

**A COMPARISON OF TELECOMMUTING AND WORKPLACE
EMPLOYEES IN TERMS OF SITUATIONAL STRENGTH,
PERSONALITY, WORK ATTITUDES AND PERFORMANCE**

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF TELECOMMUTING AND WORKPLACE EMPLOYEES IN TERMS OF SITUATIONAL STRENGTH, PERSONALITY, WORK ATTITUDES AND PERFORMANCE

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The purpose of the present study is to examine the personality, work attitudes, and performance differences of employees working in different work arrangements, (home and office-based work contexts). The variables used were situational strength (clarity, consistency, and constraints), and personality (conscientiousness and extraversion). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions, and job performance were the work outcome variables. 359 employees working at offices, and 261 employees working at least one day a week at home in public and private organizations in Turkey participated in a web-based survey.

The results showed that home-based group had lower level of constraints, higher levels of clarity and consistency than office-based group. There was no difference between the telecommuting intensity groups in terms of personality. The levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance were higher and turnover intentions was lower for the home-based group. It was found that high

levels of personality were associated with high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance and lower levels of turnover intentions. Work context did not moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment in the expected direction; that is, the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment was stronger for the office-based context whereas extraversion and overall job satisfaction and turnover intentions were stronger for the home-based context. For job satisfaction and performance, there was no interaction effect of personality and work context. The findings are discussed together with the strengths and limitations. Practical implications for managers and some suggestions for future research are presented.

Keywords: Telecommuting, Situational Strength, Personality, Work Attitudes, Performance

ÖZ

EVDE ÇALIŞANLARLA İŞ YERİNDE ÇALIŞANLARIN, DURUMSAL GÜC, KİŞİLİK, İŞ TUTUMLARI VE PERFORMANS AÇISINDAN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı farklı iş düzenlemelerinde (ev-odaklı ve ofis-odaklı iş ortamı) çalışanların kişilik, iş tutumları, ve performans farklılıklarının incelenmesidir. Kullanılan değişkenler durumsal güç (açıklık, tutarlılık, ve kısıtlılık), ve kişiliktir (özdisiplin sahibi olma ve dışa dönüklük). İş doyumu, örgütsel bağlılık, işten ayrılma niyeti ve iş performansı iş sonuçları değişkenleridir. Oluşturulan hipotezleri test etmek için Türkiye'deki çeşitli kamu kuruluşlarından ve özel şirketlerden, ofiste çalışan 359 kişi ve haftada en az bir gün evde çalışan 261 kişi hazırlanan çevrimiçi ankete katılmıştır.

Analiz sonuçlarına göre, ev-odaklı çalışma grubunda ofis odaklı çalışma grubuna göre kısıtlılık daha az (daha fazla otoriteye sahip oldukları hissediyorlar), açıklık ve tutarlılık daha yüksek çıkmıştır. Evden çalışma yoğunluğuna göre oluşturulan gruplar arasında kişilik özellikleri açısından fark bulunmamıştır. Ev-odaklı çalışma grubunda iş doyumu, örgütsel bağlılık, performans daha yüksektir ve işten ayrılma niyetleri daha azdır. Özdisiplinli olma ve dışa dönüklük arttıkça,

beklendiği gibi iş doyumu, örgütsel bağlılık ve performansın arttığı, işten ayrılma niyetinin ise azaldığı görülmüştür. İş ortamları ile özdisiplinli olmanın örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki düzenleyici (moderasyon) etkisi beklenen yönde bulunamamıştır. Yapılan analizlere göre, özdisiplinli olma ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki ofis-odaklı iş ortamları için daha güçlündür, ancak dışa dönüklük ile genel iş doyumu ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki ilişki ev-odaklı iş ortamları için daha güçlündür. İş doyumu ve iş performansı için kişilik ve iş ortamlarının herhangi bir etkileşimi bulunamamıştır. Bulgular çalışmanın güçlü ve zayıf yanlarıyla birlikte tartışılmıştır. Yöneticiler için pratik uygulamalar ve gelecek çalışmalar için bazı öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Evden Çalışma, Durumsal Güç, Kişilik, İş Tutumları, Performans

*To...
my dearest family, Nuran, Mustafa, Didem Aydin
and
my beloved life companion Arda Girit*

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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

With the famous motto of ‘work is something you do, not a place you go’, it had become more meaningful to arrange works around networks, instead of the buildings and clocks (Abdel-Wahab, 2007), and in turn it blurred the traditional boundaries in time and space (Kylin & Karlsson, 2008). Due to the rapid advances in information and communication technology, the structure of work arrangements and in turn the working life of employees gained increased flexibility and mobility, and this change allowed new work arrangements such as telecommuting (Lundberg & Lindfords, 2002). Over the last two decades, many researchers and practitioners had studied this new work arrangement, and telecommuting was regarded as the next workplace revolution (Kelly, 1985, van der Lippe & Peters, 2007). With the increased usage of internet and rapid technological advances throughout the world, new and flexible working arrangements for employees began to spread from highly developed countries to developing ones over the years. These rapid changes in the work life attracted many researchers to conduct various studies on the effects, advantages, and disadvantages of these flexible working arrangements and also their relationships with important personality and work-related variables like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and job performance.

In the present study the relationships between personality and work attitudes variables were investigated by comparing employees working at home-based work contexts and office-based work contexts which differ in their situational

strengths. The expectations of the study were that situational strength of home-based work contexts would be lower than office-based work contexts; employees working at home would be more conscientious and less extraverted than employees working at the office; more conscientious and more extraverted employees would have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance and lower levels of turnover intentions than less conscientious and less extraverted employees. Moreover, moderation effects of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitudes and job performance variables were expected, with stronger associations for home-based work contexts than office-based work contexts.

