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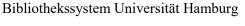
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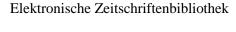
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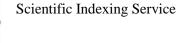
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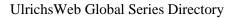


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International Journal of Advanced Multidisciplinary Research and Review (IJAMRR)

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A Research on Academic Staff and Students' Perceptions and Views about Lifelong Learning ¹²

Gönül Kalak 3

ABSTRACT

In this study made by using the Screening Model, in order to determine the opinions and competences of vocation school students towards lifelong learning approach, interviews relevant to the purpose of the research were made with teaching assistant and the students studying in the Graduate Studies in Social Sciencesof Istanbul University, and the research was begun as a result of these interviews.

The sampling of the research constitutes a total of 100 peoplethat consist of the teaching assistant and the students studying in the Graduate Studies in Social Sciencesof İstanbul University,

The dataobtained in this research was collected by "Lifelong Learning Scale" developed by the researcher and ofwhich validity and reliability studies were made. Lifelong learning survey was constituted of 23 items

For the analysis of the research data, frequency (f),percentage (%), arithmetic mean , standard deviation (SD), the lowestand highest values, t test, one-factor variance analysis (ANOVA) and simplecorrelation technique were used.

KEYWORDS: Lifelong Learning, Learning Theories, Educator Education, Adult Education

1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.1. Definition of Lifelong Learning

In order to be able to access the developing information and communication technologies for the individuals, there is a constant need for renewal and development. To meet this requirement, formal training is not enough by itself. In order to renew itself as a community the training they have received, should be continued from birth to death, and the individual must constantly improve themselves from birth to death. (Can, 2011)

Lifelong learning, which is used in conjunction with terms such as continuing education and adult education, makes it easier for individuals to adapt to the information and technology society, which is out of the boundaries of formal education and includes informal education, is a combination of all kinds of knowledge, skills, values and competences. (Candy, 2003)

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² This research has been submitted to Universidad Azteca as a Dissertation Thesis for doctoral degree programme, PhD in Education, 2017

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Lifelong learning is also expressed in terms of lifelong learning, unlimited learning, continuous learning, public education or adult education as a concept (Ersoy and Yılmaz, 2010).

Unlike adult education, the concept of lifelong learning encompasses all the processes of life from birth to death; digresses of the formal education and and covers a large area which includes informal education. (Coşkun and Demirel, 2012)

1.2. Scope of Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning covers all kinds of learning activities covering the period from cradle to grave in order to develop knowledge, skills and competencies in cooperation with individual, civil, social or business fields. (Aksov, 2008)

The area covered by lifelong learning in Turkey is determined as follows. (Güleç, Çelik and Demirhan, 2012)

- 1. The entire education system will be restructured to raise lifelong learners.
- It should be benefited from the sectors of continuous education (everyday life, 2. educational factors and environmental resourceseach person's life is a time zone in which attitudes, values, knowledge and skills acquired from everyday life, educational factors and environmental sources, from families, neighbors, work, games,
- marketplace, books and mass media attitudes, values, knowledge and skills) as much as possible.
- The emphasis will be on the importance of independent learning (learning to learn). 3. As a matter of fact, lifelong learning is a continuous renewal of a person's knowledge, skills and competences during his / her lifetime. Thus this learning includes education from the primary education to the higher education as well as the education of various governmental institutions and private institution. In addition to this, learning based on life experience and working experience is also covered by lifelong learning. (Andresen and Cohen, 1995; Erdoğan and Toprak, 2012)

1.3. The Importance of Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning is a continual concept that renews an individual's potential and competences from birth until death. This should not mean that we will go to school for the rest of our lives. Learning is an open stance: it is the desire to reach new information by acting on one's curiosity and personal instincts. This change means openness and desire. Lifelong learning creates flexibility and adaptability for the individual. The individual is active and allows to participate in changes that will continue in the social field as well as in business life. (Berberoğlu, 2010)

According to Knapper and Cropley (2000), lifelong learning is essential because the world is changing rapidly in the social, economic and cultural arena. In the past, the pace of change was slower when compared to the lives of individuals, and they were not forced to adapt to situations in which individuals remained almost constant throughout their lives. But the pace of today's change has increased so much that individuals have had to stay in their learning



cycle for the rest of their lives. Rapidly developing technology and therefore increasing knowledge, make it compulsory for individuals to receive training during their lifetime. These innovations are causing great changes in the cultural, political and social spheres. The important point here is that collecting what they have in the individual and for them to adapt to this rapid change is necessary. In the old education models, education was given during childhood and youth, and the learnings that took place during adulthood were generally simple daily learning. Such educational models are no longer acceptable. (Akkuş, 2008) Lifelong learning includes capabilities and features that enable new knowledge and new skills to be acquired in the future, both in the individual and the business life. The pace of globalization and changing business conditions bring about some problems both in our country and in developed countries. Job opportunities are changing, and things are done without the skills. People need more knowledge and skills in order to be able to continue their work. For this reason, people feel the need to continue their education and improve themselves after completing their formal education. (Koç, 2007)

1.4. Functions of Lifelong Learning

The functions of lifelong learning can be listed in the following way:

- 1. The individual needs an active learning process that exists throughout his / her life in order to be able to cope with the rapid developments experienced in the world and not to fall behind the times. Lifelong learning aims to create a society that learns the learning by meeting this need.
- 2. Lifelong learning has a great influence on personal development. Lifelong learning allows the individual to develop a strong personality, enabling the development of willing, determined and creative minds. In this way, the individual who develops self discipline will be able to demonstrate a reasonable attitude in the face of rapid changes.
- 3. Lifelong learning is a learning without discriminating time, place and gender. This is a great opportunity for the individuals who have not been able to acquire learning opportunities in their life or who have left their learning due to certain reasons.
- 4. In the lifelong learning, it is desirable to increase the productivity of knowledge and raise awareness of the new knowledge and skills that have emerged and to lift generational disparities.
- 5. It aims to increase the possibilities of intercultural communication by carrying out international projects for education and thus to provide social integrity by removing the differences of religion, language and thought.

2. RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY

2.1. Purpose of the research

In the research, the approach of lifelong learning of the faculty member and students of Istanbul University Social Sciences Institute will be determined and the success of Lifelong Learning education programs will be investigated.



2.2. The Importance of Research

Scientific and technological developments in the 20th century required a rapid transformation in the world. This transformation has affected people's living spaces and necessitated different skills and personal-professional development. This necessity for the living spaces of individuals has increased the importance of the concept of lifelong learning. The concept of lifelong learning has caused our day to be called an information society and the importance in the world and our country has increased by taking every age group and social needs into consideration including lifelong learning.

For educators priority is given to the pedagogical formation for the individuals in the age of compulsory education, while the concept of lifelong learning and adult education (Andrology) has gained importance. Individuals maintain the vast majority of their lives as adults and show significant differences compared to the learning policies in children.

It is believed that this research will lead to the identification and development of the current situation in the conceptual framework of lifelong learning, adult education and trainer education programs, by identifying the trainer's education, learning and attention to elements in the educational process.

2.3. Method of Research

In this study, the questionnaire was used as the data collection method. The questionnaire consists of 23 questions. The answers of survey questions were rated according to the Likert type scaling method.

2.4. Universe and Sampling

The universe of the research is composed of 100 people from the instructors and students of İstanbul University, Faculty of Social Sciences. In this study, 5% confidence level was taken as reference.

The sample was formed by simple unselected sampling method. Simple unsupervised sampling is the withdrawal of sampling units from the universe list. (Büyüköztürk, 2012)

A face-to-face survey technique was used to collect data and information in the survey. Before the questionnaire was prepared, the literature review was done. The main variables obtained from the literature are analyzed. Findings obtained from the research results are shared.

2.5. Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses between independent variables and dependent variables

- 1. H_O: There is a statistically significant relationship between "the Need for Education" independent variable and "the Success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs".
- H1: There is no statistically significant relationship between "the Need for Education" independent variable and "the Lifelong Learning, the success of adult education and training programs".

- 2 H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between "the Need for Personal Development" independent variable and "the Lifelong Learning, the success of adult education and trainer training programs".
- H3: There is no statistically significant relationship between "the Need for Personal Development" independent variable and "the Lifelong Learning, the success of adult education and training programs".
- 3. H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between "the Trust in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" independent variable and 'the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs."
- H5: There is no statistically significant relationship between "the Trust in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" independent variable and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs."
- 4. H6: There is a statistically significant relationship between "the qualification of the instructor in the lifelong learning, adult education and educational training programs" independent variable and "the Success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs".
- H7: There is no statistically significant relationship between "the qualification of the instructor in the Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational education programs" independent variable and "the Success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs."
- 5. H8: There is a statistically significant relationship between "the originality of Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education" independent variable and "the Success of Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Education Programs."
- H9: There is no statistically significant relationship between "the originality of Lifelong Learning, the adult education and trainer education" independent variable and "the Success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer education programs."
- Hypotheses between variables according to demographic characteristics
- 1. H10: There is no statistically significant difference between "the Need for Education" independent variable and Gender, Age, Expenditure, Family Income Status of Participants.
- H11: There is a statistically significant difference between "the Need for Education" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, Family Income Status of Participants.
- 2. H₁₂: There is no statistically significant difference between "the Need for Personal Development" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income of Participants.
- H13: There is a statistically significant difference between "the Need for Personal Development" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family

Income Status of Participants.

- 3. H14: There is no statistically significant difference between "the Trust in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income Status of Participants
- H15: There is a statistically significant difference between "the Trust in Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Education Programs" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income Status of Participants.
- 4. H₁₆: There is no statistically significant difference between "the qualification of instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer education programs" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income Status of Participants,
- H17: There is a statistically significant difference between "the qualification of the instructor in the Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income of the Participants.
- 5. H18: There is no statistically significant difference between "the originality of Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Instruction" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income Status of Participants.
- H19: There is a statistically significant difference between "the originality of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training" independent variable and Gender, Age, Unemployment, and Family Income Status of Participants.

2.6. Analysis of Data

2.6.1. Reliability and Validity Analysis of Survey Questions

Factor analysis is used to test the validity of our scale. Factor analysis is a multivariate statistic aiming to find a small number of unrelated and conceptually meaningful new variables (factors) by combining number of p correlated variables. Factor analysis is a statistical technique that aims to explain the measurement by collecting variables that measures the same structure or quality with a few factors.

need to look at the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin coefficient and the Bartlett sphericity test statistic for the answer to the question "Can our factor analysis be applied?"

The values for these tests are given in Table 1.

Table 1 - Analysis Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)		0.852
Bartlett Sphericity Test	Chi-Square	860,305

As seen in Table 1, the results of the Bartlett sphericity test showed that there were significant correlations between variables (Chi-square = 860,305, p <0,05) and that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

 $H_0 = Our \ data \ do \ not \ comply \ with factor \ analysis. \ H_S = Our \ data \ show \ conformity \ to \ factor \ analysis. \ Sig<0.05\ H_0 \ denied.$

As a result, the survey questions proved to be valid.

In this study, Cronbach Alpha Coefficient Method was used for reliability nalysis. The Croncbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.934 is obtained when the reliability analysis is performed without separating the groups into the survey questions. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are highly reliable. In addition, to see the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis and the Croncbach Alpha Coefficient of the groups belonging to independent variables in detail, Cronbach's Alpha Values in terms of deletion of the relevant problem are shared in Table 1.

Reliability Analysis for the Independent Variable of "Need For Education"

In the case of the reliability analysis without separating the surveyed groups, the Croncbach Alpha Coefficient is 0.656. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are fairly reliable. On the other hand, the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 - Results of the Reliability Analysis for the Items of Need For Education

	Cronbach's Alpha
ITEMS	Value With The
	Removal of
	Relevant Variable
Every individual needs education.	0.724
An individual provide development in the individual life with the	0.543
education.	
An individual provide development in the social life with education.	0.476
The individuals involved in education Are dynamic entities.	0.541

Cronbach's Alpha Value rises to 0.724 with the removal of the item of "Every individual needs education". It is decided that the item should be removed.

Reliability Analysis for the Independent Variable of "Need For Personal Development"

When the reliability analysis is performed without separating into the groups determined by the survey questions, the Croncbach Alfa coefficient is obtained as 0.782. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are fairly reliable. On the other hand, the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis is shown in Table 4.

Table 4 - Results of the Reliability Analysis for the Items of Need For Personal Development

Development			
	Cronbach's Alpha Value		
ITEMS	With The Removal of		
	Relevant Variable		
The individuals need to constantly develop the qualities they possess.	0.838		
To maintain development as an individual, I want to learn more.	0.645		
New knowledge and skills must be acquired constantly in order to			
provide personal development.	0.607		

Cronbach's Alpha Value rises to 0.838 with the removal of the item of "Individuals need to constantly improve the qualities they possess." For this reason it has been decided to remove the item.

Reliability Analysis For The Independent Variable of "Trust in Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Education Programs"

When the reliability analysis is performed without separating the questionnaire into the groups, the Croncbach Alpha Coefficient is obtained as 0,743. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are fairly reliable. On the other hand, the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis is shown in Table 5.

Table 5 - Results of the Reliability Analysis of Component's Trust on Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education Programs

ATTEN AG	Cronbach's Alpha
ITEMS	Value With The
	Removal of Relevant
	Variable
Everyone in the LLL institutions has the opportunity of self-realization in	0.697
the field of interest.	
LLL institutions conduct training activities in every field that citizens need.	0.75
LLL institutions are able to fully meet the learning needs of the target.	0.668
Training activities in LLL institutions are continuous.	0.663
LLL institutions address the entire community.	0.712

Reliability Analysis For The Independent Variable of "Competence of instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer training programs"

When the reliability analysis is performed without separating the questionnaire into the groups, Croncbach Alpha Coefficient of 0,637 is obtained. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are fairly reliable. On the other hand, the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis is shown in Table 6.



Table 6 - Results of the Reliability Analysis for the Items of Competence of Instructor in Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education Programs

	Cronbach's Alpha Value With The	
ITEMS	Removal of Relevant Variable	
I am learning enough about the subjects taught in education.	0.615	
Education meets my expectations of the topics it contains.	0.547	
Trainer is an expert on his / her subject.	0.455	

Reliability Analysis For The Independent Variable of "Lifelong Learning, the originality of adult education and education"

When the reliability analysis is performed without separating the questionnaire into the groups, The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.716 is obtained. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are fairly reliable. On the other hand, the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis is shown in Table 7.

Table 7 - Results of the Reliability Analysis for the Items of The originality of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational education

	Cronbach's Alpha Value	
ITEMS	With The Removal of	
	Relevant Variable	
The trainings given at LLL institutions are in different fields.	0.67	
Technology is followed in the trainings given in LLL institutions.	0.588	
Importance is given to practice in the trainings given in LLL institutions.	0.711	
The trainings given in LLL institutions are usually in areas of need.	0.645	

Reliability Analysis For The Independent Variable of "The success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs"

When the reliability analysis is performed without separating the questionnaire into the groups, The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,838 is obtained. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are highly reliable. On the other hand, the effect of each questionnaire on the reliability analysis is shown in Table 8.



Table 8 - Results of the Reliability Analysis for the Items of The success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs

Learning, addit education and training programs			
	Cronbach's Alpha Value With The		
ITEMS	Removal of Relevant Variable		
Trainings usually reach their purpose.	0.866		
The participants in the training are genuinely satisfied.	0.755		
The participants can easily apply their life to their learning.	0.765		
I quite often attend to the training provided.	0.782		

When the questions of "Every individual needs education" and "Individuals need to constantly develop the qualities they possess" were removed, total of 21 questions were asked.

2.1.1. Information Obtained From the Sample of the Study

Findings containing information on the demographic characteristics of a total of 153 participants in the survey are shown in Table 9.

Table 9 - Information on Participants' Demographic Characteristics

Gender	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Male	37	37
Female	63	63
Title	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Student	31	31
Research Assistant	44	44
Instructor	25	25
Age	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
18-22	30	30
23-30	26	26
31-45	22	22
46 and over	22	22
Family Income Status	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
1000-3000 TL	28	28
3000-5000 TL	40	40
5000 TL or more	32	32

According to Table 9, 63% of the total 100 respondents are female. In the universe distribution, while 44% are Research Assistants, 31% of them are students. In the age distribution, while 30% of the participants are between the ages of 18-22 and 22% of the participants are over 46 years old. While 40% of the participants have a family income of 3000-5000 TL, 32% of the participants have a income of 5000 TL and above.

2.1.2. Statistical Interpretation of Survey Results

Statistical interpretation of the results of the questionnaire was carried out in order to determine the level of realization of some responses given to the scale and to support the descriptive research.

