have bachelor degrees, and 3% have masters).

25% of the respondents are managers. Majority (46%) of the respondents have tenures of between six and fourteen years. 35% have tenures of five years or less. 19% have tenures of fifteen or more years.

The data obtained from this sample is used in factor analyses and analyses for hypotheses testing, which are covered in the following chapter on Findings.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

Reliability Check with Pilot Sample

Before distributing the questionnaire to the actual sample, reliabilities of the variables are examined computing Cronbach's alphas using the data from the pilot sample of 102 employees to see whether the number of items can be decreased. The results show that deletion of seven items increases reliabilities of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, promotional opportunity, continual challenge, alternative opportunities, and paternalistic leadership. These items are:

1. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (Organizational commitment)
2. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your current job? (Job satisfaction)
3. I plan to stay with my present employer as long as possible. (Turnover intentions)
4. This company has a lot of promotion opportunities for me. (Promotional opportunity)
5. My job is quite simple and repetitive. (Continual challenge)
6. Given the state of the job market, finding another job would be very difficult for me. (Alternative opportunities)
7. Performance is not the most important criterion while my manager is making decisions (e.g. on promotion, dismissal, etc.) about his or her employees. (Paternalistic Leadership)

Second, third, fifth, and sixth items are deleted. First item is not deleted because it is considered that some of the respondents falsely perceive the item as a

positive item. Thus, the item is rephrased as ‘I feel a high level of loyalty to the company I work for’. Fourth and seventh items are not deleted so as not to decrease the number of items in the related variables. The questionnaire is updated before using it in the actual sample. Please refer to Appendix A for the questionnaire in English and Appendix B for the questionnaire in Turkish.

The data from the pilot sample is not used in factor analyses or hypotheses testing.

Reliability Check with Actual Sample

Using the data from the actual sample of 550 employees, reliabilities of the variables are examined computing Cronbach’s alphas. Please refer to the ‘Reliability Calculations of the Variables of the Study’ in Appendix C. Based on the figures of ‘Cronbach’s alpha if items deleted’, the following two items are deleted and not used in further analyses:

1. Performance is not the most important criterion while my manager is making decisions (e.g. on promotion, dismissal, etc.) about his or her employees.
(Paternalistic leadership)
2. My manager encourages us to express ideas/suggestions. (Participative leadership)

The resulting Cronbach’s alphas of the variables of the study are given in Table 7.

Factor Analyses

To prepare the data for hypothesis testing, factor analyses are carried out for all variables with two or more items, except for socioeconomic status. As stated previously, socioeconomic status has a composite scale that was calculated separately. Before carrying out factor analyses, items are tested for normality. Skewness and kurtosis statistics were divided by their related standard errors, to see if the results were between -1 and 1 . For items, which did not meet the normality assumption, possible transformations, including taking square root, logarithm, inverse, and logit, are carried out which does not improve normality. Although there are items, which do not meet the normality assumption, factor analyses are carried out based on the argument of Hair et al. (1998) who stated:

From a statistical standpoint, the departures from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity apply only to the extent that they diminish the observed correlations. Only normality is necessary if a statistical test is applied to the significance of the factors, but these tests are rarely used [...] The underlying assumption impact factor analysis to the extent that they affect derived correlations. Departures from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity can diminish correlations between variables (p. 99, 121).

Factor analyses are carried out by Principal Component Analysis using SPSS 15.0.

Please refer to Table 4 for summary information on factor analyses.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy figures, which indicate the suitability of data for factor analysis, are all 0.500 or above, which is satisfactory. Although KMO figures are all 0.500 or above, anti-image correlations (figures in Measure of Sampling Adequacy diagonal) were compared to KMO figures as well. None of the anti-image correlations are largely smaller than KMO figures.

Table 4 Summary Information on Factor Analyses

	Number of Factors	Total Variance Explained	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Lowest Correlation in the Measure of Sampling Adequacy Diagonal	% of Significant Correlations in the Correlation Matrix	Lowest Factor Loading
Organizational Commitment	1	78%	.828	.000	.780	100%	.834
Job Satisfaction	1	64%	.655	.000	.622	100%	.737
Turnover Intentions	1	87%	.500	.000	.500	100%	.935
Performance	1	88%	.766	.000	.742	100%	.931
Alternative Opportunities	1	67%	.571	.000	.544	100%	.583
HPWPs	1	56%	.703	.000	.675	100%	.705
Opportunity	3	73%	.851	.000	.761	100%	.557
Leadership	4	81%	.896	.000	.834	100%	.600

KMO=Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

According to Sharma (1996), a KMO measure above .60 is tolerable. Only two variables have KMO measures below 0.60. These are turnover intentions and alternative opportunities. However, no items are deleted from these variables since turnover intention has only two and alternative opportunity has only three items.

Significances of Bartlett's test of sphericity are all .000, which indicate that there are probably significant relationships among the variables. Correlation matrices are examined. For each variable, 100% are significantly correlated. Thus, there are more than satisfactory numbers of correlated items.

Most variables load only to one factor. Total variance explained is 78%, 64%, 87%, 88%, 67%, and 56% for organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, employee performance, alternative opportunities, and HPWPs respectively with one factor each. Total variance explained is 73% with three factors for opportunity items, and it is 81% with four factors for leadership items. Hair et al. (1998) stated, "in the social sciences [...] it is not uncommon to consider a solution that accounts for 60 percent of the variance (and in some instances even less) as satisfactory" (p. 104). Following Hair et al. (1998), all total variance explained figures are considered satisfactory.

Factor loadings of opportunity items are given in Table 5. In case of opportunity and leadership, there are items, which load on more than one factor, thus rotation is carried out. In case of opportunity items, after Varimax rotation, items on promotion load to one factor that is named 'promotion'. Items on recognition load to one factor as well as expected that is named 'recognition'. However, items on development and items on continual challenge load to one factor all together. This factor is named 'development' for simplicity since continual challenge can be considered a developmental opportunity as well.

Table 5 Factor Loadings of Opportunity Items

Items	Factors		
	Development	Recognition	Promotion
My job gives me the chance to learn new things	0.853		
My job requires me to do many different things at work, using a variety of skills and talents	0.831		
I have sufficient opportunity to develop new skills and abilities in the company I work for	0.813		
The company I work for provides the opportunity for me to keep up with new developments related to my job	0.747		
My job may get bigger through new responsibilities in the future	0.653		
In my present company, I have the chance to do a different job or work in a different department in which I can learn new things	0.557		
Personal attention from upper management		0.898	
Recognition from upper level management		0.881	
Visibility to upper management (opportunity to distinguish yourself)		0.880	
What is the likelihood that you will be promoted to a higher position with your present employer in the next five years?			0.897
How would you rate your chances for promotions in this company in general?			0.892
This company has a lot of promotion opportunities for me			0.564
Eigenvalue	5.660	1.836	1.267
Variance (%)	31.25	21.84	19.94
Cumulative Variance (%)	31.25	53.09	73.03

In case of leadership items, items on paternalistic, transactional, transformational, and participative leadership load to one factor each, resulting in four factors as expected. Opportunity related items load with at least .557. Leadership items load with at least .600. According to Hair et al (1998), factor loading of .600 is significant at a sample size of 85, while .500 is significant for sample size 120 and over. Thus,

both factor loadings are significant.

Factor scores for all variables are calculated for each respondent as new variables, ready to be used in regression analyses. As stated previously, summary information on factor analyses are provided in Table 4. Cronbach's alpha figures are given in Table 7.

Summary Statistics of Study Variables

Table 6 shows means, maximum and minimum values, and standard deviations of study variables. Of the three opportunity variables, that are, promotion, development, and recognition, on a 5-point scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree, employees perceive that they mostly have development opportunities (3.332), followed by recognition (3.053) both of which are above the mid-point of the scale 3.000 $[(1+5)/2=3]$. The opportunity that employees perceive they have the least is promotion (2.492). Thus, on average respondents are slightly more inclined to state that they do not have promotional opportunities.

Of the four leadership variables, that are, paternalistic, transactional, transformational, and participative leadership, on a 5-point scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree, employees perceive that their managers have paternalistic leadership attributes (3.761) most, followed by transformational leadership (3.497) and participative leadership (3.432). Employees perceive that their managers have transactional leadership attributes (3.307) the least. In all leadership variables, respondents are more inclined to agree that their managers are transactional, transformational, participative, but especially paternalistic leaders.

Table 6 Summary Statistics of Study Variables

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Organizational Commitment	517	1.00	5.00	3.788	.818
Job Satisfaction	508	1.33	5.00	3.634	.767
Turnover Intentions	526	1.00	5.00	2.399	1.064
Absenteeism	495	.00	10.00	3.119	2.863
Employee Performance	531	1.00	5.00	3.589	.803
Promotion	526	1.00	5.00	2.492	.909
Development	522	1.00	5.00	3.332	.801
Recognition	528	1.00	5.00	3.053	.868
Alternative Opportunities	533	1.00	5.00	3.063	.742
HPWPs	528	1.25	5.00	3.402	.708
Paternalistic Leadership	531	1.00	5.00	3.671	.782
Transactional Leadership	525	1.00	5.00	3.307	.840
Transformational Leadership	539	1.00	5.00	3.497	.839
Participative Leadership	515	1.00	5.00	3.432	.921

In terms of alternative opportunities, on a 5-point scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree, the mean score is 3.063 which indicates that on average respondents neither agree nor disagree that they have alternative opportunities.

In organizational outcomes, the respondents score highest on organizational commitment (3.788) followed by job satisfaction (3.634) and employee performance (3.589). All of the scores are above 3.000, thus respondents are inclined to agree that they are committed to their organizations, have job satisfaction, and have high performance. Respondents are absent from work at least for 0 days and at most for 10 days per year, on average, with a mean of 3.119 days. They score 2.399 on turnover intentions meaning that on average they are inclined to disagree that they intend to leave their firms.

Employees, on average, are more inclined to agree that their organizations carry out high performance work practices (HPWPs) (3.402).

Table 7 shows Cronbach's alphas of, and correlations between study variables. All independent variables are significantly correlated with development.

HPWPs, paternalistic and participative leaderships are significantly correlated with recognition. HPWPs, transactional and participative leaderships are significantly correlated with promotion.

When the relationships between opportunity variables and dependent variables are considered, development, and recognition are significantly correlated with all of the dependent variables, i.e. positively with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee performance, and negatively with turnover intentions and absenteeism. However, promotion is significantly correlated only with job satisfaction.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses are tested by carrying out several multiple regression analyses.