1.2. Historical Overview of Telecommuting

Telecommuting as a term was first used by Nilles (1975) to refer to working from non-traditional locations and communicating with the conventional offices via telecommunications or computer-based technology. In other words, the daily commuting to an office is substituted by telecommunications and related information technologies, thereby eliminating the distance restrictions (Huws, Korte, & Robinson, 1990). Therefore, the rapid developments in the still evolving information and telecommunications technology made telecommuting a popular work arrangement option for both employers and employees in recent years (Allen & Wolkowitz, 1987; Fan Ng, 2006).

Telecommuting which is a broader name for a specific work arrangement is a multifaceted phenomenon. The basic components of telecommuting are flexible work arrangements, remote locations for working, and heavy usage of technological advances. Working from non-traditional locations such as home or other remote locations refers to de-localization of work component; using information and computer technology refers to utilization of information technology component; and communicating with the traditional offices by using

this computer technology refers to link with an organization component. (Gray, Hodson, & Gordon, 1993).

As Handy and Mokhtarian (1996) stated that every passing day, more and more employers, employees, transportation planners, communities, people from the telecommunication industry, and others become interested in flexible work arrangements, working away from offices via the use of computers, modems, faxes (Gurstein, 2001). Nowadays, telecommuting is a very widespread work arrangement which is frequently preferred by organizations and employees. According to World at Work data (2009, as cited in Hunton & Norman, 2010), there were 12.4 million American telecommuters in 2006, and this estimate had reached to 17.2 million American telecommuters in 2008. The 1995 report which shows the percentages of organizations using telecommuting across 12 European countries, Australia, and New Zealand, indicated that 47% of the organizations in Sweden, 24% in the Netherlands, 20% in New Zealand, 19% in Australia, 14% in Finland, 11% in Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and Belgium, 9% in Denmark, and Germany, 8% in France, and 5% in Ireland had been using telecommuting as an employment option (Brewster, Mayne, Tregaskis, Parsons, Atterbury, Hegewisch, et al., 1997; Cranet Research Network, 1995; Tregaskis, 1999).

The researchers stated many reasons for the widespread practice of telecommuting, from the findings of studies conducted with telecommuters over years. (Dunham, Pierce, & Castaneda, 1987; Grawitch & Barber, 2010; Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998; Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002; Lupton & Haynes, 2000; Madsen, 2011; Mokhtarian & Salomon, 1997; Olson & Primps, 1984; Pratt, 1984; Steward, 2000; van der Lippe & Peters, 2007). Among those, increased flexibility and job autonomy (Gajendron & Harrison, 2007; Shamir & Salomon, 1986;), improved work-life balance with increased family and leisure time (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Kurland & Bailey, 1999; Niles, 1996), increased community ties, reduced commuting time, energy, and money, lower stress levels, less disturbance while working can be stated as the advantages for telecommuters. The increased

productivity (Gajendron & Harrison, 2007), better recruitment and retention, lower accommodation costs, promoted diversity, reduced absenteeism and reduced office space requirements can be stated as the advantages for the organizations giving permission for telecommuting. Moreover, even less pollution, increased community stability, more efficient use of energy, and also the inclusion of disabled employees who are unable to commute can be stated as the benefits of telecommuting for the society. As Igbaria and Guimaraes (1999) also stated that at the societal level with the increased environmental and global awareness on various sensitive issues, many organizations benefit from flexible work arrangements like telecommuting especially while implementing the related regulatory requirements like the Americans with Disabilities Act and the Clean Air Act. That is, as the literature on telecommuting suggests that the demand for such flexible work arrangements not only comes from employees but also from organizations and the society.

A study with 400 telecommuters in USA revealed that there were no negative socio-psychological effects of telecommuting on employees or managers. Moreover, while commuting decreased due to working at home, and telecommuters could also find time for visiting their friends, shopping and such activities (Niles, 1996). These findings showed the advantages of telecommuting for employees, managers, and also for the society as well.

According to the findings of a meta-analysis including 46 studies conducted with a total of 12.883 employees, telecommuting had positive effects on perceived autonomy, lower work-family conflict, job satisfaction, performance, lower turnover intentions, and role stressors. There was no negative effect on the quality of work-place relationships with co-workers or supervisors. However, when the days working at home increased, that is, was more than 2.5 days, employees experienced more work-family conflict and co-worker relationship quality was worse (Gajendron & Harrison, 2007).

Besides these advantages, the researchers had also indicated some of the possible disadvantages of such a work arrangement. The stated challenges of telecommuting for individuals were lack of social interaction (i.e. social isolation) (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003), career stagnation with fewer opportunities for development or promotion, lower job security (Hone, Kerrin, & Cox, 1998; Standen, Daniels, & Lamond, 1999), lack of visibility, motivation problems (Huws et al., 1990), tendency to spend more time for working (Hill et al., 1998), lack of technical support due to reduced interaction with supervisors and coworkers, reduced informal communication, and problems about the boundaries between work and home for individuals due to blurred work-personal time boundaries (Golden, Veiga, & Dino, 2008; Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). The organizations also have to deal with some of the challenges of telecommuting such as increased selection and training costs, difficulties with supervision, feedback, performance measures, and coordinating work, security issues, communication, organizational culture and union concerns, employee accountability, disruptions in work teams, lack of clear common aims and procedures (Baruch & Nicholson, 1997; Daniels, Lamond, & Standen, 2000; Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008; Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002, Madsen, 2011; Piliskin, 1998;).