2.1.2.1. Distributions Related to Educational Needs Assessment

Table 10 - Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Relative to the "Educational Needs" of the Participants

	eeus of the farticipants		
ITEMS	OPTIONS	SCALE R	ESPONSES
		f	%
An individual provide	Totally Agree	42	42
development in the individual life	Agree	42	42
with the education.	Neither Agree nor Disagree	14	14
	Disagree	1	1
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
An individual provide	Totally Agree	21	21
development in the social life with	Agree	66	66
education.	Neither Agree nor Disagree	9	9
	Disagree	4	4
	Totally Disagree	0	0
	Total	100	100
The individuals involved in	Totally Agree	26	26
education are dynamic entities.	Agree	51	51
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	21	21
	Disagree	2	2
	Totally Disagree	0	0
	Total	100	100

When Table 10 is examined,

84% of the participants answered the item of " An individual provide development in the individual life with the education. " as " Totally agree and I agree. "

66% of the respondents gave the answer " Agree " in the item of " An individual provide development in the social life with education. "

It has been observed that respondents are indecisive for the item of "The individuals involved in education are dynamic entities." 51% of the respondents answered as "Agree".

From this, it can be concluded that the respondents need training and the education contributes to the person himself.

2.1.2.2. Distributions Related to the Scale of "Personal Needs For the Development"

Table 11 - Distribution of Frequency and Percentage Related to the "Need of the Personal Development"

	i cisonai Developinent		
ITEMS	OPTIONS	SCALE RESPONS	
		f	%
To maintain development as an	Totally Agree	22	22
individual, I want to learn more.	Agree	49	49
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	24	24
	Disagree	4	4
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
New knowledge and skills must be acquired constantly in order to provide personal development.	Totally Agree	30	30
	Agree	47	47
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	19	19
	Disagree	4	4
	Totally Disagree	0	0
	Total	100	100

49% of the respondents gave the answer "I agree" to the item of "To maintain development as an individual, I want to learn more."

47% of the respondents gave the answer "I agree" to the item of "New knowledge and skills must be acquired constantly in order to provide personal development."

From here it is concluded that the participants need to develop themselves continuously to learn more and to acquire new knowledge and skills, which they attach importance to personal development.



2.1.2.3. Distributions Related to Reliability of Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educator Education Programs

Table 12 - Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Component's Trust on Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education Programs

Lifelong Learning, Adult Edu	ucation and Trainer Edu	cation Progr	ams
	SCALE RESPONSES		
ITEMS	OPTIONS	f	%
Everyone in the LLL institutions has the	Totally Agree	27	27
opportunity of self- realization in the	Agree	41	41
field of interest.	Neither Agree nor Disagree	27	27
	Disagree	3	3
	Totally Disagree	2	2
	Total	100	100
LLL institutions conduct training	Totally Agree	30	30
activities in every field that citizens need.	Agree	34	34
·	Neither Agree nor Disagree	26	26
	Disagree	9	9
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
LLL institutions are able to fully meet	Totally Agree	21	21
the learning needs of the target.	Agree	61	61
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	16	16
	Disagree	1	1
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
Training activities in LLL	Totally Agree	20	20
institutions are continuous.	Agree	60	60
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	17	17
	Disagree	2	2
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
LLL institutions address the entire	Totally Agree	21	21
community.	Agree	66	66
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	12	12
	Disagree	0	0
			·
	Totally Disagree	1	1

41% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "Everyone in the LLL institutions has the opportunity of self-realization in the field of interest."

34% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "LLL institutions conduct training activities in every field that citizens need."

61% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "LLL institutions are ble to fully meet the learning needs of the target."

60% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "Training activities in LLL institutions are continuous"

66% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "LLL institutions address the entire community."

Participants were encouraged to participate in Lifelong Learning programs, and the training provided by the institutions addressed widespread masses and training was organized according to the needs of the people. In sum, they rely on Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs.

2.1.2.4. Distributions Related to Reliability of Adequacy of instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs

Table 13 - Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of Adequacy of instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs

ITEMS	OPTIONS	SCALE RI	ESPONSES
		f	%
	Totally Agree	23	23
	Agree	48	48
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	25	25
I am learning enough about the subjects	Disagree	3	3
taught in education.	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
	Totally Agree	29	29
	Agree	55	55
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	12	12
Education meets my expectations of	Disagree	2	2
the topics it contains.	Totally Disagree	2	2
	Total	100	100
	Totally Agree	22	22
	Agree	54	54
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	22	22
Trainer is an expert on his / her subject.	Disagree	1	1
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100

48% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "I am learning enough about the subjects taught in education. "

55% of the respondents gave the answer " Agree " to the item of " Education meets my expectations of the topics it contains."

54% of the "respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "Trainer is an expert on his / her subject. "

From here it can be seen that the participants sees the Lifelong Learning programs as unique. It is also seen that the trainers were experts in their subjects, the content of the training was adequate and the training given was transferred into the participants by using the correct material.

2.1.2.5.Distributions Related to The originality of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational education

Table 14 - Frequency and Percent Distribution of The originality of 'Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Instruction

ITEMS	OPTIONS		RESPONSES
	Of Horis	f	%
The trainings given at LLL	Totally Agree	28	28
institutions are in different fields.	Agree	55	55
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	13	13
	Disagree	2	2
	Totally Disagree	2	2
	Total	100	100
Technology is followed in the trainings	Totally Agree	29	29
given in LLL institutions.	Agree	63	63
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	6	6
	Disagree	2	2
	Totally Disagree	0	0
	Total	100	100
Importance is given to practice in the	Totally Agree	18	18
trainings given in LLL institutions.	Agree	63	63
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	16	16
	Disagree	2	2
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
The trainings given in LLL institutions	Totally Agree	18	18
are usually in the areas of need.	Agree	59	59
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	19	19
	Disagree	3	3
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100

55% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "The trainings given at LLL institutions are in different fields."

63% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "Technology is followed in the trainings given in LLL institutions."

63% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of " Importance is given to practice in the trainings given in LLL institutions. "

"59% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of " The trainings given in LLL institutions are usually in the areas of need. "

From this, it can be seen that the participants were assured of the Lifelong Learning programs, the training provided by the institutions was provided in the areas required and via following the technology. It has also reached the conclusion that the trainings are directed towards practice and given in different areas. To sum up, the participants find Lifelong Learning, adult education, and educational training unique.

2.1.2.6. Distributions Related to The success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs

Table 15 - Distribution of Frequency and Percentage of The success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs

ITEMS	OPTIONS	SCALE RES	SPONSES
		f	%
Trainings usually reach	Totally Agree	26	26
their purpose.	Agree	48	48
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	23	23
	Disagree	2	2
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
The participants in the training are	Totally Agree	22	22
genuinely satisfied.	Agree	49	49
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	24	24
	Disagree	4	4
	Totally Disagree	1	1
	Total	100	100
The participants can easily apply	Totally Agree	30	30
their life to their learning.	Agree	47	47
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	19	19
	Disagree	4	4
	Totally Disagree	0	0
	Total	100	100
I quite often attend to the training	Totally Agree	27	27
provided.	Agree	41	41
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	27	27



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Disagree	3	3
Totally Disagree	2	2
Total	100	100

48% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "Trainings usually reach their purpose. "

49% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "The participants in the training are genuinely satisfied."

47% of the respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "The participants can easily apply their life to their learning."

41% of respondents gave the answer "Agree" to the item of "I quite often attend to the training provided."

From here it can be seen that, the participants find the Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs successful. The participants stated that they apply what they learn in their lives, they are generally satisfied and they are performed appropriately for the purpose of their education.

3.7.4. Correlation Analyzes

Correlational relation does not mean cause-effect relation. Correlation analysis was applied to determine whether the main variables are related to each other and to the dependent variable and to determine the direction and strength of the relationship in case of a relationship. The correlation coefficient r is between +1 and -1. The correlation coefficient increases from 0 (zero) to +1 (in the same direction) and -1 (in the opposite direction). The closer the coefficient is to zero, the weaker it is. Table 17 shows the Pearson correlation coefficient table showing the relationships among the variables.



Table 17 - Results of Correlation	n A	naly	sis		ı	, ,
	Success of education programs	Need for the education	Need for Personal Development	Confidence in training programs	Competence of instructor	Originality of the Education
Success of education programs						
	Т	,681**	,933	0,75	,570**	,666**
Need for the education						
	,681**	1	,623**	,541**	0,5	**655,
Need fr Personal Development						
	,933**	,623**	1	685**	,535**	0,627
Confidence in training programs						
	,750**	,541**	**589,	1**	,682**	631**
Competence of instructor intraining programs						
	** ₀₇₅ ,	**005,	,535**	,682**	1**	**66
Originality of the						
Education	**999,	**655,	,627**	,631**	**665,	1^{**}

According to the results obtained, "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" dependent variables and independent variables were investigated.

• There is a positive and moderate relationship (r = 0.681) between "Need for education"

and "Success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs."

- There is a positive and very high degree of relationship (r = 0.933) between "Need for Personal Development" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs".
- There is a positive and high degree of relationship (r = 0.750) between the "trust in Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs".
- There is a positive and moderate relationship (r = 0.570) between "the competence of the instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs".
- There is a positive and moderate relationship (r = 0.666) between "the originality of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs".

3.7.5. Descriptive Statistics

In order to be able to see the profile of the data, the descriptive statistics of the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values were examined. The statistics are given in Table 19.

The skewness value is the measure of how far the dispersion is deviated from the average symmetry. In the case of normal distribution, the mean, mode and median are equal and the skewness coefficient is zero. If the mean is larger than the median, it is positive and it is distorted to the right. If the mean is smaller than the median, it is negative and it is distorted to the left. (Kalaycı, 2006) According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), it is considered normal for the coefficient of skew to be between +2 and -2 or between +3 and -3. According to these criteria, all variables of the study are considered normal because the skewness coefficient is between +2 or -2.

Another important identifier for the normal distribution of variables is the statistical kurtosis value. The kurtosis shows how steep or flat the normal distribution curve is. In the case of normal distribution, the kurtosis coefficient is zero.

The positive kurtosis coefficient indicates that the curve is more perpendicular than normal, and the negative kurtosis coefficient indicates that the curve is more flattened than normal. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), it is considered normal for the kurtosis coefficient to be between +3 and -3. It is assumed that the kurtosis coefficient of all variables of the study is between 2 and -2 or between +3 and -3 according to the recommended criteria.

Table 18 - Descriptive Statistics of Basic Variables

	Gender	Age	Family	Income status
Average	1,6300	1,9400	2,3600	2,0400
Median	2,0000	2,0000	2,0000	2,0000
Mode	2,00	2,00	1,00	2,00
Standard Deviation	,48524	,74968	1,13280	,77746
Skewness	-,547	,099	,185	-,070
Kurtosis	-1,736	-1,198	-1,360	-1,333

The kurtosis coefficient of all the variables of the study is considered normal because it is between 2 and -2 or between +3 and -3 according to the recommended criteria. It is considered normal because all variances of the search are between +2 or -2 of the skewness coefficient. It is also considered normal because the kurtosis coefficient is between 2 and -2 or between +3 and -3 according to the recommended criteria.

3.8 Results and Comments

One of the tests used to examine differences between groups is the t-test. One sample t-test is used to test differences between independent two groups (independet samples t-test) and paired samples t-test (difference between two matched groups). In interpretation of the t-test results, it is assumed that the difference between the two groups is compared if the significance level, which corresponds to the value of t, is greater than 0.05 for the 5% level of significance. Otherwise there is no significant difference between the two groups.

Differences in more than one group can be determined by the ANOVA test, also known as "analysis of variance". One way ANOVA is the simplest analysis of variance. There can be two or more groups in the argument. Unidirectional Anova tests whether there is a difference between these groups according to the averages in the dependent variable.

A significant difference between the two groups is assessed if the F value given in the analysis report is less than 0.05 (significant F <0.05). This difference can also be confirmed by examining the averages of the variables.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether the relationship between participants, titles, ages, and income status of their families (independent variables) are changed or not. T-tests were conducted to determine whether the relationship between groups had changed according to the participants gender.

3.8.1. Significance Distributions Relating to Need for Education 3.8.1.4. Significance Distributions according to Gender of Participants

Table 19 - Significance Distributions according to Gender

Tuble 17 Diginitednee Distributions decording to Gender								
Survey Questions	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	t	p		
				Deviation				
	Male	37	2,027	0,92756	2,521	0,013		
An individual provide development in the individual life with the education.	Woman	63	1,619	0,68223				
An individual provide development in	Male	37	2,0811	0,68225	1,37	0,174		
the social life with education.	Woman	63	1,8889	0,67468				
The individuals involved in Education	Male	37	2,0811	0,64024	0,936	0,352		
are dynamic entities.	Woman	63	1,9365	0,80067				

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the Need for education and the genders of the participants.

3.8.1.5. Significance Distributions according to Participants' Titles

Table 20 - Significance Distributions according to Titles of Participants

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p
		squares			
An individual provide	Between groups	8,38	2		
development in the	Inside groups	55,33	97		
individual life with the	Total	63,71	99	7,346	0,001
education.					
An individual provide	Between groups	0,921	2	0,994	0,374
development in the social	Inside groups	44,919	97		
life with education.	Total	45,84	99		
The individuals	Between groups	2,26	2		
involved in education are	Inside groups	52,73	97		
dynamic entities.	Total	54,99	99	2,078	0,131

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the Need For Education and Participants' titles.

3.8.1.6. Significance Distributions according to the Participants' Age

Table 21 - Significance Distributions according to the Participants' Age

Table 21 - Significance Distributions according to the Tarticipants Age					
Survey Questions		Sum of squares	sd	F	p
An individual provide	Between groups	0,896	3		
development in the	Inside groups	62,814	96	0,456	0,713
individual life with the	Total	63,71	99		
education.					
An individual provide	Between groups	0,542	3		
development in the	Inside groups	45,298	96	0,383	0,766
social life with	Total	45,84	99	0,303	0,700
education.					
The individuals	Between groups	1,814	3	1,092	0,356
involved in education	Inside groups	53,176	96		
are dynamic entities.	Total	54,99	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the Need For education and the Age of Participants.

3.8.1.7. Significance Distributions according to Family Income

Table 22. Significance Distributions According to Family Income

Survey Questions		Sum of	Sd	F	P
		squares			
An individual provide	Between groups	0,677	2	0,521	0,596
development in the	Inside groups	63,033	97		
individual life with the	Total	63,71	99		
education.					
An individual provide	Between groups	1,807	2	1,99	0,142
development in the social	Inside groups	44,033	97		
life with education.	Total	45,84	99		
The individuals	Between groups	3,296	2	3,093	0,05
involved in education are	Inside groups	51,694	97		
dynamic entities.	Total	54,99	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between Participants' Need For Education and Family Income.

3.8.2. Significance Distributions Relating to Need For Personal Development 3.8.2.1. Significance Distributions according to Gender

Table 23. Significance Distributions according to Gender

Survey Questions	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	t	p
				Deviation		
To maintain development as an	Male	37	2,2703	0,83827	1,289	0,2
individual, I want to learn more.	Woman	63	2,0476	0,83141		
New knowledge and skills must be	Male	37	2,1892	0,77595	2,11	0,037
acquired constantly in order to provide	Woman	63	1,8413	0,80735		
personal development.						

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0,05), there is no significant difference between the Need For Personal Development and the genders of the participants.

3.8.2.2. Significance Distributions according to participants' title

Table 24. Significance Distributions According to participants' Titles

Table 24. Significance Distributions According to participants. Thies								
Survey Questions		Sum of	Sd	F	р			
		squares						
To maintain development as an	Between groups	1,22	2	0,869	0,423			
individual, I want to learn more.	Inside groups	68,09	97					
	Total	69,31	99					
New knowledge and skills must be	Between groups	2,83	2	2,211	0,115			
acquired constantly in order to	Inside groups	62,08	97					
providepersonal development.	Total	64,91	99					

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0,05), there is no significant difference between the Need For Personal Development and the title of the participants.

3.8.3.3. Significance Distributions according to the Participants' Age

Table 25. Significance Distributions according to the Age

Table 23. Big	milicance Distribution	s according to d	nc Age	Table 23. Significance Distributions according to the Age								
Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p							
		squares										
To maintain development as	Between groups	0,777	3	0,363	0,78							
an individual, I want to learn	Inside groups	68,533	96									
more.	Total	69,31	99									
New knowledge and skills	Between groups	0,424	3	0,211	0,889							
must be acquired constantly	Inside groups	64,486	96									
in order to provide personal	Total	64,91	99									
development.												

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0,05), there is no significant difference

between the Need For Personal Development and the age.

3.8.3.4. Significance Distributions according to Family Income

Table 26. Significance Distributions According to Family Income

	realice Distributions	Treeor anng	to I dilli	ij illeolile	
Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p
		squares			
To maintain development as an	Between groups	5,031	2	3,796	0,026
individual, I want to learn ore.	Inside groups	64,279	97		
	Total	69,31	99		
New knowledge and skills	Between groups	3,727	2	2,954	0,057
must be acquired constantly in	Inside groups	61,183	97		
order to provide personal	Total	64,91	99		
development.					