The Steps Followed in Carrying out Multiple Regression Analyses

Five steps are followed in carrying out multiple regression analyses. Firstly, hierarchical regression analyses are carried out. Secondly, results of the analyses are examined to see if assumptions of linearity of the variate, homoscedasticity, independence of error terms, and normal distribution of error terms are met. For linearity of the variate, null plot (plot of standardized residuals vs. predicted values) is examined. None of the null plots exhibit any nonlinear pattern of residuals. Partial regression plots for each independent variable are examined as well. They all have linear relationships with dependent variables.

Table 7 Cronbach's Alphas of and Correlations between Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Organizational Commitment	(.91)													
2 Job Satisfaction	.736**	(.70)												
3 Turnover Intentions	-.471**	-.463**	(.86)											
4 Absenteeism	-.286**	-.266**	.305**	NA										
5 Employee Performance	.520**	.438**	-.478**	-.374**	(.94)									
6 Promotion	.052	.094*	-.076	-.088	.084	(.84)								
7 Development and Challenge	.421**	.522**	-.281**	-.111*	.235**	.036	(.88)							
8 Recognition and Visibility	.256**	.273**	-.122**	-.163**	.224**	.021	-.002	(.91)						
9 Alternative Opportunities	.185**	.108*	-.025	-.108*	.256**	.087	.099*	.212**	(.72)					
10 HPWPs	.398**	.450**	-.319**	-.039	.239**	.197**	.480**	.235**	.094*	(.74)				
11 Paternalistic Leadership	.259**	.251**	-.282**	-.048	.230**	-.075	.186**	.102*	-.007	.430**	(.78)			
12 Transactional Leadership	.094*	.127**	-.079	-.023	-.032	.212**	.193**	.065	-.152**	.295**	.003	(.87)		
13 Transformational Leadership	.180**	.218**	-.095*	.014	.089*	.083	.304**	.055	.017	.241**	-.009	.016	(.90)	
14 Participative Leadership	.406**	.441**	-.311**	-.226**	.285**	.155**	.428**	.239**	.199**	.369**	-.007	-.010	.007	(.92)

Cronbach's alpha coefficients are in parentheses on the diagonal.

*p<.05, two-tailed. **p<.01, two-tailed.

NA=Not applicable since the variable is single-item.

CS= Not applicable since it is a composite scale.

For the assumption of constant variance of error terms (homoscedasticity), null plots are examined. They show no patterns of residuals, which imply homoscedasticity.

For the assumption of independence of error terms, the results of Durbin-Watson tests are examined. A simplistic approach in examination of Durbin-Watson values is to examine whether they are larger than or equal to two. However, a more rigorous approach requires Durbin-Watson values to be compared to relevant figures in Durbin-Watson statistic table. Durbin-Watson table gives lower and upper d values for specific sample sizes with specific number of independent variables. For instance, at 5% significance, for a sample size of 20, and 5 independent variables, d -lower is 0.70 and d -upper is 1.99. If Durbin-Watson value is lower than d -lower (i.e. 0.70 in that instance), it means that error terms are not independent. If Durbin-Watson value is larger than d -upper (i.e. 1.99 in that instance), then one can safely conclude that error terms are independent. However, if the value is between d -lower and d -upper, the test is inconclusive (Durbin and Watson, 1951). The figures change dramatically when the sample size becomes, for instance, 100. The d -lower becomes 1.57 and d -upper becomes 1.78. The largest sample size on the original Durbin-Watson table is 100 with five independent variables. Thus, the table can not be used in this study, which has a sample size of 550. Savin and White (1977) developed a table for larger samples and more independent variables. However, the largest sample size on their table is 200, which is not sufficient for this study. Critical values for the Durbin-Watson test to use for samples up to 2000 observations are given on the website of Stanford University (2006). When Durbin-Watson values of the study are compared to d -table values using this table, it is seen that some of the values provide support for independence of error terms, some of them provide support for dependence of error terms, and for some values, the results are

inconclusive. However, since there has been no published work on this table, the results based on the table are not provided in this study. Nevertheless, Durbin Watson values are indicated in the results of the analyses.

For the assumption of normal distribution of error terms, normal probability plots of the standardized residuals are examined. The values fell along the diagonals with no important or systematic departures. Thus, residuals are distributed normally.

Thirdly, model fits are assessed in each regression examining significance of F value in the tests of ANOVA. All F values are significant. Thus, all R^2 values are significant.

Fourthly, multicollinearity is assessed. According to Hair et al. (1998), to be able to find no support for multicollinearity, no condition index should be greater than 30 and no VIF value should be greater than 10. The largest condition index value in analyses is 17.590, which is below 30. VIF values are all close to 1, but the largest one is 2.116, which is well below 10. Thus, there is no problem of multicollinearity.

Fifthly, R^2 and adjusted R^2 values are compared. All R^2 values are greater than relevant adjusted R^2 values, “which indicates that the estimated model is not over-fitted to the sample and maintains an adequate ratio of observations to variables in the variate” (Hair et al., 1998, p. 209).

In hypotheses testing, firstly, the relationships of opportunity and alternative opportunities with major organizational outcomes (criterion variables) are explored with hierarchical moderated regressions. The interaction of opportunity and alternative opportunities in the relationship between opportunity and major organizational outcomes is also explored. Five analyses are carried out, one for each major organizational outcome. Secondly, the relationships between independent

variables (i.e. HPWPs and leadership variables) and opportunity variables are tested with hierarchical regression analyses, controlling for age, gender, education, socioeconomic status, and tenure. Three analyses are carried out, one for each opportunity variable.

Relationships of Opportunity and Alternative Opportunities with Criterion Variables

The relationships between opportunity variables and major organizational outcomes, moderated by alternative opportunities, are explored with two-step hierarchical moderated regression analyses. In first step, opportunity variables (i.e. recognition, promotion, and development) and alternative opportunities are entered as one block into the equation. Then, the cross-product terms, which are calculated as the product of opportunity variables and the moderator (alternative opportunities), are entered into the analyses. Since standardized values should be used in variables that interact, all opportunity variables and the moderator are standardized before calculating their product terms. Five analyses are carried out, one for each major organizational outcome using enter method. Bing et al. (2007) stated:

We recommend that if the researcher has an a priori hypothesis as to the form of the interaction, a one-tailed test for the interaction term in MHMR [moderated hierarchical multiple regression] is appropriate. [...] The observed alpha from the second step in MHMR is based on the two-tailed F test for the ΔR^2 when adding the interaction term to the equation. However, if one particular nonparallel pattern of slopes is being predicted and if it is obtained, then the researcher could divide the observed alpha for the interaction term by two to obtain the a priori one-tailed test for the interaction (p. 150).

Since the natures of the relationships were hypothesized as positive or negative beforehand, the observed alphas for the interaction terms were divided by two to obtain one-tailed test results.

The summary of the results is depicted in Figure 2.

Relationships of Opportunity and Alternative Opportunities with Organizational Commitment

The results of the analyses are given in Table 8. The first model explains 25.3% of the variance in organizational commitment. Development, recognition, and alternative opportunities enter the model in a significant way. In the second model, the interaction terms are entered into the model to explore moderation effects. The model explains a significant portion of the variance in organizational commitment ($R^2=.259$, $F=24.144$, $p<.001$). On the basis of regression results, development (Beta=0.419) and recognition (Beta=0.242) are identified to be predictors of organizational commitment in the expected positive direction.

Unexpectedly, promotion does not enter the equation. Thus, Hypothesis 1, which proposes that “perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to organizational commitment”, is partially supported. The findings support the expectation that as employees perceive more developmental experiences and recognition, their commitment to their organizations increases. On the other hand, promotion does not predict organizational commitment.

Regression results show that, unexpectedly, level of alternative opportunities (Beta=0.092) is positively related to organizational commitment.

Table 8 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Results for Organizational Commitment

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	0.018	0.039				0.030	0.040			
Development	0.409	0.039	0.412	10.442	0.000	0.415	0.039	0.419	10.544	0.000
Recognition	0.235	0.040	0.237	5.914	0.000	0.240	0.040	0.242	6.008	0.000
Promotion	0.024	0.039	0.024	0.620	0.535	0.025	0.039	0.025	0.633	0.527
Alternatives	0.091	0.040	0.092	2.270	0.024	0.092	0.040	0.092	2.279	0.023
promotion X alternatives						0.003	0.035	0.004	0.097	0.923
development X alternatives						0.018	0.035	0.021	0.510	0.610
recognition X alternatives						-0.067	0.033	-0.080	-2.031	0.043
Adjusted R Square	0.246					0.248				
R Square	0.253					0.259				
F	41.075*					24.144*				
Change in R Square						0.007				
F for Change in R Square						1.426				
Sig. F Change (two-tailed)						0.234				
Sig. F Change (one-tailed)						0.117				
Sig. F Change (one-tailed)*						0.023**				
Durbin-Watson						1.518				

* Significant at $p < .001$.

** Result of re-analysis of data. This time only the significant interaction (recognition X alternatives) is entered in the second step to find out if the change is significant.

In other words, when employees perceive higher opportunity elsewhere, their commitment to their organizations is high as well. This finding is in contrast to Hypothesis 6, which proposes a negative relationship between alternative opportunities and organizational commitment. The finding is surprising since it is counter to previous research.

Only the interaction of recognition and alternatives enters the second model in a significant way. However, this is not sufficient to conclude moderation. There is moderation only when interaction term entered accounts for a statistically significant increment in variance explained. Alpha for the one tailed test is 0.117, which is insignificant. However, this figure reflects the significance of change in F when all interaction terms are forced to the model regardless of their significance. The only significant interaction is that of recognition and alternatives. When the analysis is carried out again and only this one interaction is entered to the second model, the significance for F change (one-tailed) is 0.023, which is significant at $p < .05$. Thus, change in R^2 is significant. Hence, availability of alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.080) moderates the relationship between recognition and organizational commitment in a negative way, as expected. However, it does not moderate the relationship between development and organizational commitment. Thus, Hypothesis 11, which proposes that “the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way”, is partially supported. Findings indicate that an employee’s experience of recognition coupled with alternative opportunities is related to their organizational commitment in a negative way. Thus, it is predicted that when highly visible, appraised employees sense alternative opportunities, their commitment to their organizations decrease.