A study conducted with 887 employees in Germany found that telecommuting had significant positive effect on the negotiations between the employee and employers about the flexibility of working arrangements, whereas it did not have significant effect on the negotiations about developmental issues (Hornung et al., 2008). These findings were parallel with the advantages of telecommuting on flexibility and disadvantages of it on the opportunities for development and promotion.

Despite the extensive literature on flexible work arrangements throughout the world, there is no consensus on the term to define it clearly. Telecommuting, distributed work, telework, remote work, (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002), distance work, networking, flexible working, flexi place, home working, home-based working, electronic homework, mobile working, electronic

cotta organization, electronic cottage, virtual workplace, satellite centers, and neighborhood work centers are the terms used to define such flexible work arrangements (Gurstein, 2001; Madsen, 2011). There are only subtle differences among these various terms, and these subtle differences generally arise from either the telecommuting intensity, whether it is full-time or part-time (e.g. working away from the traditional offices at least one day a week) or the specific location of work (e.g. conventional offices such as home, satellite offices, hotel rooms, telecenters, or even while travelling on the road in the car or plane) (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Gurstein, 2001; Scott & Timmerman, 1999).

In the present study, the term home-based work was used to refer to telecommuting. Home-based work was operationalized as working at home at least one day a week and in the remaining work days at a traditional office. The term office-based work was also used to refer to working full-time at traditional offices. Besides, for detailed analyses, three groups were formed according to the telecommuting intensity, 1) the high-telecommuting group, referring to working three or more days a week at home, 2) the low-telecommuting intensity referring to working one or two days a week at home, and 3) the no-telecommuting group referring to working only at the office. Home-based and office-based work groups, and also the three telecommuting intensity groups were compared in terms of their situational strengths by comparing the differences in job characteristics of the two work arrangements. These groups were also investigated in terms of the personality profiles that fit each one. Finally, whether employees working in these different work arrangements differ on the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and performance were investigated.

1.3. Situational Strength Differences between Home-based and Office-based Work Arrangements

Situational strength refers to both implicit and explicit cues existing in the work context regarding the desirability of specific work behaviors (Forehand & von

Haller-Gilmer, 1964; Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010). These implicit and explicit cues in the work context are influencing the employee behaviors in three ways, namely, defining stimuli, constraining freedom, and providing rewards and punishments, by forming the characteristics of a job (Beaty, Cleveland, & Murphy, 2001; Forehand & von Haller Gilmer, 1964; Meyer, Dalal, & Bonaccio, 2009; Meyer et al., 2010; Mullins & Cummings, 1999).

If the job characteristics provide more implicit and explicit cues to employees, such work contexts are referred to strong situations which decreases variances in employee behaviors, whereas if the characteristics of the job provide less cues regarding the desirability of behaviors, such work contexts are referred to weak situations which enable employees to work in their own ways, and in turn increase the variance in employee behaviors. Furthermore, in weak situations in which employees are more likely to behave in their own ways, personality trait-work outcome relationships become more prominent than in strong situations in which there is no place for acting in an individual manner. That is, the effects of personality traits on various job attitudes and performance are hindered in strong situations. Therefore, situational strength is also considered as a moderator between personality and work criteria (Beaty et al., 2001; Chatman, 1989; Forehand & von Haller Gilmer, 1964; Johns, 2006; Meyer et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2010; Slovic, 1972).

In line with these findings, it is expected that home-based work contexts will more likely be situationally weak, whereas office-based work contexts will more likely be situationally strong. In other words, it is expected that when telecommuting intensity increases, situational strength decreases. Therefore, the first hypothesis was proposed as the following:

H1 - Situational strength will be lower for home-based work contexts than for office-based work contexts.

Hypothesis 1 was tested via sub-hypotheses in which situational strength was operationalized following the facet structure proposed by Meyer et al. (2010). They specified four facets for situational strength, namely, clarity (task feedback, and versus role ambiguity), consistency (versus role conflict), constraints (versus autonomy), and consequences. Clarity refers to the extent to which situational cues about the work-related responsibilities and requirements are available to employees and easy to understand. If the cues are clear, available, and understandable enough, such a work context has high situational strength, and will be defined as a strong situation.

As Bowles, Babcock, and McGinn (2005) stated, lack of clarity will cause structural ambiguity for the employees, and without clear cues about what to do in work, employees will be more likely to experience role ambiguity. In situationally weak contexts, employees are more likely to experience role ambiguity due to lack of clear information regarding the role expectations, ways of fulfilling stated expectations associated with the role, or the consequences of role performance. The clarity of a situation can be influenced by various indicators in the organizational context such as written procedures, policies, and established norms which provide a salient organizational climate, and clear instructions, support, and feedback from the supervisor (Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999; Meyer et al., 2010).

As stated before, in the telecommuting context, employees generally suffer from the lack of support from their supervisor and simultaneously the organization also experiences difficulties in supervising the telecommuters and in planning their duties (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Daniels et al., 2000; Lamond, Daniels, & Standen, 1997; MacDonnel, & Kline, 2009; O'Neill, Hambley, Greidanus, MacDonnel, & Kline, 2009). Therefore, it is expected that cues regarding the desirability of behaviors will be less clear in home-based work contexts than in office-based work-contexts. In other words, it is expected that when

telecommuting intensity increases, clarity of these cues decreases. In line with that, the following sub-hypothesis was proposed:

H1(a) – Clarity will be lower for home-based work contexts than for office-based work contexts.

The second facet of situational strength proposed by Meyer et al. (2010), was consistency which refers to the extent to which situational cues about the work-related responsibilities and requirements are compatible with each other. If the cues are similar and consistent enough, such a work context will be defined as a strong situation. Inconsistent cues regarding the desirability of any work behavior, and employees will be more likely to experience role conflict, and such work contexts will be defined as weak situations. The consistency of the situational cues can be affected by various organizational sources of information like written procedures, policies, and established norms (Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999, Meyer et al., 2010).