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0,05), there is no significant difference between the Need For Personal Developmental and the participants' family incomes.

3.8.3. Significance Distribution Relating to "the Reliability for Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Education Programs"

3.8.3.1. Significance Distributions According to Gender

Table 27. Significance Distributions According to Gender

Survey Questions	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	t	р
				Deviation		
Everyone in the LLL institutions	Male	37	2,1892	0,8768	0,579	0,564
has the opportunity of self-	Woman	63	2,0794	0,9385		
realization in the field of interest.						
LLL institutions conduct	Male	37	2,2703	0,9902		
training activities in every field					0,77	0,443
that citizens need.	Woman	63	2,1111	1,0018		
LLL institutions are able to fully	Male	37	2,0541	0,6644	0,581	0,563
meet the learning needs	Woman	63	1,9683	0,7398		
of the target.						
Training activities in LLL	Male	37	2,1351	0,7875		
institutions are continuous.	Woman	63	1,9841	0,7069	0,989	0,325
LLL institutions address the entire	Male	37	2,0811	0,4932		
community.	Woman	63	1,8571	0,7152	1,682	0,096

There is no significant difference between the gender and participants' confidence in Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer training programs, as the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05).

3.8.3.2. Significance Distributions According to Participant's Title

Table 28. Significance Distributions According to Participant's Title

Table 28. Significance Distributions According to Participant's Title							
Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	\mathbf{F}	p		
		squares					
Everyone in the LLL	Between groups	3,917	2	2,416	0,095		
institutions has the opportunity	Inside groups	78,643	97				
of self- realization in the field	Total	82,56	99				
of interest.							
LLL institutions conduct	Between groups	2,472	2	1,253	0,29		
training activities in every field	Inside groups	95,638	97				
that citizens need.	Total	98,11	99				
LLL institutions are able to	Between groups	4,996	2	5,385	0,006		
fully meet the learning needs of	Inside groups	45,004	97				
the target.	Total	50	99				
Training activities in LLL	Between groups	7,2	2	7,487	0,001		
institutions are continuous.	Inside groups	46,64	97				
	Total	53,84	99				
LLL institutions address the	Between groups	3,534	2	4,498	0,014		
entire community.	Inside groups	38,106	97				
	Total	41,64	99				

There is no significant difference between the participants' title and the Reliability for Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer training programs, since the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05).

3.8.3.3. Significance Distributions According to the Participant's Age

Table 29. Significance Distributions According to the Age

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p
		squares			
Everyone in the LLL	Between groups	2,84	3	1,14	0,337
institutions has the opportunity	Inside groups	79,72	96		
of self- realization in the field	Total	82,56	99		
of interest.					
LLL institutions conduct	Between groups	4,296	3	1,465	0,229
training activities in every field	Inside groups	93,814	96		
that citizens need.	Total	98,11	99		
LLL institutions are able to	Between groups	0,217	3	0,14	0,936
fully meet the learning needs of	Inside groups	49,783	96		
the target.	Total	50	99		
Training activities in LLL	Between groups	0,366	3	0,219	0,883
institutions are continuous.	Inside groups	53,474	96		
	Total	53,84	99		

LLL institutions address the	Between groups	0,621	3	0,484	0,694
entire community.	Inside groups	41,019	96		
	Total	41,64	99		

There is no significant difference between the Reliability for Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education Programs and Age of Participants, as the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05).

3.8.3.4. Significance Distributions of Participants according to Family Income

Table 30. Significance distributions according to Family income

Tuble 50. Diginifednee distributions decording to Luminy meome							
Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p		
		squares					
Everyone in the LLL	Between groups	3,928	2	2,423	0,094		
institutions has the opportunity	Inside groups	78,632	97				
of self- realization in the field of	Total	82,56	99				
interest.							
LLL institutions conduct	Between groups	1,421	2	0,713	0,493		
training activities in every field	Inside groups	96,689	97				
that citizens need.	Total	98,11	99				
LLL institutions are able to	Between groups	0,743	2	0,731	0,484		
fully meet the learning needs of	Inside groups	49,257	97				
the target.	Total	50	99				
Training activities in LLL	Between groups	1,226	2	1,13	0,327		
institutions are continuous.	Inside groups	52,614	97				
	Total	53,84	99				
LLL institutions address the	Between groups	1,143	2	1,368	0,259		
entire community.	Inside groups	40,497	97				
	Total	41,64	99		ļ		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the Reliability for Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education Programs and Family Income.

3.8.4. Significance Distributions Relating to the "Qualification of the instructor in the Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs"

3.8.4.1. Significance Distribution According to Gender

Table 31. Significance Distributions According to Gender

Survey Questions	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	t	р
				Deviation		
I am learning enough about the	Male	37	2,1892	0,65988	0,732	0,466
subjects taught in education.	Woman	63	2,0635	0,91357		
Education meets my	Male	37	2,0811	1,01046	1,42	0,159
expectations of the topics it	Woman	63	1,8413	0,67696		
contains.						
Trainer is an expert on his	Male	37	2,1351	0,75138		
/ her subject.	Woman	63	2	0,762	0,861	0,392

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the adequacy of the trainer in the Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer training programs and Gender.

3.8.4.2. Significance Distributions According to Participants' Titles

Table 22 - Significance Distributions According to Participants' Titles

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p
		squares			
I am learning enough about the	Between groups	0,296	2	0,213	0,809
subjects taught in education.	Inside groups	67,494	97		
	Total	67,79	99		
Education meets my	Between groups	5,975	2	4,787	0,01
expectations of the topics it	Inside groups	60,535	97		
contains.	Total	66,51	99		
Trainer is an expert on his / her	Between groups	2,154	2	1,913	0,153
subject.	Inside groups	54,596	97		
	Total	56,75	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the adequacy of trainers in the lifelong learning, adult education and trainer education programs and participants' titles.

3.8.4.3. Significance Distributions According to Participants' Ages

Table 23 - Significance Distributions According to Participants' Age

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	р
		squares			
I am learning enough about the	Between groups	0,426	3	0,202	0,895
subjects taught in education.	Inside groups	67,364	96		
	Total	67,79	99		
Education meets my	Between groups	2,098	3	1,042	0,377
expectations of the topics it	Inside groups	64,412	96		
contains.	Total	66,51	99		
Trainer is an expert on his / her	Between groups	0,595	3	0,339	0,797
subject.	Inside groups	56,155	96		
	Total	56,75	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the participants' age and the adequacy of the trainer in Adult Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer training programs.

3.8.4.4. Significance Distributions According to Participants' Family Income

Table 24 - Significance Distributions According to Family Income

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	р
		squares			
I am learning enough about the	Between groups	1,007	2	0,731	0,484
subjects taught in education.	Inside groups	66,783	97		
	Total	67,79	99		
Education meets my	Between groups	0,138	2	0,101	0,904
expectations of the topics it	Inside groups	66,372	97		
contains.	Total	66,51	99		
Trainer is an expert on his / her	Between groups	2,078	2	1,843	0,164
subject.	Inside groups	54,672	97		
	Total	56,75	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the adequacy of the trainer in the life long Learning, adult education and trainer training programs and Family Income.

3.8.5. Significance Distributions Relating to the "Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Instructional Training Originality" 3.8.4.5. Significance Distributions According to Gender

Table 25 - Significance Distributions According to Gender

Tuble 20	Digititean	ce Distri	ibutions rice	orung to Gen	luci	
Survey Questions	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	t	p
				Deviation		
The trainings given at LLL	Male	37	2,1081	0,93642	1,485	0,141
institutions are in different	Woman	63	1,8571	0,73741		
fields.						
Technology is followed in	Male	37	1,9189	0,59528	1,328	0,187
the trainings given in LLL	Woman	63	1,746	0,64678		
institutions.						
Importance is given to	Male	37	2,1892	0,77595	1,499	0,137
practice in the trainings	Woman	63	1,9683	0,67126		
given in LLL institutions.						
The trainings given in LLL	Male	37	2,1351	0,85512	0,353	0,725
institutions are usually in	Woman	63	2,0794	0,70257		
areas of need.						

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the Gender of Participants and the Specificity Scale of Adult Education and Educational Education.

3.8.4.6. Significance Distributions According to Participants' Titles

Table 26 - Significance Distributions According to Participants' Titles

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p
		squares			
The trainings given at LLL	Between groups	3,419	2	2,618	0,078
institutions are in different	Inside groups	63,331	97		
fields.	Total	66,75	99		
Technology is followed in the	Between groups	1,56	2	2	0,141
trainings given in LLL	Inside groups	37,83	97		
institutions.	Total	39,39	99		
Importance is given to practice	Between groups	3,661	2	3,771	0,026
in the trainings given in LLL	Inside groups	47,089	97		
institutions.	Total	50,75	99		
The trainings given in LLL	Between groups	1,79	2	1,572	0,213
institutions are usually in areas	Inside groups	55,21	97		
of need.	Total	57	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between Participants' titles by the scale of Life Long Learning, adult education and

trainer education originality.

3.8.4.7. Significance Distributions According to Participant's Age

Table 27 - Significance Distributions According to Participant's Age

Table 27 - Significance Distributions According to Farticipant's Age						
Survey Questions		Sum of squares	sd	F	p	
The trainings given at LLL	Between groups	1,502	3	0,737	0,533	
institutions are in different fields.	Inside groups	65,248	96			
	Total	66,75	99			
Technology is followed in the	Between groups	0,23	3	0,188	0,904	
trainings given in LLL	Inside groups	39,16	96			
institutions.	Total	39,39	99			
Importance is given to practice in	Between groups	0,313	3	0,199	0,897	
the trainings given in LLL	Inside groups	50,437	96			
institutions.	Total	50,75	99			
The trainings given in LLL	Between groups	0,617	3	0,35	0,789	
institutions are usually in areas of	Inside groups	56,383	96			
need.	Total	57	99			

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the age of participants and the scale of Life Long Learning, adult education and trainer education originality.

3.8.4.8. Significance Distributions according to Family Income

Table 28 - Significance Distributions According to Family Income

Survey Questions		Sum of squares	sd	F	p
The trainings given at LLL	Between groups	0,774	2	0,569	0,568
institutions are in different fields.	Inside groups	65,976	97		
	Total	66,75	99		
Technology is followed in the	Between groups	2,664	2	3,518	0,033
trainings given in LLL	Inside groups	36,726	97		
institutions.	Total	39,39	99		
Importance is given to practice in	Between groups	0,699	2	0,677	0,51
the trainings given in LLL	Inside groups	50,051	97		
institutions.	Total	50,75	99		
The trainings given in LLL	Between groups	0,274	2	0,234	0,792
institutions are usually in areas of	Inside groups	56,726	97		
need.	Total	57	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the family income and the originality of life-long learning, adult education and trainer education.

3.8.5. Significance Distributions According to the Success of Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Education Programs

3.8.5.1. Significance Distributions According to Gender

Table 29 - Significance Distributions According to Gender

Survey Questions	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	t	р
				Deviation		
Trainings usually reach their	Male	37	2,1892	0,84452	1,409	0,16
purpose.	Woman	63	1,9524	0,79166		
The participants in the	Male	37	2,2703	0,83827	1,289	0,2
training are genuinely satisfied.	Woman	63	2,0476	0,83141		
The participants can easily	Male	37	2,1892	0,77595	2,11	0,04
apply their life to their learning.	Woman	63	1,8413	0,80735		
I quite often attend to the	Male	37	2,1892	0,87679	0,579	0,56
training provided.	Woman	63	2,0794	0,93845		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the gender and the Life Long Learning, adult education and trainer training programs.

3.8.5.2. Significance Distributions According to Participants' Titles

Table 30 - Significance Distributions According to Participants' Titles

Survey Questions		Total of	sd	F	p
		squares			
Trainings usually reach their	Between groups	0,032	2	0,023	0,977
purpose.	Inside groups	65,808	97		
	Total	65,84	99		
The participants in the training	Between groups	1,22	2	0,869	0,423
are genuinely satisfied.	Inside groups	68,09	97		
	Total	69,31	99		
The participants can easily	Between groups	2,83	2	2,211	0,115
apply their life to their	Inside groups	62,08	97		
learning.	Total	64,91	99		
I quite often attend to the	Between groups	3,917	2	2,416	0,095
training provided.	Inside groups	78,643	97		
	Total	82,56	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between participants' titles and the success of the Life Long Learning, adult education and trainer training programs.

3.8.5.3. Significance Distributions According to Participant's Age

Table 31 - Significance Distributions According to Participant's Age

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	р
		squares			
Trainings usually reach	Between groups	2,071	3	1,039	0,379
their purpose.	Inside groups	63,769	96		
	Total	65,84	99		
The participants in the training	Between groups	0,777	3	0,363	0,78
are genuinely satisfied.	Inside groups	68,533	96		
	Total	69,31	99		
The participants can easily apply	Between groups	0,424	3	0,211	0,889
their life to their learning.	Inside groups	64,486	96		
	Total	64,91	99		
I quite often attend to the training	Between groups	2,84	3	1,14	0,337
provided.	Inside groups	79,72	96		
	Total	82,56	99		

As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between the age and the success of life-long learning, adult education and trainer training programs.

3.8.5.4. Significance Distributions according to Family Income

Table 32 - Significance Distributions According to Family Income

Survey Questions		Sum of	sd	F	p
		squares			
Trainings usually reach their	Between groups	0,918	2	0,686	0,506
purpose.	Inside groups	64,922	97		
	Total	65,84	99		
The participants in the training are	Between groups	5,031	2	3,796	0,026
genuinely satisfied.	Inside groups	64,279	97		
	Total	69,31	99		
The participants can easily apply	Between groups	3,727	2	2,954	0,057
their life to their learning.	Inside groups	61,183	97		
	Total	64,91	99		
I quite often attend to the training	Between groups	3,928	2	2,423	0,094
provided.	Inside groups	78,632	97		
	Total	82,56	99		

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As the probability level is greater than 0.05 (p> 0.05), there is no significant difference between of Family Income and the Success of Life Long Learning, Adult Education and Trainers' Education.

3.9. Regression Analysis

The correlation results show whether there is an association between the two variables, but do not explain the causal relationship. For this reason, it is necessary to evaluate the results of the regression analysis in order to support the hypotheses expressing meaningful effect. By the nature of the relationship between the variables in regression analysis; Unlike correlation, is used to examine the effects of one or more variables on another variable. Need for Education, Need for Personal Development, Confidence in training programs, Competence of trainers in training programs and Educational specificity independent variable (X); The success of the training programs was defined as the dependent variable (Y) and the regression model was established in the SPSS program. The R2 value in the analysis table shows the dependent variable explanation power of the independent variable. T values reveal the significance level of the regression model. Regression analysis results are shown in Table 33.

Table 33 - Results of Regression Analysis

		-					
	В	t	Sig	R2	Durbin- Watson	F	sig
Need for Education	0,143	2,883	0,005	0,906	1,834	180,403	0
Need for Personal Development	0,65	14,553	0				
Confidence in Lifelong Learning,	0,218	3,465	0,001				
adult education and training							
programs							
Adequacy of	- 0,032						
Instructor in Lifelong Learning,		-0,61	0,543				
adult education and training							
programs							
The originality of Lifelong							
Learning, adult education and							
educational education	0,067	1,137	0,258				

It was obtained as b1: 0,143, b2: 0,65, b3: 0,218, b4: -0,032, b5: 0,067. The constant coefficient was found to be b0: -0.056. Accordingly, the regression equation was obtained as y = -0.056 + 0.143x1 + 0.65x2 + 0.218x3 - 0.032x4 + 0.067x5.

Whether each of the independent variables is meaningful or not should be investigated. In other words, whether the mean of the sample is equal to the mean of the sample is tested by a double-sided t test. According to this hypothesis,

- H0: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = ... \mu k$ "there is no difference between the average"
- H1: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = ... \neq \mu k$ "At least one average is different from the others."

If the t value of the table at the 5% significance level is compared with the calculated t value of the table,

- The coefficient of the independent variable of "Need for Education" is p (sig): 0.005 (p <0.005), so the coefficient is meaningful. The H₀ hypothesis is rejected.
- The coefficient of the independent variable of "Need for Personal Development" is p (sig): 0.00 (p <0.005), so the coefficient is meaningful. The H0 hypothesis is rejected.
- The coefficient of the independent variable of "confidence in lifelong learning, adult education and trainer education programs" is p (sig): 0.001 (p <0.005), so the coefficient is meaningful. The H0 hypothesis is rejected.
- The coefficient of the independent variable of the "adequacy of the instructor in the Lifelong Learning, adult education and trainer training programs" p (sig): 0,543 (p> 0,005), so the coefficient is insignificant. The H₀ hypothesis is accepted.
- The coefficient of the independent variable of the "Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Instructional Specificity" is p (sig): 0,258 (p> 0,005), so the coefficient is not significant. The H_0 hypothesis is accepted.