Development (Beta=0.419), recognition (Beta=0.242), alternative opportunities (Beta=0.092), and interaction of recognition and alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.080) explain a significant amount of (25.9%) variance in organizational commitment.

When standardized beta weights are examined, it is seen that development is the most important (Beta=0.419) variable. It is much more important than recognition (Beta=0.242). Alternative opportunities (Beta=0.092) and interaction of recognition and alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.080) have minor importance. As stated above, promotion is not related to organizational commitment.

Relationships of Opportunity and Alternative Opportunities with Job Satisfaction

The results of the analyses are given in Table 9. The first model explains 35.3% of the variance in job satisfaction. Development and recognition enter the model in a significant way. In the second model, the interaction terms are entered into the model to explore moderation effects. The model explains a significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction ($R^2=.363$, $F=38.638$, $p<.001$). On the basis of regression results, development (Beta=0.527), recognition (Beta=0.278), and promotion (Beta=0.081) are identified to be predictors of job satisfaction in the expected positive direction. Thus, Hypothesis 2, which proposes that “perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job satisfaction”, is supported. The findings support the expectation that as employees perceive more promotional and developmental experiences and recognition, their job satisfaction increases.

Table 9 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Results for Job Satisfaction

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	0.015	0.036				0.028	0.037			
Development	0.515	0.037	0.521	14.079	0.000	0.521	0.037	0.527	14.207	0.000
Recognition	0.271	0.037	0.274	7.270	0.000	0.275	0.037	0.278	7.392	0.000
Promotion	0.069	0.037	0.070	1.896	0.059	0.080	0.037	0.081	2.190	0.029
Alternatives	-0.007	0.038	-0.007	-0.197	0.844	-0.013	0.038	-0.013	-0.339	0.734
promotion X alternatives						-0.071	0.032	-0.083	-2.208	0.028
development X alternatives						0.031	0.032	0.036	0.964	0.336
recognition X alternatives						-0.048	0.031	-0.058	-1.569	0.117
Adjusted R Square	0.347					0.353				
R Square	0.353					0.363				
Change in R Square						0.010				
F	65.083*					38.638*				
F for Change in R Square						2.540				
Sig. F Change (two-tailed)						0.056				
Sig. F Change (one-tailed)						0.028				
Durbin-Watson						1.685				

* Significant at p<.001.

Availability of alternative opportunities does not predict job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 7, which proposes a negative relationship between alternative opportunities and job satisfaction, is not supported. As employees perceive higher opportunity elsewhere, their job satisfaction is not affected.

Only the interaction of promotion and alternatives enters the second model in a significant way. Change in F (one-tailed) is 0.028, which is significant at $p < .05$. Thus, change in R^2 is significant. Hence, availability of alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.083) moderates the relationship between promotion and job satisfaction in a negative way, as expected. However, it does not moderate the relationships of development and recognition with job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 12, which proposes that “the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way”, is partially supported. Findings indicate that an employee’s experience of promotional opportunity coupled with alternative opportunities is related to their job satisfaction in a negative way. Thus, it is predicted that when highly promotable employees sense alternative opportunities, their job satisfaction decreases.

Development (Beta=0.527), recognition (Beta=0.278), promotion (Beta=0.081), and interaction of promotion and alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.083) explain a significant amount of (36.3%) variance in job satisfaction.

When standardized beta weights are examined, it is seen that development is the most important (Beta=0.527) variable. It is much more important than recognition (Beta=0.278). Promotion (Beta=0.081), and interaction of promotion and alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.083) have minor importance in predicting job satisfaction.

Relationships of Opportunity and Alternative Opportunities with Turnover Intentions

The results of the analyses are given in Table 10. The first model explains 9.2% of the variance in turnover intentions. Development and recognition enter the model in a significant way. In the second model, the interaction terms are entered into the model to explore moderation effects. The model explains a significant portion of the variance in turnover intentions ($R^2=.113$, $F=8.867$, $p<.001$). On the basis of regression results, development ($Beta=-0.289$), and recognition ($Beta=-0.137$) are identified to be predictors of turnover intentions in the expected negative direction.

Unexpectedly, promotion does not enter the equation. Thus, Hypothesis 3, which proposes that “perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to turnover intentions”, is partially supported. The findings support the expectation that as employees perceive more developmental experiences and recognition, their intentions to leave their organizations decrease. On the other hand, promotion does not predict turnover intentions.

Availability of alternative opportunities does not predict turnover intentions. Thus, Hypothesis 8, which proposes a positive relationship between alternative opportunities and turnover intentions is not supported. As employees perceive higher opportunity elsewhere, their turnover intentions is not affected.

Only the interaction of recognition and alternatives enters the second model in a significant way. Change in F (one-tailed) is 0.032, which is significant at $p<.05$. Thus, change in R^2 is significant. Hence, availability of alternative opportunities interacts positively with recognition ($Beta=0.106$).

Table 10 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Results for Turnover Intentions

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	-0.005	0.043				-0.027	0.043			
Development	-0.282	0.043	-0.283	-6.569	0.000	-0.289	0.043	-0.289	-6.688	0.000
Recognition	-0.129	0.044	-0.129	-2.947	0.003	-0.137	0.044	-0.137	-3.128	0.002
Promotion	-0.066	0.043	-0.066	-1.543	0.124	-0.073	0.043	-0.073	-1.695	0.091
Alternatives	0.036	0.044	0.036	0.809	0.419	0.036	0.044	0.036	0.821	0.412
promotion X alternatives						0.040	0.038	0.046	1.052	0.293
development X alternatives						-0.005	0.038	-0.006	-0.139	0.890
recognition X alternatives						0.089	0.036	0.106	2.468	0.014
Adjusted R Square	0.092					0.100				
R Square	0.099					0.113				
F	13.574*					8.867*				
Change in R Square						0.013				
F for Change in R Square						2.434				
Sig. F Change (two-tailed)						0.064				
Sig. F Change (one-tailed)						0.032				
Durbin-Watson						1.330				

* Significant at $p < .001$.

On the other hand, the interaction of alternative opportunities and development is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 13, which proposes that “the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way”, is partially supported. As employees’ experiences of recognition coupled with alternative opportunities increase, their turnover intentions increase as well. While recognition is negatively related to turnover intentions as expected, the direction of this relationship is changed when alternative opportunities interact with recognition.

Development (Beta=-0.289), recognition (Beta=-0.137), and interaction of recognition and alternative opportunities (Beta=0.106) explain 11.3% of the variance in turnover intentions.

When standardized beta weights are examined, it is seen that development (Beta=-0.289) is more important than recognition (Beta=-0.137). Interaction of alternative opportunities and recognition (Beta=0.106) is the least important predictor in relation to turnover intentions.

Relationships of Opportunity and Alternative Opportunities with Absenteeism

The results of the analyses are given in Table 11. The first model explains 4.9% of the variance in absenteeism. Development and recognition enter the model in a significant way. In the second model, the interaction terms are entered into the model to explore moderation effects. The model explains a significant portion of the variance in absenteeism ($R^2=.063$, $F=4.420$, $p<.001$). On the basis of regression results, development (Beta=-0.096), and recognition (Beta=-0.158) are identified to be predictors of absenteeism in the expected negative direction.

Table 11 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Results for Absenteeism

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	3.119	0.130				3.060	0.132			
Development	-0.294	0.131	-0.103	-2.251	0.025	-0.276	0.131	-0.096	-2.102	0.036
Recognition	-0.426	0.133	-0.149	-3.198	0.001	-0.451	0.133	-0.158	-3.397	0.001
Promotion	-0.217	0.131	-0.076	-1.660	0.098	-0.218	0.131	-0.076	-1.666	0.096
Alternatives	-0.171	0.134	-0.060	-1.278	0.202	-0.191	0.134	-0.067	-1.427	0.154
promotion X alternatives						0.021	0.115	0.009	0.186	0.853
development X alternatives						0.235	0.116	0.094	2.028	0.043
recognition X alternatives						0.162	0.110	0.067	1.473	0.141
Adjusted R Square	0.041					0.049				
R Square	0.049					0.063				
F	5.908*					4.420*				
Change in R Square						0.015				
F for Change in R Square						2.366				
Sig. F Change (two-tailed)						0.070				
Sig. F Change (one-tailed)						0.035				
Durbin-Watson						1.670				

* Significant at p<.001.

Unexpectedly, promotion does not enter the equation. Thus, Hypothesis 4, which proposes that “perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to absenteeism”, is partially supported. The findings support the expectation that as employees perceive more developmental experiences and recognition, the number of days they are absent from work decreases. On the other hand, promotion does not predict absenteeism.

Availability of alternative opportunities does not predict absenteeism as well. Thus, Hypothesis 9, which proposes a positive relationship between alternative opportunities and absenteeism is not supported. As employees perceive higher opportunity elsewhere, their absenteeism is not affected.

Only the interaction of development and alternatives enters the second model in a significant way. Change in F (one-tailed) is 0.035, which is significant at $p < .05$. Thus, change in R^2 is significant. Hence, availability of alternative opportunities interacts positively with development (Beta=0.094). On the other hand, the interaction of alternative opportunities and recognition is not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 14, which proposes that “the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way”, is partially supported. As employees’ experiences of development coupled with alternative opportunities increase, number of days they are absent from work increase as well. While development is negatively related to absenteeism as expected, the direction of this relationship is changed when alternative opportunities interact with development.

Development (Beta=-0.096), recognition (Beta=-0.158), and interaction of development and alternative opportunities (Beta=0.094) explain 6.3% of the variance in absenteeism.

When standardized beta weights are examined, it is seen that recognition (Beta=-0.158) is more important than development (Beta=-0.096) and interaction of alternative opportunities and recognition (Beta=0.094) in predicting absenteeism.

Relationships of Opportunity and Alternative Opportunities with Employee Performance

The results of the analyses are given in Table 12. The first model explains 14.5% of the variance in employee performance. Development, recognition, and alternative opportunities enter the model in a significant way. In the second model, the interaction terms are entered into the model to explore moderation effects. The model explains a significant portion of the variance in employee performance ($R^2=.163$, $F=13.589$, $p<.001$). On the basis of regression results, development (Beta=0.207) and recognition (Beta=0.191) are identified to be predictors of employee performance in the expected positive direction.

Unexpectedly, promotion does not enter the equation. Thus, Hypothesis 5, which proposes that “perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to employee performance”, is partially supported. The findings support the expectation that as employees perceive more developmental experiences and recognition, their performance increases. On the other hand, promotion does not predict employee performance.