As many authors (e.g. Daniels et al., 200; Hill et al., 1998; Hone et al., 1998; Lamond et al., 1997; Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002; Madsen, 2011; Standen, Daniels, & Lamond, 1999) indicated employees in telecommuting contexts generally suffer from a lack of support from their supervisors and coworkers, and also social isolation. The organizations also have difficulties in supervising the telecommuters, and in planning the duties of telecommuters. Difficulties in planning telecommuters' work, coupled with the existence of being isolated from traditional offices could cause a lack of cues about written procedures and norms, which would normally exist in a traditional office context. Thus, telecommuters are more likely to receive inconsistent information regarding their duties. Hence, it is expected that situational cues will be less consistent in home-based work contexts than in office-based work-contexts. In other words, it is expected that

when telecommuting intensity increases, consistency of these cues decreases. In line with that, the following sub-hypothesis was proposed:

*H1(b) - Consistency will be lower for home-based work contexts
than for office-based work contexts.*

The third facet of situational strength proposed by Meyer et al. (2010), was constraints which refer to the extent to which the employees' autonomy and freedom of behaviors and decisions are restricted by the forces outside their control. If there are more constraints and cues restricting the autonomy of the employees, such a work context will be defined as a strong situation. Whereas, lack of constraints will provide freedom in decisions and behaviors of employees, and due to increases in autonomy, such work contexts will be defined as weak situations. The constraints in a situation can be affected by various organizational sources of information such as written procedures, policies, supervision, behavioral monitoring systems, and even the external regulations (Meyer et al., 2010).

Many researchers (Daniels et al., 2000; Feldman & Gainey, 2001; Kurland & Bailey, 1999; Lamond et al., 1997; Lupton & Haynes, 2000; Mills, Ellison, Werner, & Clay, 2001; Mokhtarian & Salomon, 1997) indicated that increased autonomy and flexibility in the duties are the main advantages of telecommuting. Thus, it is expected that there will be less situational constraints in home-based work contexts than in office-based work-contexts. In other words, it is expected that when telecommuting intensity increases, constraints in the working context would decrease. In line with that, the following sub-hypothesis was proposed:

*H1(c) – Constraints will be lower for home-based work contexts
than for office-based work contexts.*

The final facet of situational strength proposed by Meyer et al. (2010), was consequences which refer to the extent to which decisions and actions of

employees produce positive or negative outcomes for any related person or entity. This facet was not included in hypothesis testing, since employees in both contexts are working on the same jobs. Therefore, the consequences of the behaviors are not expected to specify differences in situational strength across the home versus office work contexts.

1.4. Personality Profile Differences between Home-based and Office-based Work Arrangements

Telecommuting attracts so many employees because of the advantages such as flexible work arrangements in line with the fact that every job is not eligible candidates for telecommuting, every employee is not also suitable for working away the traditional offices. Research has revealed that employees who are mature, trustworthy, neat, meticulous, thorough, diligent, dedicated to their goals, well-organized, focused, motivated, self-starter, persistent, self-reliant, self-disciplined, capable of working with little on-site supervision, and at the same time have less social needs, are not outgoing, less sociable, and less gregarious are good candidates for telecommuting (Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Belanger, 1999; Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Daniels et al., 2000; Digman, 1990; Gurstein, 2001 Haris, 2003; Madsen, 2011; Manoochehri & Pinkerton, 2003; McCrae & John, 1992; Meyer et al., 2009; O'Neill et al., 2009). Based on the above findings of the authors about the profile of telecommuters, conscientiousness and extraversion among the big five personality traits were chosen to be examined in the scope of the present study.

In line with these findings, it is expected that telecommuters are more likely to have a profile of high conscientiousness and low extraversion than the profile of employees working at traditional offices. In other words, it is expected that, when telecommuting intensity increases, conscientiousness levels increase and extraversion levels decrease. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed as the following:

H2(a) - Employees working at home are more likely to be high on conscientiousness than the employees working at office.

H2(b) - Employees working at home are more likely to be introverted than the employees working at the office.

1.5. Work Attitudes and Performance Differences

In the literature, the relationship between work contexts and many outcome variables have been examined heavily by the researchers. Some specific findings on job attitudes and performance variables such as productivity, job satisfaction, work-family conflict, turnover intentions, stress, perceived autonomy, organizational commitment, loyalty to organization, performance, but especially supervisory or objective ratings of performance in the telecommuting literature indicated that job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and performance are the most related and affected ones (Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Grawitch & Barber, 2010; Golden et al., 2008; Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999; McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003, Pinsonneault & Boisvert, 2001).

Job satisfaction is an attitude that reflects how employees feel about their jobs (Locke, 1976) and can be also defined as the affective reactions of employees to various facets of job and job experience (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). Locke (1976) had identified nine facets of job satisfaction, namely, work, recognition, promotion, supervision, co-workers, working conditions, management, pay, and benefits (Mokhtarian & Bagley, 2000). In the present study, job satisfaction would be examined as overall job satisfaction instead of examining at the facet level. In a study that provided a systematic review of 385 research articles, it was stated that work flexibility related to greater job satisfaction, job performance, and employee health, and with decreased turnover intentions, distress, and absenteeism (Grawitch & Barber, 2010).