As a result, the two independent variables must be removed from the established model, since the coefficients of the "the sufficiency of the lifelong learning, adult education and trainer training programs" and "the originality lifelong learning, adult education and trainer education" are not significant. In other words, the result of the two specified arguments can not explain the "success of the training programs" in a meaningful way will be obtained.

While testing the parameters one by one in a t statistical regression equation, the F statistic, tests the entire parameters including the variables; that is, checking whether there is a relationship different from zero between the dependent variable and the parameters containing the independent variable. Hypotheses to be established for the F test are,

- H_0 : There is no multiple linear relationship between variables.
- H₁: There is a multiple linear relationship between variables.

There is a multiple linear relationship between the variables, because of at the F value (180,403) at the 5% significance level is higher the table value. Also p = 0,000 at a significance level of 5% was found significant. H0 hypothesis is rejected.

R2 indicates how many percent changes in the dependent variable are made with explanatory variables.

The specificity coefficient of the regression equation is R2 = 90.6%. 90.6% of the "success of training programs" can be explained by five independent variables.

3.10. Assumptions of Least Squares Method

The reliability of the estimates obtained by the least squares regression technique are dependent on the conditions of,

- The independence between prediction errors (autocorrelation)
- Normal dispersion of faults
- Variances of estimation errors are equal.

3.10.1. Autocorrelation Assumption

Autocorrelation is defined as a meaningful relationship between successive error unit values and indicates undesired state in regression analysis. Influence of unit values on each other, in other words if the unit values are not dependent on each other, leads to a systematic relationship (successive dependence) between error terms in regression analysis.

Several methods have been found in a model to determine if the error term is with autocorrelation. Here, the Durbin-Watson test was used for these methods. The Durbin-Watson (d) value calculated in the equation is compared with two critical scale values in dL and dU. As a result of this comparison;

There is positive autocorrelation if 0 <d <dL

- If dL\le d\le dU, it is not decided
- If dU <d <4 dU, there is no autocorrelation.

For investigating if there is an autocorrelation problem for the model, the hypotheses will be established for this as,

- H0: $\rho = 0$ (no autocorrelation)
- H1: $\rho \neq 0$ (autocorrelation exists).

According to the SPSS results, the Durbin-Watson (d) value was obtained as 1,834, as shown in Table 33.

There is no autocorrelation when dU <d <4- dU. The H1 hypothesis is rejected.

3.10.2. Normal Distribution Assumption of Errors

In order to test the interval estimation and regression coefficients, an assumption about the distribution of errors must be made. This assumption is the assumption that the distribution of error terms is normal dispersion

- H0: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = ... \mu k$ "there is no difference between the average"
- H1: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = ... \neq \mu k$ "At least one average is different from the others"

As shown in Table 34, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test statistic is 0.064 and the Shapiro-Wilk test statistic is 0.982.

Table 34 - Normality Test Table

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogo	rov-Smirno	V	Shapiro-V	Vilk	
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Unstandardized	,064	100	,200*	,982	100	,179
Residual			,200			

There is no difference between the mean values of Kolmogorov-Smirnovtest statistic at 0,200> 0,05 and the Shapiro-Wilk test statistic at the 5% significance level of 0,179> 0.05, so the H₀ hypothesis was accepted. The distribution of faults is suitable for normal distribution.

3.10.3. Equal variances of forecast errors

The variance of the varying variance error term is not the same for all observations. Graphical method and some tests are used for the variance survey. We will test the hypothesis fit using the Spearman rank correlation test.

The absolute values of the errors in the regression model were taken into account for the distribution of variances.

If hypotheses are written,

- H0: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = ... \mu k$ "There is no difference between the average of estimation. errors"
- H1: $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = ... \neq \mu k$ "At least one average is different from the others."

According to this, when Spearman's rho statistic is examined in SPSS, Sig. (2-tailed) value is obtained as shown in Table 35.

Need Need for Confidence in The for Adequacy of Lifelong originality of Education Personal Instructor in Lifelong Development Learning, adult Lifelong education and Learning, Learning, adult training adult education and programs education and training programs educational education 0,091 0,356 (sig) 0,72 0,278 0,597

Table 35 - Table of Variance Test

For all the independent variables, p-value is reached as a result that the assumption of constant variance over the error terms is valid since $\alpha = 0.05$. H0 hypothesis has been accepted.

As a result, the established regression model can be used because it provides the conditions for the three assumptions.

CONCLUSION

With the study, the research has been investigated the success of the lifelong learning education programs while determining the approaches related to lifelong learning with the lecturers and students of the Social Sciences Institute of Istanbul University, located in Istanbul.

In this study, the questionnaire is used as the data collection method. The questionnaire consists of 23 questions. The universe of the research is composed of 100 people from the



lecturers and students of Istanbul University, Faculty of Social Sciences. In this study, 5% confidence level was taken as reference.

The Croncbach Alpha Coefficient of 0.934 is obtained when the reliability analysis is performed without separating the groups into the survey questions. Alpha coefficients indicate that the scales are highly reliable.

In addition, when the reliability analysis is repeated on groups in order to see the effect of each problem on the reliability analysis in detail, the items of "Every individual needs training" and "Individuals need to constantly develop the qualities they possess" were removed from the questionnaire.

The kurtosis coefficient of all the variables of the study is considered normal because it is between 2 and -2 or between +3 and -3 according to the recommended criteria. It is considered normal because all variances of the search are between +2 or -2 of the skewness coefficient. It is also considered normal because the kurtosis coefficient is between 2 and -2 or between +3 and -3 according to the recommended criteria.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether the relationship between participants, titles, ages, and groups (independent variables) by income status of their families changed. T-tests were conducted to determine whether the participants had changed the relationship between groups according to their gender.

When the results were examined, it was determined that there was no significant difference between demographic characteristics and independent variables. The accepted hypotheses are as follows:

- 1. H_{10} : There is no significant difference between the independent variable of the "Need for Education" and Gender, Age, Title, Family Income Status.
- 2. H_{12} : There is no significant difference between the independent variable of the "Need for Personal Development" and Title Gender, Age, Title, Family Income Status.
- 3. H_{14} : There is no significant difference between the independent variable of the "Trust in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" and Gender, Age, Title, Family Income Status.
- 4. H₁₆: There is no significant difference between the independent variable of the "Competence of instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs" and Gender, Age, Unemployment, Family Income Status.
- 5. H_{18} : There is no significant difference between the independent variable of the "Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Trainer Education" and Gender, Age, Unemployment, Family Income Status.

Need for Education, Need for Personal Development, Confidence in training programs, Competence of trainers in training programs and Educational specificity are determined as independent variable (X); the success of training programs is defined as dependent variable (Y) and a regression model is established in SPSS program.

Two independent variables should be removed from the established model, since the coefficients of the independent variables of "competence of the trainer in lifelong learning, adult education and trainer training programs" and" the originality of lifelong learning, adult



education and trainer education" are not significant. In other words, the result is that the two specified arguments can not explain the "success of the training programs" in a meaningful way.

Due to the F table value (180,403) at the 5% significance level, which is calculated as shown in Table 43, is higher than the table value, there is a multiple linear relationship between the variables. Also at p=0, 000 significance level of 5% was found significant. The H_0 hypothesis is rejected.

R2 indicates how many% changes in the dependent variable are made with explanatory variables. The specificity coefficient of the regression equation is R2 = 90.6%. 90.6% of the "success of training programs" can be explained by five independent variables.

Reliability of estimates obtained by least squares regression technique depends on the condition that,

- There is an independence between prediction errors. (Autocorrelation)
- Normal dispersion of faults
- The variances of estimation errors are equal.

As a result, the regression model established can be used because it provides the conditions for the three assumptions.

Correlational relation does not mean cause-effect relation. Correlation analysis was applied in order to determine whether the main variables are related to each other and to the dependent variable and to determine the direction and strength of the relationship if there is relationship.

According to the results obtained, the relations between the dependent variable of "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" and independent variables were investigated.

- There is a positive and moderate relationship (r=0.681) between "the Need for Education" and" the Success of Lifelong Learning, Adult Education and Educational Education Programs."
- There is a positive and very high degree of relationship (r = 0.933) between "the Need for Personal Develop ment" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs."
- There is a positive and high degree of relationship (r = 0.750) between "the trust in Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs. "
- There is a positive and moderate relationship (r = 0.570) between "the competence of the instructor in Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs."
- There is a positive and moderate relationship (r = 0.666) between "the authenticity of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training" and "the success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs."

When the results were examined, it was determined that there was a significant relationship between dependent variable and independent variables. The accepted hypotheses are as follows:

- 1. Ho: There is a meaningful relationship between "The Need for Education" independent variant and "The success of lifelong learning, adult education, and educational education programs."
- 2. H₂: There is a meaningful relationship between "The need for personal development" independent variant and "The success of lifelong learning, adult education and training programs."
- 3. H₄: There is a significant relationship between "The trust in lifelong learning, adult education and training programs" independent variant and "The success of Lifelong Learning, adult education and training programs."
- 4. H₆: There is a meaningful relationship between "The success of lifelong learning, adult education and educational training programs" independent variant and "The qualification of the instructor in the Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training programs."
- 5. H₈: There is a meaningful relationship between "The originality of Lifelong Learning, adult education and educational training" independent variant and "The success of lifelong learning, adult education and educational training programs."

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The Relationship between Leader Empowering Behavior and Affective Organizational Commitment: A Research among Nurses¹

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ABSTRACT

The current study investigated the relation of leader empowering behaviors with affective organizational commitment through a survey among nurses working in private hospitals in Turkey. It was hypothesized that the higher the individuals feel leaders/supervisors empowering behaviors the more they commit to their organizations affectively. Therefore, this study was conducted to examine the relationship between perceived leader empowering behaviors and nurses' affective commitment perceptions. A research study was performed on a sample of 255 nurses who were working in private hospitals. The findings showed that there is a positive significant relationship between perceived leader empowering behaviors and affective commitment perceptions of nurses.

KEYWORDS: Leader Empowering Behavior, Affective Organizational Commitment, Nurses

INTRODUCTION

Changes in business environment have forced organizations to reconsider managerial systems in order to remain competitive in a volatile economy. In the past, organizations were typically bureaucratic, hierarchic and rigid while today's successful competitors are flexible, fast and dependent on their front-line employees acting independently for the best interest of the company (Baker, 2000). Success in the market depends on building organizations on synergy, flexibility, collaboration, partnership and employee accountability in return for employee freedom. While globalization accelerates together with changing world and harsh competition in business world, the importance of independent employees acting fast, innovative, right and best has been increased. Thereby, empowerment has become an important theme of management and leadership practices. Empowerment is one of managerial strategy in which leaders distribute information, power, knowledge and rewards throughout the organization to make employees involved in job highly, think strategically about their works and jobs, take personal responsibility for the quality of their work so to obtain high performance results.

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Organizations have implemented many managerial approaches based on employee empowerment such as self-managed work teams, high-involvement work practices and they embraced total quality management to increase first-level employees' power that is limited in traditional organizations (Lawler, 1986). Managers thought that implementing and embracing these approaches create both organizational and employee-based benefits such as increased productivity, innovation, business performance, capacity to adapt to their environment, speed in replying the requirements of changing environment, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and powerful employees. (Wellins, Byham and Wilson, 1991). Unfortunately, implementation of empowering managerial practices does not always lead to outcomes as expected by corporations or managers (Cotton, 1996; Wagner, 1994). The researchers designated some situational variables as reasons of failure such as top management support, compensation; training, organizational climate could moderate the effectiveness of empowering practices (Borghei, Jandaghi, Matin and Dastani, 2009). In addition, researchers have searched for organizational and psychological climate to evaluate managerial effectiveness and employees' organizational attitudes (Cooke and Szumal, 1993). Moran and Volkwein (1992) argued that the leaders implement some empowering practices to obtain better organizational outputs such as better and more effective performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and creativity. But these practices should be meant to subordinates so they feel empowered and show better organizational behaviors so better organizational outputs. In this perspective, the current study aims at verifying if there is a relationship between the leader empowering behavior and employees' perception of affective commitment.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

2.1. The Definition of Empowerment

Employee empowerment has been generally approached as one of the managerial functions, which organizations can use to enable the employees to perform well and to respond the demanding world of global competition (Hur, 2006). In both business world and academic literature, empowerment concept emerged in late 1980. Initially, researchers have considered it as related to organizational practices or managerial techniques, redesigning of organization and was meant giving employees more authority in tasks and job-related activities (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Slatten, 2010), sharing of information in all levels of organization, implying ability to make decisions, encouraging and rewarding employees to exercise initiative and imagination (Zemke and Schaaf, 1989), implying freedom someone from rigid control by instructions, policies, orders and giving that person freedom to take responsibility for his/her ideas, decisions and actions to release hidden capabilities and engage with motivation towards better organizational results, delegation of power, autonomy, leadership skills, team building experiences (Borghei et al, 2010, p.64). Empowerment was defined as a state of mind, in which employees feel control about how they perform the job, aware of the context in which the job is executed, feel responsibility for individual work output; experience shared responsibility for organizational performance and equity in the rewards based on performance (Melhem, 2004, p.72). According to Yoon (2001, p.195), empowerment was an intrinsic motivation or selfdetermination, effective motivation or competency, sense of control, need for power and selfefficacy. Empowerment is the delegation of authority and decision-making to employees. Empowerment is a process in which employees gain power, authority and influence over other



employees and organization. Empowerment is combination of having decision- making power of their own, access to information and resources for taking proper decision, having options in making choices about how to do job, ability to exercise assertiveness in collective decision-making. According to Scott, Jaffe and Tobe (1993), it refers to employees and managers sharing equal responsibility for outputs and increasing employees' contributions to an organization's success. Harley (1995) defined eight principles that managers should embrace to be successful in their efforts to empower employees. Those are protecting the dignity of all employees; managing perceptions, not just the facts; using organizational authority to release human potential rather than inhibiting; making decisions together with employees; clarifying vision, mission, objectives, goals and job descriptions; making employees feel that they are making the company a better place, making difference for others for the organization); coming from values; providing feedback requested by employees.

2.2. Managerial Empowerment Practices and Empowering leadership

Empowering managerial practices can be defined as a set of management practices aimed to increase employees' power and involvement in their work context. Since Lawler's studies (1986), it is commonly suggested that organizational empowering practices would be effective if they consist of four managerial practices: delegating decision-making to first-level employees, providing them training so they can assume an enriched work role, sharing relevant job and business information and providing contingent rewards to employee outcomes of achievement. Blanchard and his colleagues (1995) identified three key managerial practices associated with empowerment. Those are sharing information, creating autonomy through boundaries and building team accountability. Sharing information includes managers providing potentially sensitive organizational information on costs, productivity, quality, and financial performance to employees. Creating autonomy through boundaries refers to practices encouraging autonomous action, including the development of a clear vision and clarity regarding goals, work procedures, and areas of responsibility. In building team effectiveness, managers develop teams those receive decision-making authority and carry performance responsibilities in the organization (Randolph and Kemery, 2011, p.97).

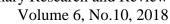
Konczak, Stelly and Trusty (2000) developed a scale for empowerment focusing on the structural or relational perspective called "Leader Empowering Behavior Questionnaire" (LEBQ). The scale focuses on empowering behaviors of managers and consists of six dimensions these are delegation of authority(giving authority to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures, to make changes necessary to improve things, accountability (holding responsible for the work assigned, results, performance and customer satisfaction), self-directed decision making(encouraging employee to make his/her own decisions, create solution to problems), information sharing (sharing of everything that goes to high quality results), skill development (encouraging employee to use systematic problem solving methods, creating opportunities to develop new skills, giving importance to continuous learning) and coaching for innovative performance (taking risks and encouraging new ideas). The empowering behaviors of managers or leaders represented a type of leadership which focuses on empowering the subordinates and enables them to share decision-making, to use autonomy, and to have competency of their work.

As discussed previously, empowerment is conceptualized as a set of practices or managerial techniques in which empowering leadership behaviors play a central role (Conger and



Kanungo, 1988) (Raub and Robert, 2010, p.1744). Arnold and his colleagues (2000) defined behaviors of empowering leadership as leading by example, participative decision making, coaching, informing and showing concern/interacting with the team. While a manager enables his/her employees to participate on decision making, he/she encourages work group members to express ideas/suggestions, listens to work group's ideas and suggestions, uses work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect them, gives all work group members a chance to voice their opinions, considers work group's ideas when he/she disagrees with them. However, a manager makes coaching by helping work group see areas in which they need more training, suggesting ways to improve work group's performance, encouraging work group members to solve problems together and to exchange information with one another, providing help to work group members, teaching them how to solve problems on their own, paying attention to work group's efforts, telling work group when they perform well, supporting their efforts, helping them focusing on goals and developing good relations among work group members. A manager informs his/her work groups, explains company decisions, company goals, the purpose of the company's policies, rules and expectations and his/her decisions and actions. Also, a manager shows concern with their employees and interacts with them. He/ she cares about work group members' personal problems, shows concern for their well-being, treats them as equals, takes the time to discuss their concerns patiently, shows concern for their success, stays in touch with them, gets along with them, gives them honest and fair answers, knows what work is being done in work group and finds time to chat with them (Arnold et al, 2000). Additionally, Ahearne and his colleagues (2005) defined empowering leadership as enhancing the meaningfulness of work (make employees understand their objectives and goals relate to that of the company, the importance of their work to the overall effectiveness of the company, how their job fits into the bigger picture), fostering participation in decision making (making decisions together and consulting to employee on strategic decisions), expressing confidence in high performance (expressing confidence in employees' ability, ability to handle difficult tasks and performing in high level), providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints (allowing employees to make their job on their own ways).