Regression results show that, unexpectedly, availability of alternative opportunities (Beta=0.202) is positively related to employee performance. In other words, as employees perceive higher alternative opportunities, their performance increases.

Table 12 Hierarchical Moderated Regression Results for Employee Performance

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	-0.005	0.042				0.015	0.042			
Development	0.214	0.042	0.214	5.119	0.000	0.207	0.042	0.207	4.947	0.000
Recognition	0.182	0.043	0.182	4.279	0.000	0.191	0.042	0.191	4.506	0.000
Promotion	0.056	0.042	0.056	1.339	0.181	0.051	0.042	0.051	1.213	0.226
Alternatives	0.191	0.043	0.191	4.456	0.000	0.202	0.043	0.202	4.713	0.000
promotion X alternatives						0.034	0.037	0.039	0.911	0.362
development X alternatives						-0.093	0.037	-0.107	-2.517	0.012
recognition X alternatives						-0.062	0.035	-0.073	-1.757	0.080
Adjusted R Square	0.138					0.151				
R Square	0.145					0.163				
F	20.897*					13.589*				
Change in R Square						0.018				
F for Change in R Square						3.433				
Sig. F Change (two-tailed)						0.017				
Sig. F Change (one-tailed)						0.008				
Durbin-Watson						1.318				

* Significant at p<.001.

This finding is in contrast to Hypothesis 10, which proposes a negative relationship between alternative opportunities and employee performance. The finding is surprising since it is counter to previous research.

Only the interaction of development and alternatives enters the second model in a significant way. Change in F (one-tailed) is 0.008, which is significant at $p < .05$. Thus, change in R^2 is significant. Hence, availability of alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.107) moderates the relationship between development and employee performance in a negative way, as expected. However, it does not moderate the relationship between recognition and employee performance. Thus, Hypothesis 15, which proposes that “the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and employee performance will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way”, is partially supported. Findings indicate that an employee’s experience of development coupled with alternative opportunities is related to their performance in a negative way. Thus, it is predicted that when employees with high level of developmental opportunities sense alternative opportunities, their performance is reduced.

Development (Beta=0.207), recognition (Beta=0.191), alternative opportunities (Beta=0.202), and interaction of development and alternative opportunities (Beta=-0.107) explain a significant amount of (16.3%) variance in employee performance.

When standardized beta weights are examined, it is seen that development (Beta=0.207), recognition (Beta=0.191), and alternative opportunities (Beta=0.202) have similar level of importance in relation to employee performance. Interaction of alternative opportunities with development (Beta=-0.107) is the least important variable. As stated above, promotion is not related to employee performance.

The summary of the results on the relationships of opportunity and alternative opportunities on major organizational outcomes is depicted in Figure 2. Since the study is not experimental in nature, the direction of the arrows does not imply causality. The significant relationships depicted with arrows should be treated more as predictions rather causal relationships.

The Relationships between Antecedents and Opportunity Variables

The relationships between independent variables (i.e. HPWPs and leadership variables) and opportunity variables are tested using hierarchical regression analyses. Three analyses are carried out, one for each opportunity variable. Age, gender, level of education, socioeconomic status, and tenure are used as control variables in the analyses. Hierarchical regression analyses are carried out in this study. In the first step age, gender, level of education, socioeconomic status, and tenure are entered into the model as control variables. In the second step, independent variables are entered to the model.

The summary of the results is depicted in Figure 3. Since the study is not experimental in nature, the direction of the arrows does not imply causality. The significant relationships depicted with arrows should be treated more as predictions rather causal relationships.

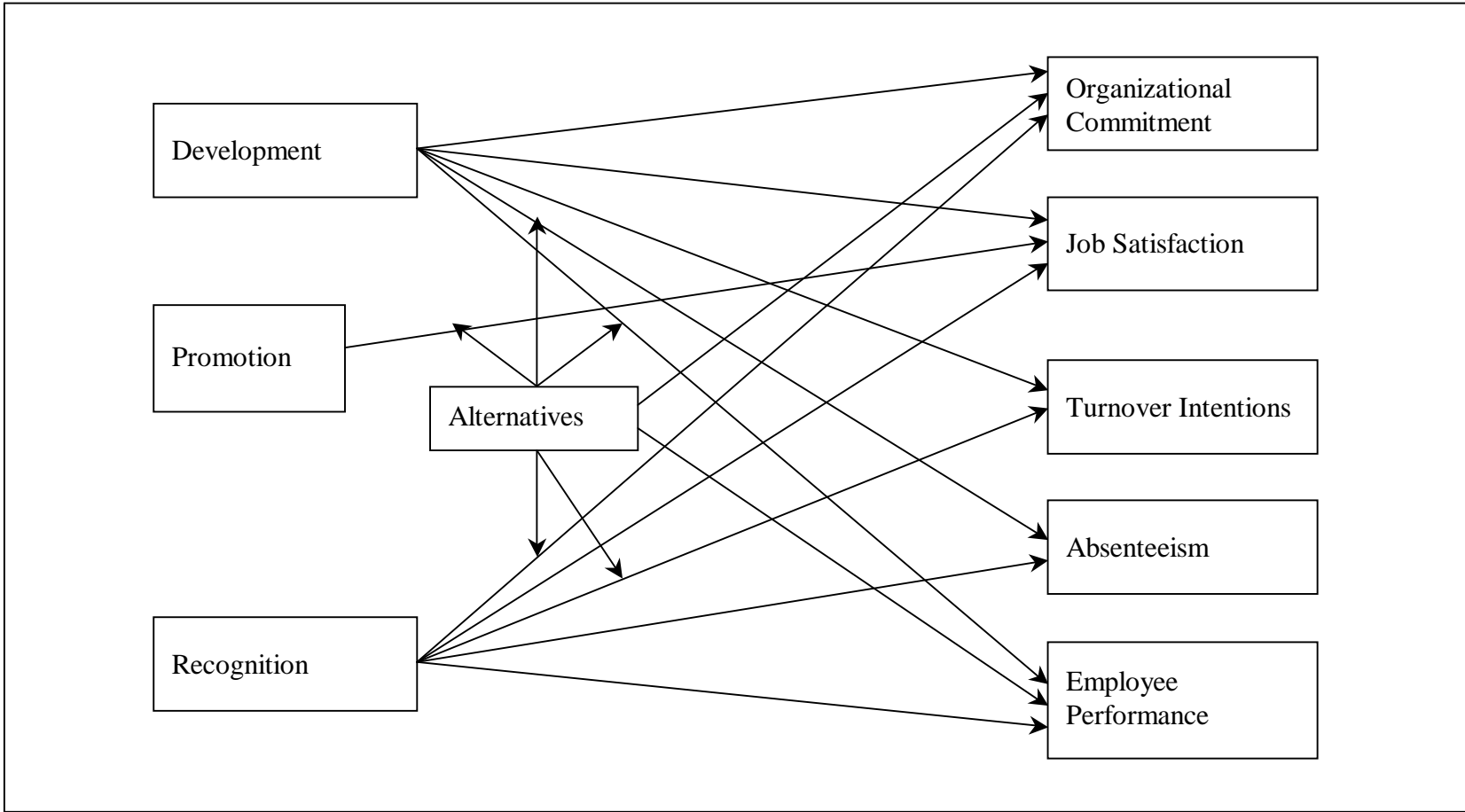


Figure 2 Relationships of opportunity and alternative opportunities with major organizational outcomes

The Relationship between Independent Variables and Promotion

The results of the analysis are given in Table 13. Control variables are entered in the first model. The model is significant ($F=7.775$, $p<.001$) and control variables explain 7.7% of the variance in promotion. Gender is coded 1 for female and 0 for male. Thus, being male, education, and socioeconomic status are positively related to promotion. In the second model, independent variables (i.e. HPWPs and leadership) are entered into the model. It is seen that independent variables explain the variance in promotion beyond what is explained by control variables (Change in $R^2=.085$, $F=9.332$, $p<.001$). Independent variables explain an additional 8.5% of variance in promotion. Thus, in total 16.1% of variance in promotion is explained. The model is significant with $F=9.900$ ($p<.001$).

On the basis of regression results, among control variables, being male, education, and socioeconomic status are positively related to promotion which in parallel to results of previous research (Smith, 1979; Igarria and Baroudi, 1995; Okpara, 2006; Tachibanaki, 1987; Zhao et al., 2006; Colarelli et al., 1987). As expected, HPWPs (Beta=0.136) and transactional leadership (Beta=0.183) are positively related to promotion. Unexpectedly, paternalistic leadership (Beta=-0.153) is negatively related to promotion. Contrary to hypotheses, transformational leadership and participative leadership are not related to promotion. The findings show that employees receive more promotion opportunities as their experiences of HPWPs and transactional leadership increase. They receive less promotion opportunities as their leaders exercise more paternalistic leadership. There is not enough information at this point to explain results of hypotheses, since results on all three types of opportunity variables are needed to explore support for hypotheses.

Table 13 Hierarchical Regression Results for Promotion

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	-1.180	0.252				-1.128	0.249			
Age	0.100	0.058	0.109	1.740	0.082	0.100	0.056	0.109	1.794	0.073
Gender	-0.229	0.095	-0.111	-2.419	0.016	-0.186	0.092	-0.090	-2.035	0.042
Education	0.129	0.046	0.142	2.799	0.005	0.120	0.045	0.131	2.638	0.009
Socioeconomic status	0.093	0.036	0.128	2.618	0.009	0.095	0.034	0.132	2.780	0.006
Tenure	0.001	0.040	0.002	0.036	0.971	-0.009	0.039	-0.014	-0.231	0.817
HPWPs						0.135	0.059	0.136	2.304	0.022
Participative L.						0.058	0.048	0.059	1.206	0.228
Transactional L.						0.181	0.046	0.183	3.975	0.000
Transformational L.						0.034	0.044	0.035	0.765	0.445
Paternalistic L.						-0.151	0.050	-0.153	-3.040	0.003
Adjusted R Square	0.067					0.143				
R Square	0.077					0.161				
F	7.775*					8.900*				
Change in R Square						0.085				
F for Change in R Square						9.332				
Sig. F Change						0.000				
Durbin-Watson						1.582				

* Significant at $p < .001$.

Examination of standardized beta weights shows that HPWPs (Beta=0.136), transactional leadership (Beta=0.183), and paternalistic leadership (Beta=-0.153), have similar levels of importance in relation to promotion. These independent variables, together with control variables (which have similar levels of importance when compared to independent variables), explain 16.1% of the variance in promotion.