Organizational commitment was defined as “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership” (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p.95). Simply, it can be defined as an attitude that reflects the strength of the bond between employees and the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) have identified commitment as three very different types, namely, affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment of employees to their organizations (the extent the employee wishes to stay in the organization); continuance commitment refers to the extent that employee feels staying in the organization as an obligation because of the costs and benefits perceptions; and normative commitment refers to a more moral dimension (the extent the employee feels staying in the organization is the right thing to do according to his/her values) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). As Grawitch and Barber (2010) stated, work flexibility in telecommuting was associated with higher levels of organizational commitment. Moreover, Hunton, and Norman (2010) indicated that telecommuters are more likely to be higher on affective, continuance, and normative commitment than non-telecommuter counterparts, and also their affective organizational commitment scores were higher than continuance and normative organizational commitment scores. Therefore, in the scope of this study the affective organizational commitment difference between employees working at home and office-based work contexts was chosen to be examined.

Intentions to quit refer to employees’ perceived likelihood of staying or leaving the organization they are working for (Ali, 2008, Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999). Since employee turnover causes significant costs for the organizations (Arnold & Randall, 2010), this concept was also studied heavily by the researchers (Currihan, 1999; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999). As stated before, the meta-analysis conducted with 46 studies showed that

flexible working arrangements like telecommuting had positive effects on job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions, and lower work-family conflict (Gajendron & Harrison, 2007). Another study conducted with 261 telecommuters and also with their managers, revealed that professional isolation in the telecommuting context decreased the turnover intentions. Moreover, this unexpected effect of professional isolation on turnover intentions increased when the telecommuting intensity increased (Golden et al., 2008).

Job performance was generally accepted as a multidimensional construct that includes both task and contextual performance components (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). Task performance refers to the proficiency with the tasks performed (Borman, 2004) or the effectiveness with which the employees perform the activities that contribute to the organization's technical core, either directly by implementing a part of its technical core, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), whereas contextual performance refers to behaviors that contribute to the culture and climate of the organization (Beffort & Hattrup, 2003). Producing products, selling merchandise, acquiring inventory, managing subordinates, and delivering services are the examples of task performance behaviors, while volunteering for extra work, persisting with enthusiasm, helping and cooperating with others, following rules and procedures, and supporting or defending the organization are the examples of contextual performance behaviors (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999). In the present study, both task and contextual performance components and also overall job performance by aggregating these two components would be examined.

In telecommuting contexts with the flexibility it provides to employees, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, production levels and performance of employees simultaneously increase, while the turnover intentions of those employees decrease (e.g. Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Baltes et al., 1999; Duffy, 1995; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden et al., 2008; Hartman, Stoner, & Arora,

1991; Humble, Jacobs, & Van Sell, 1995; Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1999; McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003; Pinsonneault & Boisvert, 2001; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2004). According to the result of one of these studies which was conducted in the United States with 225 employees, half of them which were telecommuters, employees working at home had significantly higher levels of overall job satisfaction and less tendency to quit their jobs than employees working at office (Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999). One of the reasons for these results was stated as the low levels of role stressors in telecommuting context. The first hypothesis of the present study was also in line with this finding as it was proposed that situational strength of the home-based work contexts will be lower than for office-based work contexts. In a situationally weak work context, employees would face fewer role stressors, and in turn their job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance levels would be expected to be high while their turnover intentions would be expected to be low.

On the other hand, according to some other researchers the pattern of relationships between telecommuting and various work attitudes and performance variables were just the opposite. That is, some studies showed that job satisfaction and organizational commitment of telecommuters were lower than their counterparts working at traditional offices, and also telecommuters had higher intentions to quit than non-telecommuters (Hill et al., 1996; Duxbury, Higgins, & Neufold, 1998; Igbaria & Guimares, 1999; Madsen, 2011).

As mentioned before, there are not only advantages but also possible disadvantages of flexible work arrangements for both employees and employers. However, it is generally expected that the advantages of flexible work arrangements will outweigh the possible challenges of telecommuting for both employees and organizations (Madsen, 2011). The contradictory findings of the researchers regarding the influence of telecommuting on job attitudes and performance variables might have been arisen from participants focusing on either advantages or disadvantages of flexible work arrangements.

Furthermore, such a discrepancy in the telecommuting literature may be due to several reasons such as differences in attitudes of employees and employers toward telecommuting, blurring of the boundaries between work and family life, differences in telecommuting intensity, types of telecommuting (mandatory or voluntary programs), differences in gender, marital status and number of children under age 18, and also different personality profiles of the telecommuters. For instance, Patall et al. (2008) indicated that being able to make your own choices in any field of life makes people feel more valuable and also have a positive influence on their beliefs, and behaviors. Therefore, organizations may benefit from the increased loyalty of their employees by enabling them to engage in volitional acts in work related choices (Froggatt, 1998). Therefore, it can be said that for the employees voluntarily working at home, while job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance levels will be higher, their turnover intentions will be lower than employees mandatorily working at home.

Among these several possible reasons for the discrepancy in the telecommuting literature, the effects of different personality profiles on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and performance levels were chosen to be investigated, in the scope of the present study. Initially, to examine the relationship between work contexts and work attitudes and performance variables, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H3- Employees working at home-based work context, are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees working at office-based work context.

Then, in line with the findings indicating that individuals with high levels of conscientiousness and extraversion, generally have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of

turnover intentions than individuals who are not conscientious and extraverted (Furnham, Eracleous, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009; Kumar, & Bakhshi, 2010; Tziner, Waismal-Manor, Vardi, & Brodman, 2008; Wasti, Lee, Ashton, & Somer, 2008) the fourth group of hypotheses were proposed as the following:

H4(a) - Employees who are more conscientious, are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees who are less conscientious.

H4(b) - Employees who are more extraverted, are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees who are less extraverted.