Thus, although structural empowerment defines behaviors or practices that leaders should implement to obtain better organizational results, leaders realized that there must be something on process beginning from empowering leadership towards better organizational results (Mills and Ungson, 2003). For example, in some situations, information, knowledge and power can be given to employees but they still feel disempowered. Otherwise, none of these requirements are met, but employees felt empowering actions (Spreitzer and Doneson, 2005). Thus, alternative conceptions of empowerment have emerged to explain for this deficiency. Although this approach established the base of empowerment, psychological state of the empowerment has been required. Other approach focuses on psychological empowerment as a cognitive motivational state considering individuals' psychological reactions to empowering practices and leadership behaviors (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Consequentle, it is suggested that both structural and psychological approaches are need for a better empowering leadership style.



2.4. Organizational Commitment

In 1984, Meyer and Allen recommended a two dimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment namely, affective and continuance commitment. In 1990, they added a third component called normative commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Originally introduced by Weiner and Vardi (1980), normative commitment is defined as feelings of obligation to stay in an organization because of the belief that it is best and right thing to do as a job compared to other probable job. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that commitment is a psychological state indicating an employee's relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue to organization as a member. Meyer and Allen (1991) further posited that affective, continuance and normative commitments are not types of commitment rather they are component. Hence an employee's relationship with the organization might reflect varying levels of all three. Thus, Meyer and Allen (1987) described organizational commitment with three dimensions those are affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Affective commitment refers to emotional attachment to an organization. Employee with strong sense of affective commitment continues to stay at his/her employing organization as members of it because he/she wants to and be happy of being in that organization. These people identifies with their organizations, feel involved in and enjoys of being member in that organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that affective commitment is obtained from work experiences that satisfy employees' need to feel comfortable in the organization and contribute to their feelings of competence in the work role (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1982). Affective organizational commitment is associated to mainly positive work experiences, such as job satisfaction and organizational fairness, higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors and lower levels of withdrawal behaviors like absenteeism.

Continuance commitment refers to an attachment to an organization based on an employee's awareness of the costs related to discontinuing being member of employing organization. Employees of an organization with a strong sense of this commitment to the organization stay in that organization because they feel they need to remain as a result of calculating the benefits and costs of being membership or not and decide on stay as a result of weighing benefits against the costs of membership in the organization. Remaining with an organization results from the fact that cost of quitting is much more from benefits of staying such as investments in the organization in terms of time, money and effort (Mowday et al., 1982). It has two primary antecedents and those are lack of job alternatives. It represents a need to stay with the organization and is not related to positive organizational or individual outcomes.

Normative commitment is defined as an attachment to an organization in which employee thinks ethical dimensions of staying and quitting. Employees of an organization with a strong sense of normative commitment to the employing organization stay as a member of that organization because of they feel obligated to be an employee of it. It is seen as the accumulation of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and objectives (Wiener, 1982). Normative commitment is argued to develop from organizational commitment norms that are developed through familial, cultural or organizational socialization. It appears to be predictive of positive outcomes but not as strongly as affective commitment (Wasti, 2002).

Borghei and his colleagues (2010) have found a significant relationship between all dimensions of psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. According to Beer and



Spector (1985), commitment required of creation high trust relations between all members of the workforce, which in turn meant employees being able to exercise influence and in some way be empowered that is captured by Spreitzer's psychological empowerment scale. In this study psychological empowerment is approached as antecedent of organizational commitment. Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe (2004) indicated a strong relationship between intrinsic motivations and affective commitment. The meaning dimension of psychological empowerment invites affective organizational commitment because it measures the harmony between work role demands and employee's needs (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson, 2005; Spreitzer, 1995). Feelings of autonomy, competence and impact are likely to increase the individual's commitment to the organization, as they will further enhance the ability of the employee to express his /her values through his/her work. Finally, psychological empowerment is also associated with increased continuance commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991), because the loss of an empowering work arrangement may be seemed as the sacrifice of something valuable that is difficult to replace with another organization.

2.5. Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis

2.5.1. The relationship between leader empowering behaviors and affective commitment

Raub and Robert (2010) examined the impact of empowering leadership behaviors (ELBs) and psychological empowerment on a broad range of employee behaviors. Drawing on selfdetermination theory (Gagné and Deci, 2005), they hypothesized that ELBs directly influence in-role and affiliate extra-role behaviors, but that the influece of ELBs on challenging extrarole behaviors would be mediated by psychological empowerment. Results supported their hypotheses of direct and mediated effects of ELBs on employee behaviors. Drawing on selfdetermination theory (SDT; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Sheldon et al., 2003) reserachers developed basic principles for distinguishing work behaviors that might be directly affected by empowering leader behaviors (ELBs) from those for which psycho-logical empowerment is likely to be an important mediator of the ELB/employee behav-ior relationship. According to SDT, motivation differs not only in intensity, but also in quality. SDT depicts that some types of behavior are driven mostly by controlled motivation, which is activated by contingencies external to the individual, while others are stimulated by autonomous motivation, which implies a sense of choice (Gagné and Deci, 2005). They proposed that while in-role and affiliative extrarole behaviors are likely to result from controlled motivation, challenging extra-role behavior clearly requires more autonomous forms of motivation. They suggested that psychological empowerment as a mediating variable representing the autonomous motivation neces¬sary for the execution of challenging extra-role behaviors while show that in-role and affiliative extrarole behaviors are not typically driven by autonomous motivation, psychological empowerment is not in need to be mediator between ELBs and those behaviors. In 1995, Van Dyne et al defined in-role behaviors as related the duties and responsibilities that are for-mally assigned as part of a work role, whereas extra-role behaviors are organizationally beneficial discretionary behaviors that are independent from the scope of an employee's formal job duties (Roab and Robert, 2010, p.5). As a result, psycho-logically empowered employees are likely to proactively take their job responsibili-ties (Spreitzer, 1995, p.1448), involving foreseing problems and taking the initiative to come with a new constructive change (Morrison and Phelps, 1999). When employees feel psychologically empowered they have internalized the values related to engagement in autonomous, self-determined activities. As a result, they are

likely to engage in challenging extra-role behaviors not because they feel obliged to do, but rather because they perceive that such behavior as self-determined' (Gagné and Deci, 2005, p.335). Gagne', Boies, Koestner, and Martens (2004) thus predicted that affective commitment would be facilitated by employees' autonomous motivation. Hence, based on previous studies, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive relationship between perceived leader empowering behaviors and employees' affective commitment.

2.5.2. Variables and research model

The variables of the research and the theoretical model of the present study can be presented as follows:

Dependent variable: Affective organizational commitment Independent variable: Leader empowering behavior

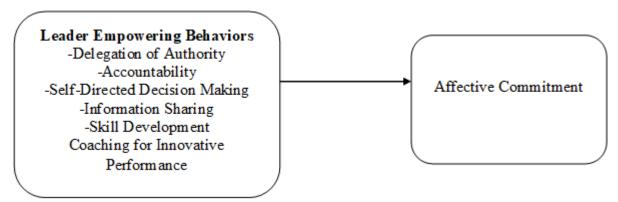


Figure 1. Theoretical model of present study

3. METHODOLOGY

This part of study gives a brief information about methodology applied during research process, the variables of the study, the scales measuring the variables, sampling approach and characteristics of the participants, selection of study organizations and employees and questionnaire distribution process will be explained in detail.

3.1 Research Design and the Sample

This study is conducted for the purpose of describing characteristics of the relationship between empowering leadership behavior and affective organizational commitment. The survey method is applied to evaluate the relationship between this study's main variables. The unit of analysis refers to the level of aggregation of the data analysis stage and in this research, the unit of analysis is individual employees in organizations. This is a cross-sectional study as the data were gathered through convenience sampling method. The convenience sampling approach was utilized in which organizations and participants were selected because of their convenient accessibility to the researcher. The participants were the 255 employees (nurses) from different hospitals in health care sector. The participants were asked to evaluate behaviors of their superiors through leader empowering behavior questionnaire. Participants contributed to the study by computer based questionnaires. The surveys were distrubuted via an online internet survey site. The questions regarding the demographic characteristics of the participants

included age, education level, gender, total tenure in the work life, tenure in current organization. Some of these demographic questions were asked as open-ended questions.

The table 1 below shows the demographical properties of sample that used in the current study. Accordingly, appoximately male and female percentages are distributed equally. Most of participants, %80, are undergraduates.%63 of sample are aged between 22 and 30. And most of sample worked in their current work between 1 and 5 years.

VARIABLE		N	%
Gender	Female	138	54
	Male	117	46
Education	Undergraduate	189	80
	Graduate	44	19
	Doctorate	3	1
Age	22-30	147	62,6
	31-40	76	32,3
	41-54	7	5,1
Working Time	1-5 years	182	77
	6-12 years	33	14
	13-33 years	20	9

Table 1. Demographic Profile of Samples

3.2. Measurement Tools

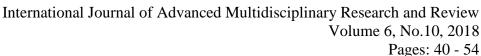
The scale used in this study was composed of three parts. The first part of scale contained items about empowering leadership behavior. The second part of scale included items attempting to evaluate the affective organizational commitment. In the third part, respondents were asked to give information about their demographics (age, ender, educational level, work time experiences... etc). All items were measured on 5 items likert type scale accordingly from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

"Leader empowering behaviors" were measured with Konczak et al. (1999) 17 items Leader Empowering Behavior Questionnaire which includes subscales reflecting delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development and coaching for innovative performance.

"Affective commitment" was measured with 9 item organizational commitment scale, which includes subscales affective, normative and continuance commitment. Following Eisenberger et al. (1990), affective commitment to the organization was measured using seven items from Meyer and Allen's (1984) affective commitment scale and two items from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979; Porter et al., 1974). These items were selected because they seem most proper for explaining the feelings of liking for, pride in and organizational membership valuation assumed to underlie the affective style of organizational commitment. (Lamastro, 2009).

3.3. Procedure

This analysis is based on the information collected randomly from various private hospitals in Turkey. 360 questionnaires were distributed to employees and 255 returned with a 71 %



response rate. The survey was administered using the total design method, consisting of the first round telephone calling, mail or visit, the second round telephone calling to remind and the second round mail. Also, if it was necessary the third round telephone calls were done or emails were sent.

4. FINDINGS

The collected data was recorded to SPSS (Version 18). The reverse coded items were recoded. The data was analysed by checking the normal distribution and linearity of each item of the scales. In questionnaire, there were only two questions having reverse effect in affective organizational commitment. After they are recoded, during the factor and reliability analysis, they were excluded from the analysis. The research findings are presented in three sections. The first section comprises the results of the internal reliability analysis and factor analysis of eacg questionnaire; the second section comprises the correlation matrix which includes all the research variables; the third section is dedicated to hypothesis tests and other findings which facilitate the evaluation of results.

4.1. The Factor and Reliability Analysis Results

The results of the reliability analysis are given in the following Tables.

As Table 2 shows, factor analysis was done to specify the sub dimensions leader empowering behavior questionnaire as it is the same like in the literature consisting of six sub-dimensions, delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development and coaching for innovative performance or different. To measure the validity of the whole questionnaire for factor analysis Keiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequecy test and Barlett's Test of Sphericity test were conducted and because of KMO value is above the 0.50 and barlett test value is significant 0.000, the data set was found proper for the factor analysis. (KMO=0,872, χ^2 Barlet test (55) =1730,406, p=0,000).

The factor analysis using Varimax and components rotation was done for 17 items, which related to six sub dimensions each consisting of three questions except information sharing subdimension consisting of two questions. Factor analysis grouped measurement into three subdimension rather than six. Questions with measure of sampling adequacy value under 0,50, with similar factor weights and factor weights under value of 0,50 were excluded from the analysis. Accordingly, questions 19, 27, 28 were excluded. Next, reliability analysis was done for each three sub-dimension to measure factors' internal consistency calculated by Cronbach α values. Some questions excluded from the factors because if these items were deleted from the analysis. cronbach α values would be increased. These items decreased the value of internal consistency.

Table 2. Empowering Leader Behavior Factor Analysis Results

Table 2. Empowering Leader Behavior Factor Analysis Results					
Factor Name	Items	Factor	Varience	Reliability	
		weight	explained		
	My manager shares information that I need to	0,837			
	ensure high quality results.				
	My manager provides me with the information	0,818			
Supporting	I need to meet patients' needs.		30,932	0,891	
	My manager ensures that continuous learning	0,775			
	and skill development are priorties in				
	organization.				
	My manager provides me with frequent	0,758			
	opportunities to develop new skills.				
	My manager encourages me to use systematic	0,631			
	problem-solving methods.				
	My manager gives me the authority I need to	0,860			
	make decisions that improve work processes.				
	My manager gives me the authority to make	0,810			
Delegation	changes necessary to improve things.		28,699	0,893	
	My manager relies on me to make my own	0,792			
	decisions about issues that affect how work				
	gets done.				
	My manager encourages me to develop my	0,753			
	own solutions to problems I encounter in the				
	organization.				
Accountability	My manager holds me accountable for the	0,650	15,287	0,738	
	work I am assigned.				
	I am held accountable for performance and	0,598			
	results.				
		Total	74,918		
Keiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			0,872		
Barlett's Test of Sphericity			1730,406		
df			55		
Sig.			0,000		
	•	•			

Cronbach α values which are 0,891; 0,893 and 0,738 those are above the value of 0,70 as a criteria. This questionnaire explained % 74,918 of variance. Thus this measurement used in this analysis is valid and have internal consistency.

Table 3. Affective Organizational Commitment Factor Analysis Results

Factor Name	Items	Factor weight	Varience explained	Reliability
	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.	,930		
Affective	Working at this organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	,899	74,422	0,941
organizational commitment	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	,875		
	I really feel that any problems faced by this organization are also my problems.	,854		
	I would be happy to work at this organization until I retire.	,844		
	I am proud to tell others that I work at this organization.	,820		
	This organization deserves my loyalty.	,811		
Total			74,422	
Keiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,921		
Barlett's Test of Sphericity		1551,230		
df		21		
Sig.			0,000	

As seen in Table 3, because only one sub-dimension of organizational commitment questionnaire which is affective commitment is included into current analysis, reliability analysis was done for all nine items to measure factor's internal consistency calculated by Cronbach α values which is 0, 921. During reliability analysis two questions have been excluded from the analysis because their decreasing affects on internal consistency and factor analysis is done with seven remained questions. The questionnaire explained % 74,422 of variance as shown KMO=0,921, $\chi^2_{\text{Barlet test}}$ (21) =1551,230, p=0,000) in Table 5.

4.2. Correlation Analysis for the Testing of Hypothesis

The hypothesis 1 proposed the relationship between leader empowering behavior and affective organizational commitment and in order to examine this relationship correlation analysis was conducted.

Table 4. Correlation Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard	Pearson Correlation Analysis (r)		
		Deviation	1	2	
1.Empowering Leadership	3,7655	,63851	1	0,498**	
2.Affective Commitment	3,3556	1,0125	0,498**	1	

As seen in Table 4, the results of testing a direct effect model show the finding that indicates leader empowering behavior is positively and significantly correlated with affective commitment (r=0,498, p<0.01). Accordingly, H1 was supported. This result demonstrates that



the ability of leaders to properly implement empowering processes in implementing job functions have directly increased affective organizational commitment and employee's feelings of commitment in the sample organizations.