The Relationship between Independent Variables and Development

The results of the analysis are given in Table 14. Control variables are entered in the first model. The model is significant ($F=3.123$, $p<.001$) and control variables explain only 3.2% of the variance in development. Education is the only control variable that enters the model in a significant way. Education is positively related to development. In the second model, independent variables (i.e. HPWPs and leadership) are entered into the model. It is seen that independent variables explain the variance in development beyond what is explained by control variables (Change in $R^2=.347$, $F=51.707$, $p<.001$). Independent variables explain an additional 34.7% of variance in development. Thus, in total 37.9% of variance in development is explained. The model is significant with $F=28.261$ ($p<.001$).

On the basis of regression results, in the second step, none of the control variables are related to development. As expected, HPWPs (Beta=0.218), participative leadership (Beta=0.341), transactional leadership (Beta=0.132), transformational leadership (Beta=0.240), and paternalistic leadership (Beta=0.096) are positively related to development.

Table 14 Hierarchical Regression Results for Development

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	-0.296	0.258				0.110	0.214			
Age	-0.063	0.059	-0.069	-1.069	0.286	-0.094	0.048	-0.102	-1.953	0.051
Gender	-0.109	0.097	-0.053	-1.124	0.262	-0.029	0.079	-0.014	-0.362	0.717
Education	0.123	0.047	0.134	2.592	0.010	0.048	0.039	0.053	1.230	0.219
Socioeconomic status	0.026	0.036	0.035	0.705	0.481	-0.011	0.030	-0.015	-0.361	0.719
Tenure	-0.018	0.042	-0.028	-0.425	0.671	0.020	0.034	0.032	0.601	0.548
HPWPs						0.217	0.050	0.218	4.301	0.000
Participative L.						0.337	0.042	0.341	8.082	0.000
Transactional L.						0.130	0.039	0.132	3.314	0.001
Transformational L.						0.236	0.038	0.240	6.159	0.000
Paternalistic L.						0.094	0.043	0.096	2.213	0.027
Adjusted R Square	0.022					0.366				
R Square	0.032					0.379				
F	3.123*					28.261*				
Change in R Square						0.347				
F for Change in R Square						51.707				
Sig. F Change						0.000				
Durbin-Watson						1.953				

* Significant at $p < .001$.

The findings show that employees receive more development opportunities as their experiences of HPWPs, participative, transformational, transactional and paternalistic leadership increase.

Examination of standardized beta weights shows that participative leadership (Beta=0.341) is the most important variable, followed by transformational leadership (Beta=0.240), HPWPs (Beta=0.218), transactional leadership (Beta=0.132), and paternalistic leadership (Beta=0.096). These independent variables explain 37.2% of the variance in development.

The Relationship between Independent Variables and Recognition

The results of the analysis are given in Table 15. Control variables are entered in the first model. The model is significant ($F=3.796$, $p<.001$) and control variables explain 3.9% of the variance in recognition. Education and tenure are the control variables that enter the model in a significant way. Both of them are positively related to recognition. In the second model, independent variables (i.e. HPWPs and leadership) are entered into the model. It is seen that independent variables explain the variance in recognition beyond what is explained by control variables (Change in $R^2=.080$, $F=6.238$, $p<.001$). Independent variables explain an additional 8% of variance in recognition. Thus, in total 11.9% of variance in recognition is explained. The model is significant with $F=6.238$ ($p<.001$).

On the basis of regression results, among control variables, education and tenure are positively related to recognition.

Table 15 Hierarchical Regression Results for Recognition

Predictors	Model 1					Model 2				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(constant)	-0.881	0.257				-0.613	0.255			
Age	0.008	0.059	0.009	0.137	0.891	-0.020	0.057	-0.021	-0.344	0.731
Gender	-0.072	0.097	-0.035	-0.742	0.459	-0.054	0.094	-0.026	-0.575	0.566
Education	0.141	0.047	0.154	2.982	0.003	0.097	0.047	0.106	2.074	0.039
Socioeconomic status	-0.025	0.036	-0.034	-0.682	0.496	-0.041	0.035	-0.057	-1.167	0.244
Tenure	0.099	0.041	0.157	2.399	0.017	0.123	0.040	0.194	3.043	0.002
HPWPs						0.110	0.060	0.111	1.835	0.067
Participative L.						0.187	0.050	0.189	3.766	0.000
Transactional L.						0.033	0.047	0.033	0.700	0.485
Transformational L.						0.037	0.046	0.037	0.802	0.423
Paternalistic L.						0.082	0.051	0.084	1.617	0.107
Adjusted R Square	0.029					0.100				
R Square	0.039					0.119				
F	3.796*					6.238*				
Change in R Square						0.080				
F for Change in R Square						8.382				
Sig. F Change						0.000				
Durbin-Watson						1.702				

* Significant at $p < .001$.

Previous research showed that education was positively related to promotional opportunities (Tachibanaki, 1987; Zhao et al., 2006), whereas, tenure was negatively associated with promotional opportunities (Landau and Hammer, 1986; Kalleberg and Van Buren, 1996). However, there were no studies on the relationship of education and tenure with recognition. Based on results of the present study, it is seen that both education and tenure are positively related to recognition, which implies that more educated employees and employees who have worked in a company for a long time are more recognized by top management than others.

As expected, participative leadership (Beta=0.189) is positively related to recognition. However, contrary to hypotheses, HPWPs, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and paternalistic leadership do not predict recognition. The findings show that employees receive more recognition opportunities as their experiences of participative leadership increase.

Examination of standardized beta weights shows that importance of participative leadership (Beta=0.189) in predicting recognition is similar to importance of education (Beta=0.106) and tenure (Beta=0.194).

Summary of The Relationships between Independent Variables and Opportunity Variables

HPWPs is positively related to promotion and development, but not to recognition. Hypothesis 16, which proposes that “HPWPs will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity”, is partially supported.

Paternalistic leadership is positively related to development as expected. Unexpectedly, it is negatively related to promotion and unrelated to recognition.

Thus, Hypothesis 17, which proposes that “perceived level of paternalism will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity”, is partially supported.

Transactional leadership is positively related to promotion and development. However, it is not associated with recognition. Hypothesis 18, which proposes that “perceived level of transactional leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity”, is partially supported.

Transformational leadership is positively related to development. However, it does not predict promotion or recognition. Hypothesis 19, which proposes that “perceived level of transformational leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity”, is partially supported.

Participative leadership is positively related to development and recognition. However, it is not associated with promotion. Hypothesis 20, which proposes that “perceived level of participative leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity”, is partially supported.

The summary of the results on the relationships between antecedents and opportunity variables is depicted in Figure 3.

Summary of all of the results on hypotheses testing is given in Table 16.

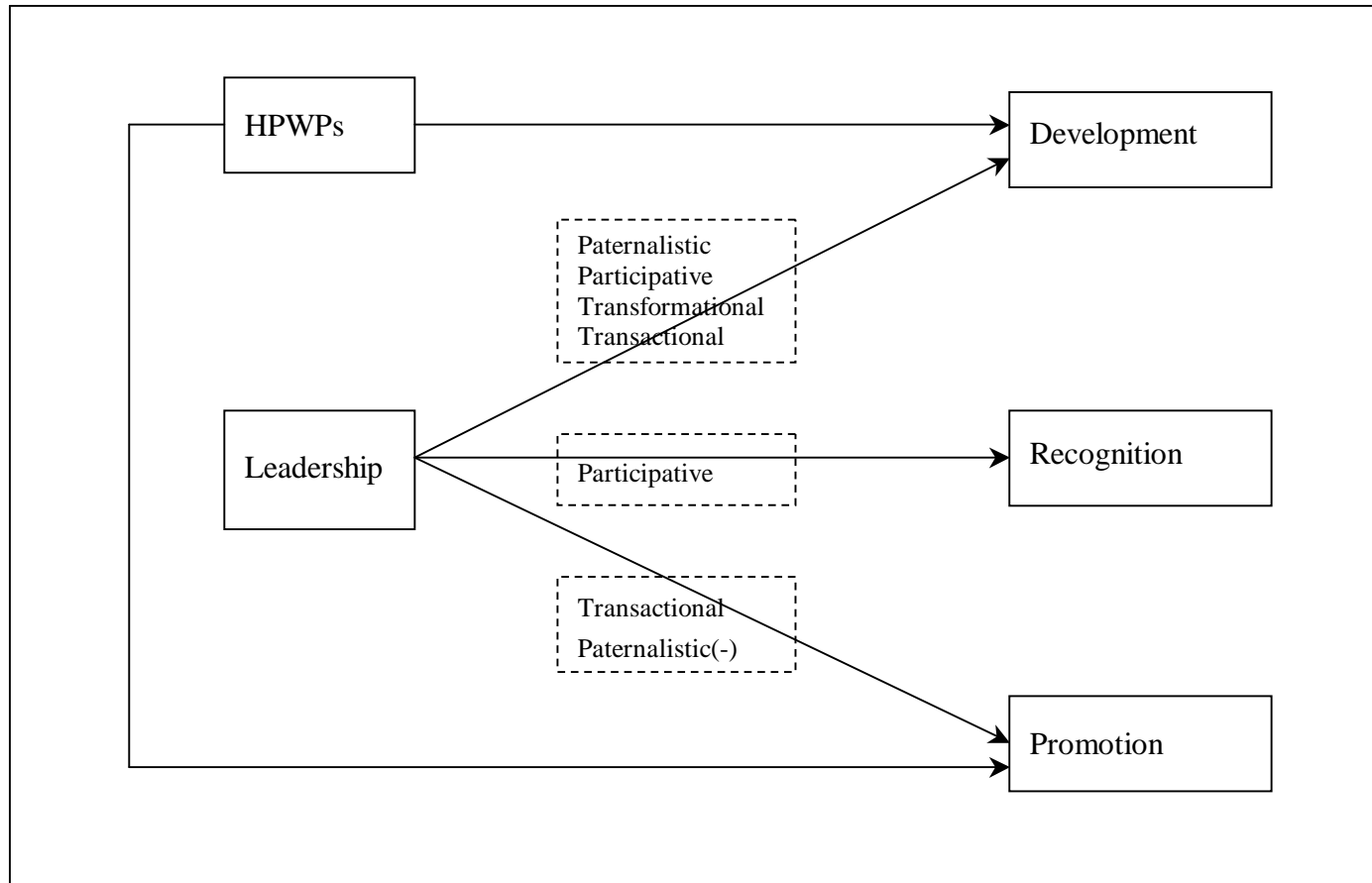


Figure 3 Relationships between antecedents and opportunity variables

Table 16 Summary of the Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1	Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to organizational commitment.	PS
Hypothesis 2	Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job satisfaction.	S
Hypothesis 3	Perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to turnover intentions.	PS
Hypothesis 4	Perceived level of opportunity will be negatively related to absenteeism.	PS
Hypothesis 5	Perceived level of opportunity will be positively related to job performance.	PS
Hypothesis 6	Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to organizational commitment.	NS
Hypothesis 7	Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to job satisfaction.	NS
Hypothesis 8	Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be positively related to turnover intentions.	NS
Hypothesis 9	Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be positively related to absenteeism.	NS
Hypothesis 10	Perceived level of alternative opportunities will be negatively related to job performance.	NS
Hypothesis 11	The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and organizational commitment.	PS
Hypothesis 12	The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction will be moderated by perceived alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job satisfaction.	PS
Hypothesis 13	The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and turnover intentions.	PS

S=Supported, PS=Partially supported, NS=Not supported.