Following these hypotheses, it was aimed to examine whether the relationship between personality and work attitudes differ across different work contexts. According to results of a study conducted with 78 teleworkers and 78 non-teleworkers, employees with higher need for autonomy reported higher levels of telecommuting performance whereas those with higher need for achievement and higher need for social interaction reported lower levels of telecommuting performance (O'Neillet al., 2009). Therefore, it was expected that the pattern of relationships between personality traits and work outcome variables would be different for home-based versus office-based work contexts. More specifically, possible moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and performance was investigated with the following hypotheses:

H5(a) - Work context will moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and work-related attitude and performance variables.'

H5(b) - Work context will moderate the relationship between extraversion and work-related attitude and performance variables.'

The possible moderation effect of work context on the relationship between personality and work attitudes and performance variables was expected to be stronger for home-based work contexts in line with the first group of hypotheses. As stated before, in situationally weak contexts the relationship between personality and work outcome variables becomes more prominent, and home-based work context was expected to be situationally weaker than office-based work contexts, thus it was expected that the personality-work outcome associations would be stronger in the home-based work contexts than office-based work contexts.

There was a long research history on the effects of situational strength, personality, and different work arrangements on various job attitudes and performance variables. However, such research is relatively disconnected. Furthermore, there is a lack of comparison for different work arrangements. Although the telecommuting literature has a long history worldwide, in Turkey, the research on telecommuting is insufficient. Iscan and Naktiyok (2005) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes towards telecommuting among Turkish employees. It was a remarkable study as they provided useful information about the attitudes of Turkish employees towards telecommuting when it was a newly accepted practice for Turkey. To go beyond and also to fill the identified research gap in the literature, more integrative, comprehensive, and comparative hypotheses were proposed in this study.

Therefore, to contribute to all these research, the effects of situational strength, conscientiousness and extraversion on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and performance levels in both flexible work arrangements (home-based context) and traditional work arrangements (office-

based context) was chosen as the main interest of this study. By this way, different literatures that have heretofore been viewed as relatively disconnected will be more integrated and this study will provide more profound understanding regarding the relations of the stated variables with telecommuting.

CHAPTER 2

2. METHOD

In this chapter, information on the sample, measures, data collection procedures, research design and analyses are provided.

2.1. Sampling and Participants

The measures of this study were made accessible via Internet. The links of the web-based survey were sent to employees working in public and private organizations throughout the different cities of Turkey (See Appendix A for the survey). Through the snowball technique, finally there were 642 completed surveys out of 1019, which yielded a response rate of 63%. Subsequent to data screening and cleaning, the final sample consisted of 620 employees working in various public and private organizations throughout the different cities of Turkey. While 359 employees were working only at office, nearly half of the sample could take the advantage of telecommuting at various degrees ($N = 261$). Most of the employees were working only one or two days a week at home ($N = 208$), and only a small portion of the participants could work three or more days a week at home ($N = 53$). These employees were working in 26 different industries and in 33 different cities throughout Turkey.

Demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1 (See Appendix B for the Demographic Information Scale). While 285 (46%) were female, 335 (54%) were male. The mean age of the participants was 32.34 years ($SD = 8.73$). Approximately 80% of the participants were within the age range of 20 to 40. Two hundred seventy one (43.7%) participants were married, 349

(56.7%) participants reported themselves as single. Four hundred thirty six participants, the vast majority of the sample, stated having no child ($N = 436$), whereas 112 of them had one child, 60 of them had two children, 10 participants had three children, and only two participants had four children (18.1%, 9.7%, 1.6%, and 0.3%, respectively).

When education levels of the sample was considered, it was found that 330 participants, nearly half of the sample, were university graduates (53.2%). While 230 participants had a masters degree (37.1%), 31 of the sample had a doctorate degree (5%). Moreover, 27 participants graduated from high school (4.4%), and remaining two graduated from primary and elementary schools (0.2%).

Both organizational and total tenure of the participants were asked. When organizational tenure, it was found that 462 participants, the vast majority of the sample had an organizational tenure less than 5 years (74.5%), 84 participants spent between 5.5 and 10 years (13.5%), 56 of them spent between 10.5 and 20 years (9%), 15 of them spent between 20.5 and 30 years (2.4%), and only three participants had an organizational tenure more than 30 years (0.5%). When total tenure was considered, it was found that 292 participants, the majority of the sample, had a total tenure less than 5 years (47.1%), 117 participants had total tenure between 5.5 and 10 years (18.9%), 138 of them had total tenure between 10.5 and 20 years (22.3%), 58 of them had total tenure between 20.5 and 30 years (9.4%), and 15 participants had total tenure more than 30 years (2.4%). The mean organization tenure of participants was 4.57 years ($SD = 5.66$), while the mean total tenure of participants was 9.25 years ($SD = 8.69$).

Participants reported that their companies were operating in 26 different industries, including the education, research, and consultancy sector ($N = 108$, 17.4%), information technologies (i.e. software programming, data processing, automation, laser, computer and internet technologies), telecommunications, and electric-electronics ($N = 99$, 16.8%), the construction, engineering, and

architecture industries ($N = 79$, 12.7%), banking ($N = 37$, 6.3%) and healthcare ($N = 36$, 6.2%). The percentages of the remaining industries were ranging between 0.2% and 5%, and these sectors included energy, automotive, marketing, tourism, environment, and production of consumer goods. Of the participants approximately 10% ($N = 62$) were working in public companies.

Eight different job title categories were formed with regard to responses of participants. Two hundred nineteen individuals (35.4%) reported themselves as specialist while 90 participants (14.5%) as assistant specialist. Of the participants 17.7% were in a managerial position, and 5% were either the general manager or firm owner ($N = 110$, $N = 31$, respectively). Of the sample, 15.3% were academic personnel, adviser, or translator ($N = 95$), 3.7% were health care professionals ($N = 23$), 4.7% were technical staff ($N = 29$), and 1.9% were public officers ($N = 12$).