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Today's managerial efforts referring to increasing perception of empowerment, creating empowering culture in organizations to vitalize employees to work better and obtain better outcomes are useless as long as managements do not capture the empowerment process correctly. Empowerment is not simply giving employees much more discretion, resources, delegating control to serve better for the interests of employers. Empowerment is an inner to outer dynamic and it should be processed by inner consciousness of employees. If this process is seen as a way of taking something from employees by employers, rather than supporting employees' living life fully; if importance is given to control of employees for the efficiency of organization by management rather than to worker responsibility and belief about employees' able to work for the interests of organizations; if it is seen as only delegation rather than a process in which employees want to be part of it voluntarily and seen as participation rather than allowing employees to actually make decisions affecting their work activities and push authority to lower levels, all of these empowering actions becomes worthless. To be succeed in empowering actions, managers should consider some organizational(corporate actions, policies, unwritten rules), structural(information sharing, upward problem solving, accessing to information), cultural(approach to time, space, trust), individual(need for achievement, authority, affection, locus of control, self efficacy, self esteem) and job characteristics (task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, feedback), environmental events, task and global assessments, interpretative styles, behaviors and interventions as moderating variables on the perception of empowerment. Managers should observe rightly all things that go around, recognize and visualize the outputs of empowerment efforts in different perspectives and consider the dilemmas. For example, if leaders dominate the work region with high visibility, employees might be silence because of often presence of leader. Otherwise, employees might complain about the lack of support by leaders in situation of low visibility. Employees might want to be independent in their work but they can also avoid from carrying all responsibility in decisions and work results. If an organization gives importance to working collaboratively and if managers in that organizations empower the employees, this might create perception of affective commitment towards the organization. Employees must always be involved in decisions which affect their work and empowerment is one of the strategies which can be used by management to motivate and retain employees in organizations. Empowerment creates sense of responsibility among employees, a high degree of commitment and reduces employee turnover.

Consequently, the current study was performed to understand if manager's empowering behaviors have relation with employees' affective commitment. The results of the study showed that employees who only perceive consciously empowering behaviors of their leaders show affective commitment to their organizations. The findings revealed that the leader empowering behaviors had significant positive relationship with employees' affective commitment perceptions. These findings suggest that employees' affective commitment to the organization is influenced by the empowering behaviors of their leaders in organizational environment.



6. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the study, other variables, such as personality, demographics, contextual variables, cultural variable can be examined as contingent factors that may have role on the relationship between leader empowering behaviors and affective commitment. For example, a research, should be done by considering organizational culture, other personality characteristics, job characteristics and socio cultural characteristics. In term of sampling there is another limitation since the sample size of the study is not too wide to generalize the findings. Therefore, it is suggested for the future studies that the research variables should be surveyed among larger sample groups including different organizations, sectors, positions, etc.

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Demographic Effects of Job Related Well Being in a Technological Company¹

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ABSTRACT

The concept of happiness is one of the most discussed and emphasized topics in human history. Many disciplines deal closely with the subject. The concept of happiness, which is supposed to be in the relevant field of philosophy, psychology, sociology, medicine, etc., is primarily concerned with issues in economics, economics and management science, especially after 1950s. Countries consider happiness as an index of the level of development and try to establish values through extensive research. Creating happy individuals has been turned into public policies by the states. Advanced societies accept that; Information society, globalization, technological developments make variable in the parameters of happiness perception.

Researchers are expected to take into account time-dependent variables of all investigations and measurements.

Economics and management disciplines are inevitably interested in the concept of happiness for efficiency, success, and sustainability politics. As a natural consequence of this, the business world closely follows the happiness of its employees. Among the main issues of the business world are the happiness of their employees. Motivation and motivation techniques are of interest to professionals.

If governments are going to make policy decisions by measuring results of happiness, companies also recognize that there is a linear relationship between employee loyalty and happiness. Employee loyalty surveys determine the policies of the companies.

In this study, it has been tried to pay attention by presenting a brief literature about employee happiness, especially the sense of happiness of female employees.

KEYWORDS: Happiness, Happiness Scale, Productivity, Success, Public Policy, Motivation, Business World Politics, Sense of Happiness, Employee Happiness, Employee Loyalty, Well-Being

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INTRODUCTION

Every discipline and science area describes happiness in different ways. It is based on different parameters. For this reason, there is no widely accepted definition in the literature.

In this study, the perception of happiness will be given according to the demographic characteristics of the employees. Happiness index, a fairly new topic in Turkey, will be used as a source for data. Turkey has been conducting life satisfaction researches by TUIK since 2003. It is also inspired by studies that are similar sources in other countries.

For employee happiness; Corporate governance, human resources, organizational development units, and effective leaders are applying motivational methods with scientific measurability.

The theories of the positive psychology approach are highly utilized for motivation.

One of the main topics of executive development programs is employee happiness and motivation. Positive perceptions build the future of societies. Happiness is not an abstract concept. This idea is embraced in scientific research since 1960.

We can easily say that companies are performing in this respect.

1- CONCEPTUAL APPROACH TO HAPPINESS

1.1 Concept of Happiness

The economics and management sciences are also in a conceptual debate such as sociology, philosophy, psychology and medicine.

This concept, which has become a policy of states, has been extensively discussed at the 2012 OECD World Forum (Knowledge and Policy Measuring Well-Being for Development and Policy Making) and has been addressed by the definition of OECD Secretary General Angel Gurria and the transformation of the concept of prosperity.

We want to transform our notion of wellbeing from an implicit to an explicit goal that can be assessed across the whole spectrum of government policies, business strategies and individuals' decisions. (Gurria, 2012).

Happiness is a cluster of many objective and subjective variables. This cluster includes variables such as demographic characteristics, socio-economic status and relationships, physical conditions. It would not be wrong to say that happiness in this big cluster is directly proportional to the pleasure received from life.

Happiness is conceived here as the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life favorably. In other words: how well he likes the life he leads. As such, happiness can also be called 'life-satisfaction'. (Veenhoven, 2013).

Positive psychology according to Emmons; define the sources of happiness. Happinness is the state of mind or feeling characterized by contetment, love, satisfaction, pleasure, or joy. Happiness is being aware not only of the positive events that occur in your life but also that you yourself are the cause of these events that you can create them, that you control their occurrence, and that you play a major role in the good things that happen to you. (Emmons, 1999)

Happiness; it is an expression of the satisfaction of one's life in general. (Diener, 2000).

Critic Bernard Russell defines happiness as an art. Happiness is achieved by following an attitude towards work and relationships in the teeth. It is recorded that the quiche turns into itself and surrenders to worries and fears. (Russell, 2006)

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The common point of all definitions of happiness is the subjective well being of the individual. That is the sum of positive thoughts and feelings.

1.2. Sense of Happiniess and Constituents

The sense of happiness is subjective well-being and the person is feeling good. The main purpose of your life is to be good.

Nuray Ayaroğlu deals with happiness in two basic dimensions. In the concrete dimension, it defines what the means of happiness are and how to get them. In abstract sense, it is defined as not sabotaging knowing how to live and feel happy. (Ayaroğlu, 2017)

The sense of happiness depends on many personal characteristics.

It can be defined as all the characteristics that an individual brings from birth and ends up as a result of life, which distinguishes it from other individuals. (McCrae, & Costa, 1989). Personality is defined as an interaction style that is continuous, emotional, emotional, motivational, and experiential, which describes the behaviors that an individual presents in different situations.

Factors affecting subjective well-being are grouped under three main headings: living conditions, purposeful life activities and genetic factors. According to this, demographic variables such as age, gender, educational status, place of residence, marital status, economic situation are evaluated under the heading of living conditions. Meta-analysis studies have shown that the resulting living conditions are about 10% effective on subjective well-being. Purpose-oriented life events influence subjective well-being by 40%. Within the scope of purposeful life activities are activities such as determining life goals and realizing them, establishing social relations, helping, forgiving, fulfilling the requirements of religious beliefs. It has been shown that the greatest effect on subjective well-being is genetic factors (equilibrium point) by 50%. Personality traits are also considered within the context of genetic factors (Lykken and Tellegen, 1996; Lyubomirsky, 2001; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon and Schkade, 2005; Lyubomirsky, 2007).

When we look at the main factors affecting happiness; we can easily say that living conditions, social environment, socio-economic conditions on macro scale, traditions, beliefs, demographic characteristics, education, family, geographical factors and business life.

When we consider life as a whole, sometimes it seems like a negative concept is that the perceptions are not always negative, but sometimes they are the real driving forces of life. The way in which positive and negative perceptions are managed together in both business life and private life has been one of the main topics of psychology. For this reason, concepts of welfare and happiness (well-being) are separated. Welfare is only a subset of happiness when describing improved living conditions. And there can not always be a linear relationship between them.

The sense of happiness is the total composite of positive feelings if subjective well-being.

This has become the basic fact that leads to the creation of the concept of positive psychology. Positive psychology theorists Martin Seligman and Mihaly Csikzentmihalyi have described the field of positive psychology in a wide range of contexts.

The field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about valued subjective experiences: well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present). At the individual level, it is about positive individual traits: the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility,

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perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom. At the group level, it is about the civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward better citizenship: responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic. (Seligman, & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014).

Positive psychology will be used in the coming years to understand and build on the development of individuals and communities. For this reason, organizations and governments are measuring the perception of happiness through scientific studies. Happiness is no longer an abstract concept.

Positive emotions are a broad model of regeneration and development. Positive emotions explain why the tendency towards life is everywhere human nature exists and how positive emotions can be directed to encourage contemporary society. (Fredrickson, 1998).

There are tens of millions of factors affecting happiness, it is very difficult to protect one's happiness. The support of happiness, the factors that affect happiness and the obstacles that cause unhappiness have been removed. (Akduman, & Yüksekbilgili, 2015).

Managing and holding positive sentiments has become one of the main target areas of governments as well as business life.

2. PERSONAL WELL-BEING IN BUSINESS LIFE

If the concept of subjective well-being is one of the important inputs of the gross national income we can't separate happiness in business life with subjective well-being at all. Happiness research has significant potential for change in the economy. Measuring and using the relationship between subjective well-being and well-being brings new definitions and insights. It has emerged that the intangible values have to be taken into consideration. New information emerging from research leads to how the refund can be achieved. Subjective well-being indicates the success of the economic happiness revolution and indicates future research. It encompasses all sectors that affect economic life and economic life.

2.1. An Overview of Subjective Well-Being in Business Life

Historically, the organizational sciences have been preoccupied with negative aspects of work and life. This focus on the negative can be traced back over 100 years to the very beginnings of applied research in the latter part of the 19th/early part of the 20th centuries. The prevailing belief of early organizational research was that the most profitable business techniques were those that focused on the negative, as opposed to positive, aspects of human motivation.

Well, a recent computer search of contemporary literature in psychology found approximately 375,000 articles on "negative" (i.e., mental illness, depression, burnout, anxiety, fear and anger) and only about 1,000 articles on various positive concepts and capabilities of people. This constitutes a negative/positive ratio of approximately 375/1. (Frey, 2008).

Today, however, economists are aware of the importance of considering positive results. Economic policies, especially unemployment and inflation, are high balances at the social level.

Using happiness data for twelve European countries and the period 1975 to 1991, it has (cautiously) been calculated that a one percentage point increase in the unemployment rate is marginally compensated for by a 1.7 percentage point decrease in inflation (Rafael Di Tella, Robert MacCulloch, & Andrew Oswald 2001).

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Helliwell explains another reason why economists are interested in the concept of happiness; Why happiness is of interest to economists is the effect of institutional

conditions, such as the quality of governance and the size of social capital on individual wellbeing. Research for 49 countries in the 1980s and 90s suggests that there are substantial wellbeing benefits from factors such as improved accountability, effectiveness and stability of government, the rule of law and the control of corruption. The data show that the effects flowing directly from the quality of institutions are often much larger than those which flow through productivity and economic growth (John Helliwell, 2001).

Another reason for the economists of happiness research is the understanding of subjective well-being. This sheds new light on the basic concepts and assumptions in economic theory; For example, if people can successfully predict their own future tools. (Loewenstein, O'Donoghue & Rabin, 2003.)

Many happiness research findings add new information to those that are converted into standard views in the economy, while other results challenge it. One finding, constant wide effect Non-financial variables on self-reported satisfaction. This economic one factors such as income, employment or price stability are insignificant, but good governance or social capital is well established. Findings also enrich our knowledge of gender, ethnicity and racial discrimination.

The subjective approach to utility offers a fruitful complementary path to study the world. Firstly, subjective well-being is a much broader concept than decision utility; it includes experienced utility, as well as procedural utility, and is for many people an ultimate goal. That is not the case for other things we may want, such as job security, status, power, and especially money (income). We do not want them for themselves, but rather to give us the possibility of making ourselves happier. Secondly, the concept of subjective happiness allows us to capture human well-being directly. This creates a basis for explicitly testing fundamental assumptions and propositions in economic theory. (Frey, 2008).

The interest of economists and organizations in this issue shows that happiness is a matter not to be ignored in the business life. Today, there are many different experiments and studies to support happy and productive employees.

In support of the happy/productive worker thesis, a growing body of empirical research has found significant links between various measures of employee PWB (psychological well-being) and measures of job-related performance. In one study involving M.B.A. students, participants high on well-being were shown to be superior decision makers, demonstrated better interpersonal behaviors, and received higher overall performance ratings. These results are important for two reasons. First, the study design used objective, quantifiable indices of performance (e.g., an "in-basket" measure). This argues against the possibility that correlations between well-being and job performance are simply misperceptions. Second, the experimental design of this research suggests a causal relation: that performance increases when PWB is high. In another study, employees high in well-being had superior performance evaluations and higher pay 18 months later.

Social capital, one of the strong criteria of the economy, is one of the topics to discuss how these dynamics will take place. Of course, while social capital is defined as a well-educated, well-informed human power, it is necessary to add a happy word to them.



2.2. Factors Affecting Subjective Well-Being in Business Life

The OECD community, where 35 countries are members; defines the sub-definitions and processes of the well-being concept as follows.

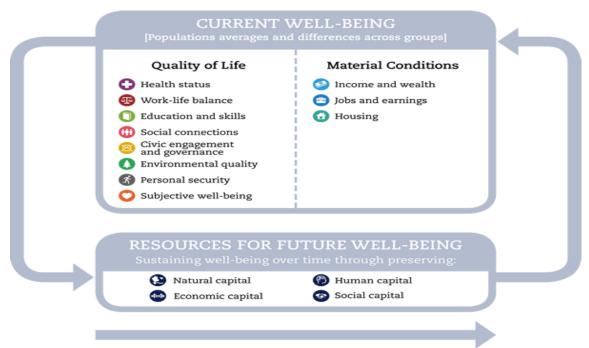


Figure 1.Framework For Measuring Well-Being And Progress (http://www.oecd.org, 2017)

Basic approach and understanding is; "Societal progress is about improvements in the well-being of people and households. Assessing such progress requires looking not only at the functioning of the economic system but also at the diverse experiences and living conditions of people."

This cycle divides subjective well-being into two basic areas. The first is the quality of life and the second is the basic requirements for the quality of life.

This cycle describes the common expectations of all people. These common parameters apply in sustainable business life.

What are the focus and expectations of the employees' sense of happiness?

A lot of research shows that; the culture of the organizations and the support of the employees of the organizations play a critical role in the creation of this positive atmosphere.

Gretchen Spreitzer and Christine The articles on "Harvard business review" were published in 2012 on "If you give your employees the chance to learn and grow, they'll thrive and so will your organization." This article explores the happiness of employees in four main themes.

- 1- Decision making; It is to allow employees at all levels to make decisions that affect their work. They are strengthening and opening the doors of continuous learning.
- 2- Sharing of Knowledge; Employees want to understand strategies and contribute more effectively. They understand how things fit into the organization. It is the reason for this being.



- 3- Courtesy and behavior; Employees expect behavior from their superiors and friends in minimum courtesy rules. They do not try in the opposite case.
- 4- Feedback on performance; Feedback creates opportunities for learning and innovation. It plays a key role in the preservation of energy and the adoption of organizational culture.

Peaceful and positive environment is a prerequisite for employees. Employee welfare is crucial for effective management. Research investigating the connection between well-being and employee retention appears to be equally promising. Indeed, employee well-being may eventually prove to be a more robust predictor of whether employees decide to stay or leave their jobs than either job satisfaction or job commitment. (Wright, 2006).

In order to be able to think well and to make the minds applicable, it is first necessary to create a positive atmosphere. Spillover model research, which is widely used in this field, is evidence of this linear relationship. The Spillover-Crossover model is used in psychological research to examine to impact of the work domain on the home domain, and consequently the transference of work-related emotions from the employee to others at home.

Since a job is a significant part of one's life, the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction makes sense—one's job experiences spill over into one's life. However, it also seems possible the causality could go the other way—a happy or unhappy life spills over into one's job experiences and evaluations. In fact, the research suggests that the relationship between job and life satisfaction is reciprocal—job satisfaction does affect life satisfaction, but life satisfaction also affects job satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1994).

Also in support of a spillover model for job and life satisfaction, the research literature shows a consistent relationship between job satisfaction and depression (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). One might speculate on the possibility that the relationship is simply due to personality traits that cause both low job satisfaction and depression. However, to counter this, there is evidence that job loss and other work events are in fact associated with depression (Wheaton, 1990).

Thus, this research suggests that dissatisfaction resulting from one's job can spill over into one's psychological well-being. Based on this research, one conclusion is that organizations only have so much control over a person's job satisfaction, because for many people, their job satisfaction is a result, in part, of spillover of their life satisfaction. However, continuing to take actions to address low job satisfaction is not only important for organizational effectiveness, but by not doing so, organizations can cause spillover of employees' low job satisfaction into their life satisfaction and well-being. (Saari & Judge 2004).