Table 16. continued

Hypothesis 14	The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and absenteeism.	PS
Hypothesis 15	The relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job performance will be moderated by perceived level of alternative opportunities in a negative way such that high level of perceived alternative opportunities will decrease the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and job performance.	PS
Hypothesis 16	HPWPs will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.	PS
Hypothesis 17	Perceived level of paternalism will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.	PS
Hypothesis 18	Perceived level of transactional leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.	PS
Hypothesis 19	Perceived level of transformational leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.	PS
Hypothesis 20	Perceived level of participative leadership will be positively related to perceived level of opportunity.	PS

S=Supported, PS=Partially supported, NS=Not supported.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Opportunity is vital both for employees and employers. As discussed by Kanter (1977), it is a “major” antecedent of many organizational outcomes. Although opportunity is a significant topic of research, a study exploring the concept of opportunity in depth examining its antecedents and consequences was not carried out before. To fill this gap in research on opportunity, this study aimed to construct a valid and reliable scale to measure perceived level of opportunity at work; to analyze how evaluation of opportunity at work and evaluation of alternative opportunities elsewhere, predict major organizational outcomes (i.e. organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and employee performance); and to examine the possible antecedents of opportunity.

Four types of work opportunities are identified with the review of literature: Promotion, development, continual challenge, and recognition. Using data obtained from 550 white-collar employees in Istanbul, factor analyses result in opportunity being explained by three factors. Development and continual challenge items load to one factor that is named “development”. The other types of opportunity (i.e. promotion and recognition) load to one factor each as expected. Regression analyses are carried out for testing of the hypotheses.

The results of the regression analyses show that opportunities of development and recognition are predictors of major organizational outcomes, i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and employee performance.

Unexpectedly and contrary to previous research (Allen et al., 1998;

DeConinck and Bachman, 1994; Landau and Hammer, 1986; Smith, 1979; Wallace, 1995; Yucelt, 1982), opportunity of promotion is not related to organizational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and employee performance.

Promotion only predicts job satisfaction. But its importance is very low when compared to development and recognition. This finding may be positive news for employers, since companies find it harder and harder to afford opportunities on promotion due to shrinking corporate hierarchies and removal of organizational layers (Kanter, 1986; Iles, 1997; Caudron, 1994). Instead of struggling to create promotional opportunities, employers should divert their energies to create opportunities of recognition, but more importantly development. The finding that promotion is not critical has implications for HRM departments conducting satisfaction scales and surveys in organizations. In general, satisfaction with promotion opportunities is given equal weight with other types of satisfaction in these scales. Results indicate that the weight of promotion should be lower than the weights of recognition and developmental opportunity in satisfaction surveys.

Findings also imply that to increase level of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee performance, employees should be given opportunities of development such as opportunity to keep up with new developments related to the job, to develop new skills and abilities, to learn new things, to carry out many different thing at work using a variety of skills and talents, to do a different job or work in a different department in which they can learn new things, and to have a job that may get bigger with new responsibilities in the future. The findings also imply that to increase level of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee performance, employees should be given opportunities of recognition such as

visibility to upper management and to distinguish themselves, personal attention from upper management, and recognition from upper level management.

The results show that, in general, the level of importance of development is higher than that of recognition, except for in the case of absenteeism. This implies that companies should give the priority to providing opportunities for development of employees. Recognition is more important than development in predicting absenteeism. This may be because absence of an employee is more recognized if the employee is highly recognized by upper management. Thus, recognized employees may feel more pressure not to be absent from work.

Opportunity is important in attainment of major organizational outcomes. Apart from that, the feeling of opportunity is a positive phenomenon in itself. Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS) approach emphasizes the enablers, the motivations, and the outcomes or effects of positive phenomena in organizations (Cameron et al., 2003). Likewise, in this study, the enabler and the outcomes of a positive phenomenon, i.e. opportunity, are examined. POS puts emphasis on positive organizational outcomes not only as means but also as ends, which are believed to be worth explaining on their own (Dutton et al., 2006). Thus, although opportunity is significant as an enabler of important organizational outcomes, it is worth explaining on its own as well since it is valuable in itself. Thus, antecedents of opportunity have paramount importance.

A significant finding of the study is that leadership creates opportunity for employees. All types of leadership explored in this study are related to development, transactional leadership is associated with promotion, and participative leadership predicts recognition. Thus, different types of leadership create different types of opportunity. However, overall, all types of leadership create one type of opportunity

or the other. Thus, companies are recommended to hire or train managers so that they can show those leadership characteristics to their subordinates. Managers are advised to clarify rewards, reward achievements, make sure employees get credit when they achieve something substantial on the job (i.e. reward employees contingently as transactional leaders); encourage employees to improve their job-related skills and abilities, give them helpful advice about improving their performance when they need it, work to get them develop their full potential (i.e. give individualized consideration as transformational leaders); listen to ideas and suggestions of employees, use their suggestions to make decisions that affect them, and consider their ideas when they disagree with employees (i.e. act as participative leaders). What course of action they choose to carry out from the recommendations, they will be creating one type of opportunity for their employees.

Paternalistic leadership increases development but reduces promotion. As discussed in Chapter III: Hypotheses, review of literature showed that paternalism might be both negatively (Lee, 2001) and positively (Aycan, 2001; Lee, 2001) related to opportunity perceptions of employees. Paternalism might have a negative effect on opportunity since in many paternalistic systems there is no systematic scientific procedure for evaluation of individuals' skills, abilities, and job performance. Instead, there is managerial autonomy in hiring, staffing, or training (Lee, 2001). Paternalism may have a positive effect since paternal figure considers employees and takes employees' rights and feelings into account, provides support and protection to those under his or her care (Aycan, 2001; Lee, 2001). Since paternalistic leadership is perceived more positively in paternalistic cultures like Turkey (Aycan, 2001; Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal, and Bodur, 2001, Dilber, 1967), it was estimated that it would be positively related to

perceived level of opportunity. Results show that paternalistic leadership is positively related to development, but negatively related to promotion. The negative relationship with promotion is in parallel to the negative literature on paternalism. Moreover, the inherent father/mother-child relationship in paternalism, may be resulting in viewing employees as children, not increasing their positions or statuses, and taking care of them and supporting them as children.

Results also show that HPWPs (high performance work practices) increase developmental and promotional opportunities. Thus, companies are recommended to employ HPWPs such as hiring new employees with care, trying to retain rather than release employees when their jobs are eliminated, promoting employees from within the company rather than filling positions with outside candidates whenever possible, and giving support for growth and development of employees.

In contrast to previous literature (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978; Meyer et al., 1991) and hypotheses of this study, alternative opportunities are positively related to organizational commitment and employee performance. One plausible explanation for these surprising findings may come from cognitive dissonance theory. The essence of cognitive dissonance theory is that if a person holds psychologically inconsistent cognitions, he or she experiences dissonance. The person will struggle to reduce dissonance because it is negative and unpleasant (Aronson, 1997).

Employees with high level of alternative opportunities might question why they continue to work for their present employers. If they feel uncommitted to their organizations, that will create dissonance. Because, if they are uncommitted and if they have many alternative opportunities, they should leave the organization. One way of reducing dissonance is changing the discrepant cognition so that it will be in line with other cognitions (Doran et al., 1991). Thus, employees who have high level

of alternative opportunities and who continue to work in a specific organization may become committed to their organizations to prevent cognitive dissonance they will feel if they are not committed. With the same line of thinking, such employees will be motivated to perform better because if they are committed to the organization, it should be an organization that deserves high performance from its employees.

Another explanation may be that the type of employees who are committed to their organizations and who perform well at work, have many alternative opportunities because of their committed nature and their qualities that make them perform well at work. Yet an alternative explanation may be that previous studies were conducted in Western cultures. There may be a cultural explanation for the contrasting results using data from a Turkish sample. All these explanations need to be verified in future research.

In relation to moderation effect of alternative opportunities, results of the analyses show that relationships between recognition and organizational commitment; promotion and job satisfaction, recognition and turnover intentions; development and absenteeism; and development and employee performance are negatively moderated by alternative opportunities. Thus, alternative opportunities moderate the relationships between opportunity variables and major organizational outcomes in a negative way. Availability of alternative opportunities decreases the strength of the relationship between perceived level of opportunity and major organizational outcomes. Thus, as expected, when employees have high levels of alternative opportunities, it becomes harder to predict major organizational outcomes based on opportunity at work.

Examination of results of regression analyses show that some variables can be explained more than others. In case of major organizational outcomes, the

outcome with the highest variance explained is job satisfaction, followed by organizational commitment, employee performance, and turnover intentions. The variable with the lowest variance explained is absenteeism. In case of opportunity variables, the type of opportunity with the highest variance explained is development, followed by promotion. The type of opportunity with the lowest variance explained is recognition.

The study has some limitations. A non-probabilistic sample is used which renders the model with a limited predictive capability. Moreover, the study is carried out in Istanbul, Turkey and it may be inappropriate to generalize the results to employees working in other places. Hypotheses should be tested in other contexts to increase generalizability of the results. Moreover, this study is not an experimental study. Thus, causality cannot be inferred. The significant relationships between study variables should be treated more as predictions rather causal relationships. Future researchers are suggested to carry out experimental studies on opportunities to be able to infer causal relationships. In addition, alternative opportunities should be examined thoroughly in a theoretical framework, possibly with cognitive dissonance theory. Moreover, in this study, leadership types, which have positive effects, have been explored. Types of leadership, which may have negative effects on opportunity, such as authoritarian leadership, should be examined in future research.