As stated before, the subjects of this study were employees working in public and private organizations throughout the different cities of Turkey. Ankara preceded the other cities because 306 participants, approximately half of the sample, were working in Ankara (49.4%) and the other city with highest participation rate following Ankara was Istanbul ($N = 134$, 21.6%). The rest of the sample was working in 31 different cities ($N = 180$, 29%). Hence, they were coded as ‘Others’ in the Table 1. In terms of company size, 291 of the companies had less than 100 employees (46.9%), 158 of them had 101 to 1000 employees (25.5%), and the remaining 142 companies had more than 1000 employees (22.9%).

Finally, for hypotheses testing, the participants were grouped according to telecommuting intensity and the work context by using their ratings of weekly working schedule. Three groups were formed with regard to telecommuting intensity. There were 359 participants who reported that they were working only at the office (57.4%). Of the remaining participants 208 reported that they were working one or two days in a week at home, other days at the office (33.5%),

while 53 participants stated working three or more days in a week at home, and other days at the office (8.5%). The first group consisting of participants working only at the office was labeled as the no telecommuting group. The second group comprising the participants working one or two days at home, and other days at the office was labeled as the low telecommuting group, while the last group consisting of the participants working three or more days at home and other days at the office was labeled as the high telecommuting group. Moreover, for testing some of the hypotheses about the work contexts, the low and high telecommuting groups were combined and treated as the ‘working at home’ group ($N = 261$, 42.6%).

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

N= 620					
Variable	Category	Mean	SD	Frequency	%
Gender					
	Female			285	46
	Male			335	54
Age		32.4	8.73		
	20-29			312	50.3
	30-39			196	31.6
	40-49			72	11.6
	50-59			35	5.6
	60-thru			5	0.8
Marital Status					
	Married			271	43.7
	Single			349	56.3
Number of Children		.44	.76		
	0			436	70.3
	1			112	18.1
	2			60	9.7
	3			10	1.6
	4			2	0.3
Education					
	Primary school			1	0.2
	Elementary school			1	0.2
	High school			27	4.4
	University			330	53.2
	Masters degree			230	37.1
	Doctorate degree			31	5
City of Company					
	Ankara			306	49.4
	Istanbul			134	21.6
	Others			180	29
Number of Employee					
	0-100			291	46.9
	101-1000			158	25.5
	1001-thru			142	22.9
	Missing			29	4.7

Notes: Age and tenure were measured in terms of years. Gender: 1= "Female" and 2= "Male". Marital status: 1= "Married" and 2= "Single". Education level: 1= "Primary school", 2= "Elementary school", 3= "High school", 4= "University", 5= "Master degree", 6= "Doctorate degree", and 7= "Others". City of company: 1= "Ankara", 2= "Istanbul", 3= "Others".

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants (cont'd)

Variable	Category	Mean	SD	Frequency	%
N= 620					
Sector of Company					
	Education, Research, Consultancy			108	17.4
	Information Technologies			99	16.8
	Construction, Engineering, Architecture			79	12.7
	Public			60	10.3
	Banking			37	6.3
	Healthcare			36	6.2
	Commerce, Service, Tourism			29	5
	Military, Defense Industry			27	4.6
	Fast-Moving Consumer Goods			24	4.1
	Energy			21	3.6
	Environment, Mining, Agriculture			20	3.4
	Motor vehicles, logistic			15	2.6
	Others			65	8
Job Title					
	Specialist			219	35.4
	Managers			110	17.7
	Academic Personnel			93	15.3
	Assistant Specialist			90	14.5
	General Managers, Firm Owner			31	5
	Technical Staff			29	4.7
	Health-care professionals			23	3.7
	Public Officers			12	1.9
Organization Tenure		4.57	5.66		
	0-5			462	74.5
	5.5-10			84	13.5
	10.5-20			56	9
	20.5-30			15	2.4
	30.5-thru			3	0.5
Total Tenure		9.25	8.69		
	0-5			292	47.1
	5.5-10			117	18.9
	10.5-20			138	22.3
	20.5-30			58	9.4
	30.5-thru			15	2.4
Office_Home					
	Only at office			359	57.4
	1 or 2 days at home			208	33.5
	3 or more days at home			53	8.5

Notes: 26 sectors and eight job titles were stated by the participants. Office_Home variable was formed using number of days at office and home variables: 0= "only at office", 1= "1or 2 days at home", and 2= "3 or more days at home".

2.2. Materials

In the present study, a Demographic Information Form was developed to specify age, gender, marital status, number of children, education level, tenure in organization, tenure in job, and working schedules of the employees. To test the proposed hypotheses, the scales described below were also used to collect data from employees.

2.2.1. Role Ambiguity Scale:

Role Ambiguity Scale, which was developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1969), was used by adapting a short and Turkish version (Ocak, Gider, Top, Şahin, & Tarcan, 2004) to test the situational strength dimension of clarity of the work contexts. Originally, there were 15 items in the scale, but only three of them with the highest factor loadings (ranging from .61 to .62), were selected to adapt it to general format for testing the facets of situational strength in the present study. Item 10 (*I know that I have divided my time properly*), item 12 (*I know what my responsibilities are*), and item 20 (*I know exactly what is expected of me*) were selected for use. A 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1 = ‘*Completely disagree*’ to 5 = ‘*Completely agree*’ was used. High scores on the Role Ambiguity Scale indicate high levels of work clarity, indicative of a strong situation. While the original 15-item scale was reported to have internal consistency reliability coefficients ranging from .78 to .81 in the literature (Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999, Rizzo et al., 1969), the 3-item shortened form has a reliability of .68 in the present study. (See Appendix C).