3- RESEARCH

3.1. Scale And Methodology

This research was made in one of the biggest technology companies in Turkey. The 530 participants in the study consisted of well-educated, internationally experienced employees whose living standards were above average. When we consider these features, we can say that they are generic.



3.1.1. Methodology

In this research, a survey consisting of two parts was used as a data collection tool. The first part of the data collection tool includes a personal information form that includes participants' age, gender, education, workplace, marital status, and sector experience.

Second part includes JAWS (Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale) which is created by Katwyk et al.(2000) and analyzed for reliability by Bayram et al.(2004). The original survey consists of 30 questions and it is adapted to 20 questions (Table 1) in Turkish. It was stated that the survey consists of two sub-dimensions, "Negative Feelings" and "Positive Feelings" in the original and Turkish adapted study. Although Turkish adapted scale stated that both subdimensions split into two sub-dimensions within themselves, no validity study was done to prove it.

	Never	Rarely	Sometime s	Quite	Extremely often
1. My job made me feel angry.					
2. My job made me feel anxious.					
3. My job made me feel at ease.					
4. My job made me feel bored.					
5. My job made me feel calm.					
6. My job made me feel content.					
7. My job made me feel depressed.					
8. My job made me feel discouraged.					
9. My job made me feel disgusted.					
10. My job made me feel ecstatic.					
11. My job made me feel energetic.					
12. My job made me feel enthusiastic.					
13. My job made me feel excited.					
14. My job made me feel fatigued.					
15. My job made me feel frightened.					
16. My job made me feel furious.					
17. My job made me feel gloomy.					
18. My job made me feel inspired.					
19. My job made me feel relaxed.					
20. My job made me feel satisfied.					

Table 1.Survey Questions, Adapted in Turkish

Satisfaction with the work of the individual in terms of satisfaction with the scale; If they are on the axis of arousal, they have motivation. For example; while the individual with high satisfaction and high stimulation about work feels energetic, excited, enthusiastic, enthusiastic and inspired; The individual with low satisfaction and low stimulus feels distressed, overwhelmed, desperate, desperate and tired. Nevertheless, while the individual with high

satisfaction and low alertness feels peaceful, calm, pleased, satisfied and relaxed, The individual with low satisfaction and high stimulation feels angry, anxious, disgusted, scared and worn out.

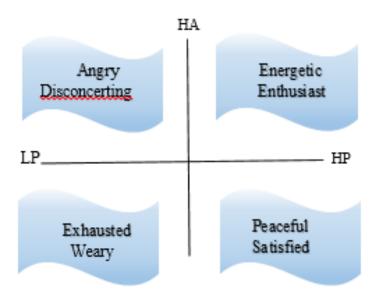


Figure 2.Two-Dimensional Affective Well-Being Model (Van Katwyk et al., 2000)

3.1.2. Scale

4-dimensional distributions of the scale are High Pleasurable/High Arousal - HPHA (3,8,9,10,16), High Pleasurable/Low Arousal - HPLA (1,2,18,19,20), Low Pleasurable/High Arousal - LPHA (7,11,12,13,15), Low Pleasurable/Low Arousal - LPLA (2,4,6,14,17). HPHA and HPLA expresses intensity of positive emotions; LPHA and LPLA expresses intensity of negative emotions. Negative emotions (items in LPHA and LPLA dimensions) are inverse coded while the total score of the scale is calculated. Thus, it is understood that the perception of affective well-being perceived to be high on the total score is highly positive. The following expressions are of the likert type of 5 in the range of "1-less dense" to "5-very dense".

Before to the hypothesis testing, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed within the scope of the structure validation in order to verify the 4 dimensional structure of the scale. For reliability, upper and lower 27% t test, item total correlation and Cronbach Alpha tests were applied.

This scale is High Pleasurable / High Arousal (HPHA), High Pleasurable / Low Arousal (HPLA), Low Pleasurable / High Arousal (LPHA), Low Pleasurable / Low Arousal (LPLA) While it helps to determine the general level of happiness associated with the work of the deceased person (motivation) level of the system. (Aytaç, at all, 2004).

3.1.3. Analysis

SPSS 15.0 was used in the analysis of the data. Scale and subscale scores were presented as mean, standard deviation and skewness descriptive statistics table.

The skewness coefficient was used in the normality test of the scale and subscale scores. It can be interpreted that the scores within \pm 1 of the skewness coefficient used in the normal distribution feature of constantly varying scores do not show a significant deviation from the normal distribution (Büyüköztürk, 2011: 40). Independent two sample t-tests were used to compare the scores of the scale and the subscales of HPHA, HPLA, and LPLA in normal distribution (Table 4) in terms of gender, marital status, and variables; One way variance analysis by ANOVA was used in comparison of education and work experience.

The LSD post hoc test was used to determine the difference between the two groups when the difference was significant in the ANOVA test. Mann Whitney U test was used to compare gender, marital status, and study field variables since it was found that the scores of the LPHA variable were not normally distributed (Table 4). Kruskal Wallis H test was used in comparison of education and work experience. The Mann Whitney U test was used to determine the difference between the two groups when the difference was significant in the KWH test. The level of significance in the analyzes was determined as 0.05.

4. RESULTS OF JAWS SCALE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

4.1. JAWS Confidence Factor Analysis Compliance Indexes

Confirmatory factor analysis at the 4-dimensional structure of the JAWS scale revealed that the compliance indices of the 20-item and 4-factor structure were acceptable. (Bayram, 2010; Sumer, 2000; Raykov, 1997: 329-333).

		Compliance Values					
Model Complience Indexes	Obtained Valye	Acceptable	Good / Very Good				
X^2/sd	3,52	$0 < X^2/sd < 5$	$0 < X^2/sd < 3$				
RMSEA	0,07	0,00\(\leq\text{RMSEA}\leq0,10\)	0,00\(\leq\text{RMSEA}\(\leq\0,05\)				
SRMR	0,05	0,00\(\leq\sRMR\leq0,08\)	0,00\(\leq\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\				
GFI	0,90	0,90≤GFI≤1,0	0,95≤GFI≤1,0				
NFI	0,91	0,90\(\leq\n NFI\leq1,0\)	0,95≤NFI≤1,0				
NNFI	0,93	0,90\(\frac{1}{0}\)	0,95\(\text{NNFI}\le 1,0				
CFI	0,94	0,90 <u><</u> CFI <u><</u> 1,0	0,95≤CFI≤1,0				

Table 2. JAWS Confidence Factor Analysis Compliance Indexes

As a result of the DFA, the factor loads and error variances of the items were found to be appropriate (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu and Büyüköztürk, 2010: 271-272, Meydan and Şeşen, 2011: 37). According to confirmatory factor analysis results of the model, factor loadings vary between 0,56-0,90 (Table 2, Figure 1). According to the results obtained, it was determined that the JAWS Scale is a valid scale with 20 items and 4 subscales.

4.2. Results of the JAWS Scale DFA.

Factors and Items	Std. β	t	R^2	
НРНА				
q3	0,83		0,69	
q8	0,9	26,22**	0,81	
q9	0,89	26,09**	0,79	
q10	0,81	22,46**	0,66	
q16	0,56	13,52**	0,31	
HPLA				
q1	0,78		0,61	
q5	0,7	16,72**	0,49	
q18	0,822	20,23**	0,68	
q19	0,72	17,19**	0,52	
q20	0,8	19,41**	0,64	
LPHA				
q7	0,65		0,42	
q11	0,66	12,92**	0,44	
q12	0,72	13,79**	0,52	
q13	0,73	13,98**	0,53	
q15	0,67	13,09**	0,45	
LPLA				
q2	0,73		0,53	
q4	0,67	14,67**	0,45	
q6	0,76	16,75**	0,58	
q14	0,82	13,49**	0,67	
q17	0,74	16,16**	0,55	

Table 3.Results of the JAWS Scale DFA.(**p<0,01)



4.3. JAWS Factor Correlation Factor Analysis Diagram

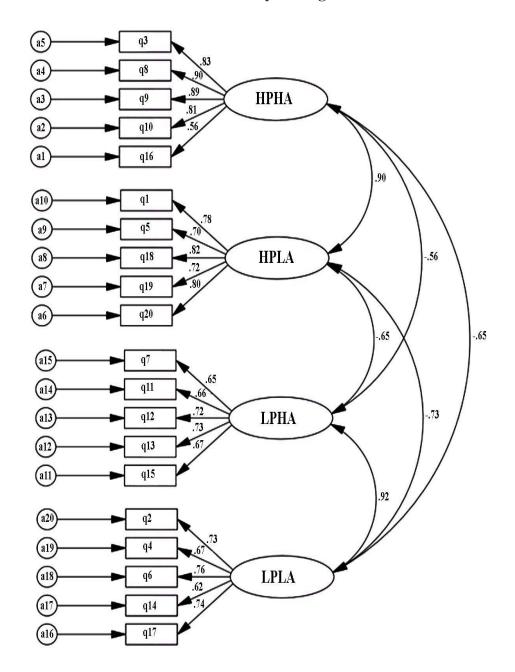


Figure 3.JAWS Factor Correlation Factor Analysis Diagram

4.4. J JAWS Scale Item Analysis Results

When the reliability analysis results were examined, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was 0.94; The alpha coefficients of the sub-dimensions were found as 0.89 - 0.88 - 0.81

and 0.83. For all the items in the measurement, it is seen that the item-total correlations are higher than 0.30 (between 0.48 and 0.74), and the t values of comparing the upper and lower 27% parts of all items are significant at 0,01 level (Table 3). These results can be interpreted as the fact that the validity of the items on the scale is high, they distinguish the sample in terms of the behavior to be measured, and that the substances in the scales are the measures to measure the same behavior within the scale.

T	r	a	α
(n1=n2=143)	(n=530)	l a	
-27,38**	0,73		
-28,48**	0,74	0,89	
-29,22**	0,72		
-25,38**	0,72		
-19,70**	0,48		
-20,74**	0,73		
-23,37**	0,62		
-24,22**	0,73	0,88	
-27,08**	0,64		
-27,13**	0,72		0.04
			0,94
-14,74**	0,56		
-17,76**	0,51		
-20,89**	0,62	0,81	
-25,47**	0,59		
-21,63**	0,52		
-20,26**	0,67		
-24,70**	0,58		
-24,60** 0,65		0,83	
-20,94**	0,51		
-26,12**	0,66		
	(n1=n2=143) -27,38** -28,48** -29,22** -25,38** -19,70** -20,74** -23,37** -24,22** -27,08** -27,13** -14,74** -17,76** -20,89** -25,47** -21,63** -20,26** -24,70** -24,60** -20,94**	(n1=n2=143) (n=530) -27,38** 0,73 -28,48** 0,74 -29,22** 0,72 -25,38** 0,72 -19,70** 0,48 -20,74** 0,73 -23,37** 0,62 -24,22** 0,73 -27,08** 0,64 -27,13** 0,72 -14,74** 0,56 -17,76** 0,51 -20,89** 0,62 -25,47** 0,59 -21,63** 0,52 -20,26** 0,67 -24,70** 0,58 -24,60** 0,65 -20,94** 0,65	(n1=n2=143)

Table 4.JAWS Scale Item Analysis Results



4.5. Descriptive Statistics of Scale and Subdimensions

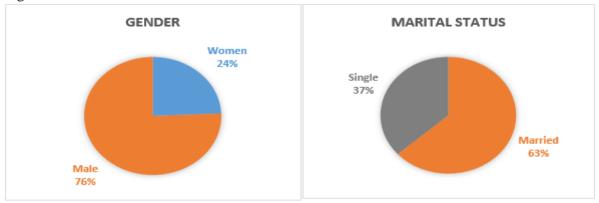
Scale Subdimen	and sions	Item Number	Min.	Maks.	X	SS	Skewnes s
High High (HPHA	pleasurable- arousal	5	5,00	25,00	16,58	4,06	-0,268
High Low (HPLA)	pleasurable- arousal	5	5,00	25,00	17,91	3,93	-0,498
Low High (LPHA)	pleasurable- arousal	5	5,00	22,00	8,77	3,41	1,085
Low Low are	pleasurable- ousal (LPLA)	5	2,00	22,00	11,98	3,72	0,400
Total		20	27,00	100,0	73,74	12,8 5	-0,596

Table 5.Descriptive Statistics of the JAWS Scale

When the descriptive statistics of the scales are examined, it is seen that the scores of positive and negative affective satisfactions related to the work are relatively higher than the scores of the subscales of LPHA and LPLA which express negative perceptions. It can be said that participants' positive emotional well-being perceptions were positive (T Table), considering that the scale scores obtained by inverse coding of negative emotional scores were 73.74 ± 12.85 out of 100, which is the highest score to be obtained.

5. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

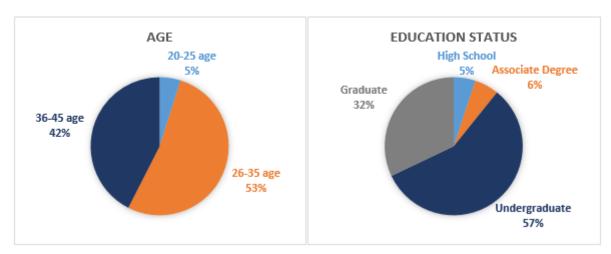
24.3% of the participants were female, 75.7% were male. 63.4% are married and 36.6% are single.



Graphic 1.Demographic Characteristics of Participants



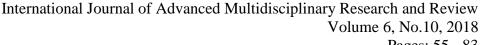
5,1% of the participants were in high school, 5,7% in preliminary, 57,2% in undergraduate and 32,1% in graduate level. Work experience of 18.1% of respondents is less than 5 years, 33.6% is 6-10 years, 21.3% is 11-15 years, 27% is more than 15 years. 62.5% of participants were working in technical field and 37.5% were working in social field (Table 9).



Graphic 2. Education and Age Characteristics of Participants

Demographic Features	Groups	n	%
Gender	Female	129	24,3
	Male	401	75,7
Marital Status	Married	336	63,4
	Single	194	36,6
Age	20-25	26	4,9
	26-35	279	52,6
	36-45	225	42,5
Education	High school	27	5,1
	Associate	30	5,7
	Degree	30	3,7
	License	303	57,2
	Graduate	170	32,1
Work experience	Less than 5	96	18,1
	6-10	178	33,6
	11-15	113	21,3
	Over 15	143	27,0
Workplace	Technic	331	62,5
	Social	199	37,5

Table 6.Demographic Characteristics of Participants



5.1. The Research Hypotheses

H₁: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₂: High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₃: Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₄: Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₅: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by gender.

H₆: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital status.

H₇: High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital status.

H₈: Low Pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital

H₉: Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital

H₁₀: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by marital

H₁₁: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by age groups.

H₁₂: High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by age groups.

H₁₃: Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by age groups.

H₁₄: Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by age groups.

H₁₅: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by age groups.

H₁₆: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

H₁₇: High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

H₁₈: Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

H₁₉: Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

H₂₀: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by education.

H₂₁: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₂: High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₃: Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₄: Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₅: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₆: High Pleasurable-High Arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₂₇: High Pleasurable-Low Arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₂₈: Low Pleasurable-High Arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₂₉: Low Pleasurable-Low Arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₃₀: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by work experience.

5.2. Research Hypothesis Findings

5.2.1. Test Results of the JAWS Scale Scores by Sex

Sub-dimensions	Gender	n	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	SS	t	p
High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA)	Female	129	16,27	4,35	-0,983	0,326
(nrna)	Male	401	16,68	3,97	-0,963	0,320
High pleasurable-Low arousal	Female	129	17,57	4,37	-1,120	0,263
(HPLA)	Male	401	18,02	3,79	-1,120	0,203
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Female	129	9,44	3,74	-2,362ª	0.010
(LPHA)	Male	401	8,55	3,28		0,018
Low pleasurable-Low arousal	Female	129	12,71	4,01	2.561	0.044
(LPLA)	Male	401	11,75	3,60	2,561	0,011
TOTAL	Female	129	71,70	14,38	2.094	0.020
TOTAL	Male	401	74,40	12,27	-2,084	0,038

Table 7.Test Results of the JAWS Scale Scores by Sex

^a: Mann Whitney U test Z score

HPHA and HPLA subdivision scores were not significantly different by gender (p>0,05). LPHA scores significantly differ by gender (Z=-2,362; p<0,05). Female employees have higher LPHA points (9,44±3,74), than male employees (8,55±3,28).

LPLA were significantly different according to gender (t = 2,561; p <0,05). Male LPLA scores $(12,71 \pm 4,01)$ were higher than female employee scores $(11,75 \pm 3,60)$.

It was found that the total scores of affective well-being of work were significantly different according to gender (t = -2,084, p <0,05). The total scores of the affective well-being of the male staff (74,40 \pm 12,27) were significantly higher than the scores of female staff (71,70 \pm

14,38).