In this study, antecedents and consequences of opportunity have been explored. Analysis of all of them in a single integrative model was beyond the scope of this study. Future research needs to be carried out to test such a model in which opportunity acts as a mediator in the relationship between its antecedents and consequences.

Nevertheless, the study has vital contributions. It fills a gap in research. It explores the concept of opportunity, which is important both for employees and employers, in depth; constructs a scale to measure it based on previous studies; determines its dimensions; and examines its antecedents and consequences. Related to implications for practice, the biggest contributions of the study are based on the findings on promotion and leadership. Both findings have important implications for organizations as outlined. Importance of promotional opportunities in predicting major organizational outcomes is found to be minimal in this study. Employers are advised to divert their energies to create developmental opportunities and recognition for their employees. The other significant finding was that all types of leadership explored in the study influence one type of opportunity or another. Companies are advised to hire or train managers so that they can show those leadership characteristics outlined in the study.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Questionnaire in English

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been prepared by Elif Çiçekli as part of her dissertation in her PhD at Bogazici University, Department of Management. It will take approximately 10 minutes to fill in. Please feel free to ask for any clarifications on the questions. Your answers will not be released to any third parties. The questionnaire will be filled in by approximately 500 employees in different companies. Your name is not asked in the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your time.

1. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:

	strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful					
I feel a high level of loyalty to the company I work for					
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company					
I really care about the fate of this company					
I am actively looking for a job in another company					
I intend to leave this company within a short period of time					
I would recommend this job to a friend					
In general, I like my job a lot					

2. If you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?
 a) Definitely not take it b) Probably not take it c) I don't know d) Probably take it e) Definitely take it

3. How many days are you absent from work except for entitled holidays on average per year?.....days

4. Please rate your performance in terms of the quality of your work
 a) Very low b) Low c) Neither low, nor high d) High e) Very high

5. Please rate your performance in terms of the quantity of your work
 a) Very low b) Low c) Neither low, nor high d) High e) Very high

6. Please rate your overall performance
 a) Very low b) Low c) Neither low, nor high d) High e) Very high

7. What is the likelihood that you will be promoted to a higher position with your present employer in the next five years?
 a) No likelihood b) Low likelihood c) Moderate likelihood d) High likelihood e) Certain/ no doubt
8. How would you rate your chances for promotions in this company in general?
 a) No chance b) Low chance c) Moderate chance c) Good chance d) Very good chance
9. Please compare yourself with your colleagues at about the same level at the company you work for and indicate how much of the following opportunities you have compared to them:

	much less	less	same level	more	much more
Visibility to upper management (opportunity to distinguish yourself)					
Personal attention from upper management					
Recognition from upper level management					

10. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:

	strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree
This company has a lot of promotion opportunities for me					
The company I work for provides the opportunity for me to keep up with new developments related to my job					
I have sufficient opportunity to develop new skills and abilities in the company I work for					
My job gives me the chance to learn new things					
My job requires me to do many different things at work, using a variety of skills and talents					
In my present company, I have the chance to do a different job or work in a different department in which I can learn new things					
My job may get bigger through new responsibilities in the future					
There is at least one other job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave my present employer					

11. Please indicate how easy would the following be for you

	very easy	easy	neither difficult, nor easy	difficult	very difficult
How easy would it be for you to find a job with another employer that is <u>as good as</u> the one you now have?					
How easy would it be for you to find a job with another employer that is <u>better than</u> the one you now have?					

12. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements:

	strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree
This organization hires new employees with care					
This organization tries to retain rather than release employees when their jobs are eliminated					
Whenever possible, this organization promotes employees from within the company rather than filling positions with outside candidates					
This organization gives support for growth and development of employees					
My manager treats his/her employees as if he/she were a family member (father/mother or brother/sister)					
My manager expects attachment and loyalty from his/her employees in return for his/her care and involvement					
Performance is not the most important criterion while my manager is making decisions (e.g. on promotion, dismissal, etc.) about his or her employees					
My manager wants to have full control over and be fully informed about all issues related to work					
My manager clarifies rewards (that we can achieve based on our work, effort, and success)					

	strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree
My manager rewards my achievements					
My manager makes sure I get the credit when I accomplish something substantial on the job					
My manager encourages me to improve my job-related skills and abilities					
My manager gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it					
My manager works to get me develop my full potential					
My manager encourages us to express ideas/suggestions					
My manager listens to our ideas and suggestions					
My manager uses our suggestions to make decisions that affect us					
My manager considers our ideas when he/she disagrees with us					

13. Do you work at headquarters (in Turkey)?

- a) Yes b) No

14. In which department do you work?

- a) Purchasing b) Manufacturing/Production c) Operations d) Marketing
e) Sales f) Logistics f) Accounting g) Finance h) Technical Service
i) After Sales Service k) Information Technology l) Legal
m) Human Resources n) Other (please state):

15. Are you a manager?

- a) Yes b) No

If you are a manager, please state your level:

- a) Lower manager b) Middle manager c) Top manager

16. How many years have you worked for your present company? year(s)

If it is less than one year please indicate it as number of months: ... month(s)

17. Please indicate your age:

18. Please indicate your gender: a) Female b) Male

19. Please indicate your education (in terms of the school you last graduated from):
- a) Did not complete primary school education
 - b) Primary school
 - c) Secondary school
 - d) High school
 - e) 2-year degree
 - f) Bachelors (4-year degree)
 - g) Masters
 - h) PhD

20. Please indicate the occupation of your parents. If they are retired or passed away, please indicate the last occupation they had:

My mother's occupation:

- a) Unemployed/Housewife
- b) Tradeswoman
- c) Self-employed professional (e.g. lawyer, doctor, dentist)
- d) Company owner/partner
- e) Worker
- f) Civil servant
- g) Lower manager
- h) Middle manager
- i) Top manager
- j) Other:.....

My father's occupation:

- a) Unemployed
- b) Tradesman
- c) Self-employed professional (e.g. lawyer, doctor, dentist)
- d) Company owner/partner
- e) Worker
- f) Civil servant
- g) Lower manager
- h) Middle manager
- i) Top manager
- j) Other:.....

21. Please indicate your parent's education (in terms of the school they last graduated from):

My mother:

- a) Did not complete primary school education
- b) Primary school
- c) Secondary school
- d) High school
- e) 2-year degree
- f) Bachelors (4-year degree)
- g) Masters
- h) PhD

My father:

- a) Did not complete primary school education
- b) Primary school
- c) Secondary school
- d) High school
- e) 2-year degree
- f) Bachelors (4-year degree)
- g) Masters
- h) PhD

Appendix B. Questionnaire in Turkish

ANKET

Bu anket Elif Çiçekli tarafından Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü bünyesinde yaptığı doktora tezinin bir parçası olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anketi doldurmak yaklaşık 10 dakikanızı alacaktır. Sorularda açıklığa kavuşturulmasını istediğiniz herhangi bir nokta olursa lütfen çekinmeden sorunuz. Doldurulan anketler araştırmacı dışında kimse tarafından görülmeyecektir. Anket değişik şirketlerde 500 kadar kişiye uygulanacaktır. Ankette isminiz sorulmamaktadır. Vakit ayırdığınız için çok teşekkürler.

1. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne kadar katıldığınızı belirtiniz:

	<i>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Ne katılmıyorum ne katılıyorum</i>	<i>Katılıyorum</i>	<i>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</i>
Çalıştığım şirketin başarılı olabilmesi için normalde beklenilenden daha fazla çaba harcamaya istekliyim					
Çalıştığım şirkete karşı büyük bir bağlılık hissediyorum					
Başkalarına bu şirketin bir parçası olduğumu söylemekten gurur duyuyorum					
Çalıştığım şirketin geleceğini gerçekten umursuyorum					
Aktif olarak başka bir şirkette iş arıyorum					
Bu şirketten kısa bir zaman içinde ayrılmak niyetindeyim					
Bu işi bir arkadaşıma tavsiye ederdim					
Genel olarak işimi çok seviyorum					

- Geçmişe dönüp bu işe girme konusunda tekrar karar vermeniz gerekseydi, ne karar verirdiniz?
a) Kesinlikle girmezdim b) Muhtemelen girmezdim c) Bilmiyorum
d) Muhtemelen girerdim e) Kesinlikle girerdim
- İzinli olduğunuz günler dışında işe devamsızlığınız yılda ortalama kaç gün?
..... gün
- Lütfen yaptığımız işin kalitesi açısından performansınızı değerlendiriniz:
a) Çok düşük b) Düşük c) Ne düşük, ne yüksek d) Yüksek e) Çok yüksek
- Lütfen yaptığımız işin miktarı açısından performansınızı değerlendiriniz:

- a) Çok düşük b) Düşük c) Ne düşük, ne yüksek d) Yüksek e) Çok yüksek
6. Lütfen genel olarak performansınızı değerlendiriniz:
a) Çok düşük b) Düşük c) Ne düşük, ne yüksek d) Yüksek e) Çok yüksek
7. Çalıştığımız şirkette gelecek beş yıl içinde terfi etme ihtimaliniz nedir?
a) Hiç ihtimal yok b) Ufak bir ihtimal c) Ortalama bir ihtimal
d) Büyük bir ihtimal e) Kesin, hiç kuşku yok
8. Bu şirkette terfi etme şansınızı genel olarak nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?
a) Hiç şansım yok b) Düşük bir şansım var c) Ortalama bir şansım var
d) Yüksek bir şansım var e) Çok yüksek bir şansım var
9. Lütfen kendinizi çalıştığımız şirkette sizinle yaklaşık aynı seviyede bulunan iş arkadaşlarınızla karşılaştırınız ve aşağıdaki fırsatlara onlara kıyasla ne kadar sahip olduğunuzu belirtiniz:

	Çok daha az	Daha az	Aynı seviyede	Daha fazla	Çok daha fazla
Üst düzey yönetime görünürlük (kendini gösterebilme olanağı)					
Üst düzey yönetimdekilerden kişisel ilgi					
Üst düzey yönetimdekiler tarafından tanınma					

10. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne kadar katıldığınızı belirtiniz:

	<i>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Ne katılmıyorum ne katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılıyorum</i>	<i>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</i>
Bu şirkette benim için birçok terfi olanağı var					
Çalıştığım şirket bana işimle ilgili yeni gelişmeleri takip edebilme fırsatı sağlıyor					
Çalıştığım şirkette yeni yetenekler ve beceriler geliştirmem için yeterince olanağa sahibim					
İşim bana yeni şeyler öğrenme fırsatı veriyor					

	<i>Kes: katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Ne r- ne katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılıyorum</i>	<i>Kes: katılıyorum</i>
İşim değişik beceri ve yeteneklerimi kullanarak birçok değişik şeyler yapmamı gerektiriyor					
Çalıştığım şirkette, yeni şeyler öğrenebileceğim farklı bir iş yapma veya başka bir departmanda çalışma şansım var					
İleride eklenecek yeni sorumluluklarla işim şu an olduğundan daha büyük bir iş haline gelebilir					
Şu an çalıştığım şirketten ayrılırsam, hemen çalışmaya başlayabileceğim en az bir iş daha var					

11. Lütfen aşağıdakilerin sizin için ne kadar kolay olacağını belirtiniz:

	Çok Zor	Zor	Ne kolay, ne zor	Kolay	Çok Kolay
Başka bir şirkette şu an sahip olduğunuz <u>kadar iyi</u> bir iş bulmanız ne kadar kolay?					
Başka bir şirkette şu an sahip olduğunuzdan <u>daha iyi</u> bir iş bulmanız ne kadar kolay?					

12. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne kadar katıldığınızı belirtiniz:

	<i>Kes: katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Ne r- ne katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılıyorum</i>	<i>Kes: katılıyorum</i>
Çalıştığım şirket işe aldığı kişileri özenle seçer					
Çalıştığım şirket çalışanların işleri sona erdiğinde onları işten çıkarmak yerine bünyesinde tutmaya çalışır					

	<i>Kes: katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Ne katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılıyorum</i>	<i>Kes: katılıyorum</i>
Çalıştığım şirket mümkün olduğunca mevcut pozisyonları dışarıdan doldurmak yerine içerideki çalışanlarla doldurur					
Çalıştığım şirket çalışanların gelişmesi ve yetişmesi için destek verir					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, çalışanlarına karşı bir aile büyüğü (baba/anne veya ağabey/abla) gibi davranır					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, çalışanlarına gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, çalışanlarıyla ilgili kararlar alırken (örn., terfi, işten çıkartma), performans en önemli kriter değildir					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, işle ilgili her konunun kontrolü altında ve bilgisi dahilinde olmasını ister					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, (çalışmalarımız, çabamız, başarılarımız vb. karşılığında kazanabileceğimiz) mükafatlar konusunda bizi aydınlatır					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, başarılarımı ödüllendirir					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, önemli bir iş başardığımda bundan doğan takdiri benim almamı sağlar					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, işle ilgili yetenek ve becerilerimi geliştirmem için beni teşvik eder					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, ihtiyaç duyduğumda performansımı geliştirmem için bana faydalı tavsiyelerde bulunur					

	<i>Kes- katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Ne k- ne katılmıyorum</i>	<i>Katılıyorum</i>	<i>Kes- katılıyorum</i>
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, tüm kapasitemi ortaya çıkarmak için çalışır					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, fikirlerimizi/önerilerimizi ifade etmemiz için bizi teşvik eder					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, fikirlerimizi ve önerilerimizi dinler					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, bizi etkileyen kararlarda önerilerimizden faydalanır					
Birlikte çalıştığım yönetici, bizimle aynı görüşte olmadığında da fikirlerimizi dikkate alır					

13. Şirketin (Türkiye'deki) merkez ofisinde mi çalışıyorsunuz?

- a) Evet b) Hayır

14. Hangi departmanda çalışıyorsunuz?

- a) Satınalma b) İmalat/Üretim c) Operasyon d) Pazarlama e) Satış f) Lojistik
f) Muhasebe g) Finans h) Teknik Servis i) Satış Sonrası Hizmet k) Bilgi İşlem l)
Hukuk m) İnsan Kaynakları n) Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):.....

15. Çalıştığımız şirkette yönetici misiniz?

- a) Evet b) Hayır

Yöneticiyseniz lütfen kademenizi belirtiniz:

- a) Alt kademe yönetici b) Orta kademe yönetici c) Üst düzey yönetici

16. Şu an çalıştığınız şirkette kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız?

- a)0-1 b)2-5 c)6-9 d)10-14 e)15-19 f)20-29 g)30-39 h)40-49
i)50 ve üstü

17. Kaç yaşındasınız?

- a)18'den küçük b)18-24 c)25-29 d)30-39 e) 40-49 f)50-59 g)60-69
h)70 ve üstü

18. Lütfen cinsiyetinizi belirtiniz: a) Kadın b) Erkek

19. Lütfen eğitim durumunuzu en son mezun olduğunuz okul olarak belirtiniz:

- a) İlkokulu bitirmedim b) İlkokul c) Ortaokul d) Lise e) Önlisans (2 yıllık)
f) Lisans (4 yıllık) g) Yüksek lisans (Master) h) Doktora

20. Lütfen anne ve babanızın mesleğini belirtiniz.

Emeklilerse veya hayatta değilse lütfen en son mesleklerini belirtiniz:

Annemin mesleği: a) İşsiz/Evhanımı b) Esnaf c) Serbest çalışan profesyonel
(Avukat, doktor, dişi vb.) d) Şirket sahibi/ ortağı e) İşçi
f) Memur g) Alt kademe yönetici h) Orta kademe yönetici
i) Üst düzey yönetici j) Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):
.....

Babamın mesleği: a) İşsiz b) Esnaf c) Serbest çalışan profesyonel (Avukat,
doktor, dişi vb.) d) Şirket sahibi/ ortağı e) İşçi f) Memur
g) Alt kademe yönetici h) Orta kademe yönetici
i) Üst düzey yönetici j) Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):
.....

21. Lütfen anne ve babanızın en son bitirdikleri okulu belirtiniz:

Annem: a) İlkokulu bitirmemiş b) İlkokul c) Ortaokul d) Lise e) Önlisans (2
yılılık) f) Lisans (4 yıllık)
g) Yüksek lisans (Master) h) Doktora

Babam: a) İlkokulu bitirmemiş b) İlkokul c) Ortaokul d) Lise e) Önlisans (2
yılılık) f) Lisans (4 yıllık)
g) Yüksek lisans (Master) h) Doktora

Appendix C. Reliability Calculations of the Variables of the Study

	α	α if item is deleted
Organizational Commitment		
	.905	
1		0.876
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful		
2		0.862
I feel a high level of loyalty to this organization		
3		0.869
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company		
4		0.903
I really care about the fate of this company		
Job Satisfaction		
	.703	
1		0.596
I would recommend this job to a friend		
2		0.596
In general, I like my job a lot		
3		0.711
If you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?		
Turnover Intentions		
	.855*	
1		-
I am actively looking for a job in another company		
2		-
I intend to leave this company within a short period of time		
Performance		
	.936	
1		0.916
Please rate your performance in terms of the quality of your work		
2		0.907
Please rate your performance in terms of the quantity of your work		
3		0.899
Please rate your overall performance		
Promotion		
	.842	
1		0.697
What is the likelihood that you will be promoted to a higher position with your present employer in the <u>next five years</u> ?		
2		0.683
How would you rate your chances for promotions in this company in general?		
3		0.934
This company has a lot of promotion opportunities for me		
Development		
	.867	
1		0.813
The company I work for provides the opportunity for me to keep up with new developments related to my job		
2		0.753
I have sufficient opportunity to develop new skills and abilities in the company I work for		
3		0.865
My job gives me the chance to learn new things		

α =Cronbach's alpha

*=Correlation coefficient since there are two items

Appendix C. Reliability Calculations of the Variables of the Study (continued)

		α	α if item is deleted
Continual Challenge		.857	
1	My job requires me to do many different things at work, using a variety of skills and talents		0.678
2	In my present company, I have the chance to do a different job or work in a different department in which I can learn new things		0.733
3	My job may get bigger through new responsibilities in the future		0.610
Recognition		.910	
	Please compare yourself with your colleagues at about the same level at the company you work for and indicate how much of the following opportunities you have <u>compared to them</u> :		
1	Visibility to upper management (opportunity to distinguish yourself)		0.887
2	Personal attention from upper management		0.854
3	Recognition from upper level management		0.872
Alternative Opportunities		.716	
1	There is at least one other job that I could begin immediately if I were to leave my present employer		0.888
2	How easy would it be for you to find a job with another employer that is <u>as good as</u> the one you now have?		0.463
3	How easy would it be for you to find a job with another employer that is <u>better than</u> the one you now have?		0.497
High Performance Work Practices		.744	
1	This organization hires new employees with care		0.652
2	This organization tries to retain rather than release employees when their jobs are eliminated		0.703
3	Whenever possible, this organization promotes employees from within the company rather than filling positions with outside candidates		0.706
4	This organization gives support for growth and development of employees		0.679

α =Cronbach's alpha

Appendix C. Reliability Calculations of the Variables of the Study (continued)

		α	α if item is deleted
Paternalistic leadership		.668	
1	My manager treats his/her employees as if he/she were a family member (father/mother or brother/sister)		0.563
2	My manager expects attachment and loyalty from his/her employees in return for his/her care and involvement		0.470
3	Performance is not the most important criterion while my manager is making decisions (e.g. on promotion, dismissal, etc.) about his or her employees*		0.782**
4	My manager wants to have full control over and be fully informed about all issues related to work		0.525
Transactional leadership		.865	
1	My manager clarifies rewards (that we can achieve based on our work, effort, and success)		0.872
2	My manager rewards my achievements		0.770
3	My manager makes sure I get the credit when I accomplish something substantial on the job		0.789
Transformational leadership		.897	
1	My manager encourages me to improve my job-related skills and abilities		0.860
2	My manager gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it		0.845
3	My manager works to get me develop my full potential		0.856
Participative leadership		.902	
1	My manager encourages us to express ideas/suggestions*		0.918**
2	My manager listens to our ideas and suggestions		0.863
3	My manager uses our suggestions to make decisions that affect us		0.848
4	My manager considers our ideas when he/she disagrees with us		0.855

α =Cronbach's alpha

* These items were deleted

** These figures became the new Cronbach's alphas of the variables after the deletions.