 H_1 Denied : High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₂ **Denied:** High High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

 H_3 Accept : Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₄ Accept : Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by gender.

H₅ Accept : Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by gender.

5.2.2. Test Results of JAWS Scale Scores by Marital Status

Sub-dimensions	Marital Status	n	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	SS	t	p
High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA)	Married	336	16,78	3,92	1,489	0,137
	Single	194	16,23	4,28		
High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA)	Married	336	18,21	3,65	2,294	0,022
	Single	194	17,40	4,36		
Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA)	Married	336	8,74	3,35	0.1203	0,897
(== === =)	Single	194	8,82	3,53	-0,129 ^a	
Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA)	Married	336	11,94	3,68	-0,315	0,753
	Single	194	12,05	3,80		
Total	Married	336	74,31	12,31	1,335	0,182
	Single	194	72,76	13,73		

Table 8.Test Results of JAWS Scale Scores by Marital Status

^a: Mann Whitney U test Z score

HPHA, LPHA, LPLA sub-dimension scores and total affective well-being scores were not significantly different according to marital status (p> 0,05).

It was determined that the scores of HPLA were significantly different according to gender (t = 2,294, p <0,05). The female employee scores (18.21 \pm 3.65) were significantly higher than male employee scores (17.4 \pm 4.36).

 H_6 Denied : High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital status.

H₇ Accept: High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital status.

H₈ Denied : Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital status.

H₉ Denied : Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by marital status.

 H_{10} Denied: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by marital status.

5.2.3. Test Results by Age Groups of JAWS Scale Scores **5.2.4.** Test Results According to the Education Status

Sub-Dimensions	Education	N	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	SS	F	p	Significant Difference
	A- High school	27	18,30	3,51			A>C
High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA)	B-Associate Degree	30	17,97	4,10	4,187	0,006	A>D
	C- License	303	16,63	4,16			B>D
	D- Graduate	170	15,96	3,84			
	A-High school	27	19,48	4,17			
High pleasurable-Low	B-Associate Degree	30	18,37	3,83	2,337	0,073	
arousal (HPLA)	C- License	303	17,98	3,92	·		
	D- Graduate	170	17,46	3,91			
	A- High school	27	7,81	3,39			
Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA)	B- Associate Degree	30	8,10	2,87	6,186 a	0,103	
	C- License	303	8,72	3,40			
	D- Graduate	170	9,11	3,52			
	A-High school	27	10,44	3,69			D>A
Low pleasurable-Low	B-Associate Degree	30	10,80	3,33	4,887	0002	D>B
arousal (LPLA)	C- License	303	11,83	3,77	·		D>C
	D- Graduate	170	12,69	3,57			
	A-High school	27	79,52	12,97			A>C
Total	B-Associate Degree	30	77,43	11,46	4,329	0,005	A>D
	C- License	303	74,06	12,92		,	B>D
	D- Graduate	170	71,62	12,57			C>D

Table 10. JAWS Scale Points by ANOVA Test Results According to the Education Status



It was found that the subdimension scores of the HPLA and LPHA did not differ significantly according to the education status (p> 0,05).

It was found that the scores of the HPHA were significantly different according to the education level (F = 4,187, p <0,05). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test regarding the difference between the groups, the scores of the high school graduates (18,30 \pm 3,51), were found to be significantly higher than undergraduates (16,63 \pm 4,16) and graduates (15,96 \pm 3,84). Personnel trained at the undergraduate level have a significantly higher HPHA scores (17,97 \pm 4,10) than those at the graduate level.

LPLA scores were significantly different according to the education status (F = 4,887; p <0,05). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test regarding the difference between the groups, the LPLA scores of graduates (12,69 \pm 3,57) were higher than high school (10,44 \pm 3,69), associate degree (10,80 \pm 3, 33) and undergraduates (11,83 \pm 3,77).

It was found that the total scores of affective well-being related to work were significantly different according to the education status (F = 4,329, p <0,05). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test regarding the difference between the groups, the scores of the emotional well-being of the employees at the high school level (79.52 \pm 12.97) were higher than the associate (74.06 \pm 12.92) and the graduate (71.62 \pm 12.57). The total affective well-being scores of the personnel studying at the associate's (74,06 \pm 12,92) level were significantly higher than those of the graduate (71,62 \pm 12,57).

 H_{16} Accept: High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

 H_{17} Denied: High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

H₁₈ Denied: Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

 \mathbf{H}_{19} Accept: Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by education.

H₂₀ Accept: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by education.



5.2.5. Test Results According to Work Experience

5.2.5. Test Results A		Znperi					Significant
Sub-Dimensions	Work Experience	N	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	SS	F	p	difference
	A-less than 5	96	16,52	4,34			D>B
High pleasurable- High arousal (HPHA)	B-6-10 years	178	15,96	4,21	3,391	A A10	
	C-11-15 years	113	16,57	3,61	3,391	0,018	
	D-More than 15	143	17,40	3,92			
	A-less than 5	96	17,83	4,63			D>B
High pleasurable-	B-6-10 years	178	17,45	3,89			D>C
Low arousal (HPLA)	C-11-15 years	113	17,64	3,61	3,239	0,022	
	D-More than 15	143	18,76	3,64			
	A-less than 5	96	8,91	3,73			A>D
Low pleasurable-	B-6-10 years	178	9,34	3,55			B>D
High arousal	C-11-15 years	113	8,72	3,03	16,11 ^a	0,001	C>D
(LPHA)	D-More than 15	143	7,99	3,18			
	A-less than 5	96	12,13	4,10			A>D
Low pleasurable- Low arousal	B-6-10 years	178	12,77	3,65	7,412	0,000	B>D
(LPLA)	C-11-15 years	113	12,04	3,61			C>D
	D-More than 15	143	10,85	3,37			
	A-less than 5	96	73,32	14,91			D>A
Total	B-6-10 years	178	71,29	12,97	6,059	0,000	D>B
- 3***	C-11-15 years	113	73,44	11,41		·,···	D>C
	D-More than 15	143	77,31	11,58			

Table 11.JAWS Scale Scores by ANOVA Test Results According to Work Experience

a: Kruskal Wallis H score



It was found that HPHA scores differ significantly by work experience (F=3,391; p<0,005). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test the scores of the personnel with more than 15 years work experience (17,40 \pm 3,92) were higher than the scores of the personnel with 6-10 years work experience (15,96 \pm 4,21).

It was found that the scores of the HPLA were significantly different according to the work experience (F = 3,239, p <0,05). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test the scores of the personnel who have more than 15 years of work experience (18,76 \pm 3,64) were higher than the work experience of 6-10 years (17,45 \pm 3,89) and 15 years (17,64 \pm 3,61).

LPHA scores were found to be significantly different according to work experience (X2 = 16.11, p <0.05). By the corrected Mann Whitney U test results, the work experience time groups of 5 years (8,91 \pm 3,73), 6-10 years (9,34 \pm 3,55) and 11-15 years (8, 72 \pm 3,03) scores are significantly higher than the scores of the personnel with more than 15 years work experience (7,99 \pm 3,18).

LPLA scores were found to be significantly different according to work experience (F = 7,412, p <0,05). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test on the difference between the groups, work experience groups of 5 years (12,13 \pm 4,10), 6-10 years (12,77 \pm 3,65) and 11-15 years (12,04 \pm 3.61) scores are significantly higher than the scores of employees who have more than 15 years of work experience (10.85 \pm 3.37).

It was found that the total scores of affective well-being related to work were significantly different according to work experience (F = 6.059, p <0.05). According to the results of the LSD post hoc test for which groups the difference is found, the total scores of emotional well-being of the worker (77.31 \pm 11.58) and the work experience of less than 5 years (73.32 \pm 14.91) , 6-10 years (71.29 \pm 12.97) and 11-15 years (73.44 \pm 11.41), respectively.

H₂₁ Accept: High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₂ Accept: High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₃ Accept: Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₄ Accept: Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by workplace.

H₂₅ Accept: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by workplace.

5.2.5. Test Results According to Work Experience

Sub-dimensions	Workplace	n	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	SS	t	p
High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA)	Technic	331	16,47	3,97	-0,797	0,426
	Social	199	16,76	4,21	0,777	0,120
High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA)	Technic	331	17,79	3,73	-0,925	0,355
	Social	199	18,12	4,26	0,723	0,555
Low pleasurable-High arousal	Technic	331	8,73	3,25		0,765
(LPHA)	Social	199	8,83	3,68	-0,299 ^a	
Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA)	Technic	331	11,95	3,62	-0,220	0,826
	Social	199	12,03	3,89	0,220	0,020
Total	Technic	331	73,58	12,01	-0,384	0,701
Tom	Social	199	74,02	14,18	0,504	0,701

Table 12.T Test Results of JAWS Scale Scores by Field

a: Mann Whitney U test Z score

It was determined that the total scores of affective well being of the work did not show any significant difference according to the work field (p> 0,05).

H₂₆ Denied: High pleasurable-High arousal (HPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₂₇ Denied: High pleasurable-Low arousal (HPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₂₈ Denied: Low pleasurable-High arousal (LPHA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₂₉ Denied: Low pleasurable-Low arousal (LPLA) scores of employees differ significantly by work experience.

H₃₀ Denied: Employee perceptions of good work perception scores differ significantly by work experience.

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Discussion

This work is done in a technology company; to measure and record the happiness perception related to socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education and

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work experience. Survey respondents' perception of happiness related to work, statistical data revealed. The findings of the study confirm some of the socio demographic characteristics of the work-related happiness index. These results are consistent with many data in the literature. Also in the layered analyzes; age, gender, marital status, education and work experience are directly related to job satisfaction. These socio-demographic characteristics were found to be important variables in job-related happiness index.

,In the results of gender dependent t test in this study; women's LPHA scores were significantly higher than males. We can explain this by the worrying situation that is created if we think that it will be relatively less in a technological company where 75% of men are the reason. It is seen as a result of the effort to prove themselves constantly. Although this may seem contradictory to some general research in the literature, there is not enough data in the literature about only the emotional well-being of work-related women in technology companies.

In the literature we can talk about the opposite of the research that supports the hypotheses of this study.

In the Dutch study of the job satisfaction of Groot and Brink in 1999, the difference between job satisfaction of women and men was examined and it was the result that women had more job satisfaction than men. (Groot,& Brink, 1999)

LaCroix and Haynes conducted a research in 1987; suggests that gender has a relationship between undertaken tasks and work-related sense of happiness. In keeping with job models of reactions to work, our analyses reveal remarkable gender similarity in the processes through which specific work conditions affect our indicators of emotional well-being. Although the women are concentrated in somewhat less desirable jobs, the net impact of the various types of work conditions on distress and happiness follows a pattern similar to that found among their male counterparts. Both men and women are influenced by factors reflecting job demands, job deprivations, and job rewards, and by the work environment, both physical and social. (LaCroix & Haynes, 1987)

Women are more likely to pursue a career and leadership path than their peers for the reasons of traditional views, and we can say that they may cause them to be angry at times worried.

The employment status of women has not yet been completely abolished due to the traditional expression mentioned above, together with the reduction of male-female differentiation. The general consensus is that although the personalities of the family and the role of the individual are different, for the women are more important for women, and the work is more important for men. Similarly, in the workplace, while men are identified with leadership, women have a more rooted role (Sandberg, 2014.) This, in turn, causes women who are effective in leadership to be regarded as more unpleasant when compared to effective men (Northouse, 2014.)

The results of the t test according to the marital status of the research are H_7 hypothesis; showed us that women's HPLA scores were significantly higher than male staff scores. We must say that the fact that women are more involved in the business world has significantly changed the nature of business and the nature and nature of family life. As women acquire work experience and as their level of education increases, participation in the workforce leads them to be happy.

In married couples, the work of both spouses has increased the welfare coefficient with the increase of family income economically. The work of both partners has begun to be seen as a

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common and important responsibility for each wife, where housework and family responsibilities must be shared by both men and women. (Allen at all, 2000. & Bhowon, 2013.)

As a result of the researches on these subjects, happiness from the work and the marriage is the result of many researches that two main sources of happiness. It is also stated that women's standing status can affect the happiness of their husbands. (Benin, & Nienstedt, 1985.)

This necessitates a balance between work and family life. 85% of the working married couples were found to be "happy" or "very happy" (p <0.001), in which the spouses tended to see themselves as complementary in terms of personality (Acar, 1994.)

One of the subjective well-being parameters of work is age. Employees' HPHA scores are higher than the 36-45 age group of 26-35 year olds. The most important reason for this is the anxiety and uneasiness caused by the uncertainties in the career planning and life planning process of the 26-35 age group.

According to Okpara; the age and the life period in which the person is present, plays a decisive role on the attitudes, behaviors and decisions of the person. For this reason, it is possible that there may be some differences in the person's work-related thoughts and attitudes depending on age. Research shows that there is a U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction (Okpara, 2006).

According to Gibson and Klein, the relationship between age and job satisfaction is related to one's needs and consciousness. (Gibson & Klein, 1970). In other words, as the age increases, the experience of the employees increases and accordingly there is an increase in the level of satisfaction.

In Glenn and his colleagues in 1977 and in the study of job satisfaction, subjective well-being between age and work; it is seen that older workers have higher job satisfaction levels than younger workers. (Glenn at all, 1977)

HPLA results between the ages of 36-45 in this study and LPLA support these findings in the results between 26-35 years. Significant hypotheses of this study seem to be compatible with other studies.

The total scores of emotional well-being related to the work also differ according to the learning status. As the level of education increases, expectations for work increase. Faster careers, higher wages, and a competitive business environment result in a constant concern in highly trained employees. The results of this study are also more complicated than those of high school graduates who are undergraduates. High school graduates find it enough to find a business area where they can express themselves and feel confident.

Oshagbemi also achieved similar results in a study conducted in 2003. Employees are unhappy and job satisfaction decreases if they are not in positions appropriate to their educational level and experience. However, high levels of anxiety and stress can cause job satisfaction to diminish in employees who are in a position where they have more expectations than they possess. (Oshagbemi, 2003).

The sense of emotional well-being for the worker is significantly higher for the total scores of employees with more work experience. Anova test results in this study: F = 6.05; p < 0.05 This also shows that acquiring information in every sense means self-confidence and consciousness. This affects the total happiness of the employees. Experience brings together

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self-confidence, self-discipline and purpose. Evaluates possible risk factors with determination and courage.

In a recent survey of Luo et al. the task force, the task force to do more, make people happy. (Luo & Yang, at al., 2016).

Acquisition with experience and access to a certain age will turn into a pleasure to acquire knowledge because it means that some basic steps have passed. The employee is happy to expand the social environment and outward-facing opportunities.

Self-sufficiency also affects the performance of the workplace, owing to the fact that employees have knowledge of a new topic on the targets they set for themselves, and the positive influence on learning processes. (Bandura, 1982)

As self-sufficiency resources are developed, the self-sufficiency of the individual is increasing and this development has a direct impact on business performance. (Luthans et al., 2004)

6.2 Conclusion

The most notable result of this study in a technology company based on demographic characteristics is that there is no difference in HPHA and HPLA scores in terms of sex. On the other hand, men's LPLA scores are lower than women's, while women's LPHA scores are lower than men's. We can say that women's perceptions of affective well-being toward work are approaching men. We can interpret this as an attempt to cope with the existence and difficulties of women. The result is that married women working are happier than men. This supports the previous theory. Also, with gender discrimination, employees between the ages of 36 and 45 are more likely to have perceptive well-being perceptions of work than those aged between 26 and 35 years. Educational level results show that high school and balanced school graduates are happier. Experienced workers, on the other hand, have higher perceptions of happiness for work than relatively inexperienced workers.

Demographic parameters will continue to be important in the upcoming periods in the emotional well-being work of the work. Companies have to keep all these in mind for the balance of the happy working environment for efficiency and sustainability.

7. SUMMARY

7.1. Research Limitations

The study was a cross-sectional study conducted with the headquarters staff of a large technology company. The level of education and age ranges are closely related. The questions on the questionnaire may not be perceived correctly. Or it may not reflect the demographic characteristics sufficiently. Working conditions and facilities include employees of a relatively good company. All findings obtained in the present study must be confirmed in future prospective studies.

7.2. Recommendations for Further Research

During this search and search for resources, there was no study that measured the contribution to perceived job well-being, especially in women's employment and working environment. Especially in the developing countries, the economic development of the women, the effect on the socio-economic structure and the better sense of life are different from the developed countries. In particular, the rapid development of technology, the use of intensive technology

in every field, leaving the woman out of a real business life can not be designed. Sharing, creativity, fertility, ownership and instructional characteristics among the natural abilities of women are positive influence parameters. The desire of women in developing countries to be able to do a lot of work together, to be a mother, to be present in working life should be perceived as positive and transformed into production. For this reason, a study that shows the positive effect of women on their working life will be useful.

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