2.2.2. Role Conflict Scale:

Role Conflict Scale, which was developed by Rizzo et al. (1969), was used by adapting a shortened, reversed-coded and Turkish version of it to test consistency of the work contexts. The Turkish version of the scale was obtained from the

study of Ocak et al. (2004). Originally, there were 15 items in the scale, but only three with the highest factor loadings (ranging from .56 to .60) were selected for use in the present study (Rizzo et al., 1969). Item 5 (*I have to do things that should be done differently*), item 11 (*I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it*), and item 21 (receive incompatible requests from two or more people) were selected for use. A 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*' was used. All three items were reverse coded at the data analysis part so that high scores would indicate high levels of work consistency, referring to a strong situation. While this scale was reported to have internal consistency reliability coefficients ranging from .80 to .82 in the literature (Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999, Rizzo et al., 1969), it was found as .58 in the present study. Deletion of the first item increased reliability of consistency scale to .63. Therefore, the first item of consistency that is 'I have to do things that should be done differently' was excluded in the remaining analyses (See Appendix D).

2.2.3. Autonomy Scale:

Job Diagnostic Survey which was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) measures the five core job characteristics, namely, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. Three items related to the autonomy dimension of the Turkish version of Job Diagnostic Survey were used (Varoğlu, 1986). The scale includes two parts; from the first part which asks the amount of each job characteristics the employees perceived to be present in their job, only item 1 (*How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?*) which is related to autonomy were used, and from the second part which asks the accuracy of two items for each job characteristics, item 6 (*The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work*) and item 8 (*The job does not give me considerable opportunity for independence and*

freedom in how I do the work) which are related to autonomy were used with a five-point response format ranging from 1 = '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*'. Only item 1 was reverse-coded at the data analysis part to test the constraints facet of situational strength. High scores on the Autonomy Scale indicate high levels of work constraints, and refer to a strong situation. While this scale was reported to have an internal consistency reliability score of .46 (Ünüvar, 2006), it was found as .62 in the present study (See Appendix E).

2.2.4. Conscientiousness and Extraversion Scales:

The Big Five Inventory which was developed by Benet-Martinez and John (1998), measures the five personality traits, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. The items regarding the Extraversion and Conscientiousness dimensions in the Turkish version of Big Five Inventory was used in the present study (Sümer, Lajunen, & Özkan, 2005). Eight items assess conscientiousness, and seven items assess extraversion. Respondents were asked to indicate a number for each item by using a five-point scale ranging from 1 = '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*'. High scores indicate having high levels of conscientiousness and extraversion. While these scales were reported to have internal consistency reliability scores ranging from .64 to .77 (Sümer et al., 2005), they were found as .74 and .77 in the present study (See Appendix F).

2.2.5. Job Satisfaction Scales

Three items of the Global Job Satisfaction Subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman, & Oldham, 1975) that were adapted to Turkish by Bilgic (1999) were used to measure job satisfaction with a five-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1 = '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*'. An example item from the scale is 'In general, I am satisfied with my job'. Scores given to three items were averaged to estimate the job satisfaction levels of employees.

While the internal consistency reliability scores were reported as .76, .77, and .74 in successive studies (Hackman, & Lawler, 1971; Hackman, & Oldham, 1976; Wall, Cleg, & Jackson, 1978), it was found as .79 in the present study. High scores on Global Job Satisfaction Scale indicate having high levels of job satisfaction (See Appendix G).

Overall job satisfaction was also measured with the one-item faces scale (Kunin, 1955). Since the Faces Scale represents both affective and cognitive aspects of job satisfaction, it was accepted as the most balanced among various job satisfaction scales (Brief & Roberson, 1989). In the present study, participants were asked to respond on a 5-point scale, indicating which of the facial impressions best reflected their overall job satisfaction levels. High scores indicate having high levels of overall job satisfaction. The test-retest reliability of this single item scale was reported as .79 (Erol-Korkmaz, 2010) and also the estimated reliability score of this single item scale was reported as .72 in a meta-analytic study (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997) (See Appendix H).

2.2.6. Organizational Commitment Scale:

Organizational Commitment Scale which was developed by Wasti (2000) by taking the three-dimension model of Allen and Meyer (1990) as the basis was chosen to measure the affective organizational commitment levels of the participants. There were eight items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 = '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*'. An example item from the scale is 'I feel emotionally committed to this organization'. The internal consistency reliability score of the Organizational Commitment Scale was found as .94 in the present study (See Appendix I).

2.2.7. Intentions to Quit Scale:

Three items related to turnover intentions in the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire which was developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979) were used by translating into Turkish. To simplify the scoring system, the Turkish version of the scale will be translated from a 7-point scale to a 5-point scale which ranges from 1 = '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*'. An example item from the scale is 'I often plan to quit my job'. One of the items was reverse coded. High scores on these scales indicate having high levels of turnover intentions. The internal consistency reliability score of the Turkish version of the Intentions to Quit Scale was reported as .91 (Şahin, 2011), and it was .82 in the present study (See Appendix J).

2.2.8. Performance Scale:

In this study, both task and contextual performance of the participants were measured by using the Performance Scale (Karakurum, 2005). Task performance was measured with 6 items, four of them were the Turkish translation of the items developed by Beffort and Hattrup (2003) and two of them were developed by Karakurum (2005). In the original scale, contextual performance was measured with five items; each corresponds to the five aspects of contextual performance defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). However the item which is about the relationship with co-workers was excluded from this study, since there were employees working at home in the sample of the present study. Overall performance scores of the participants were computed by averaging all 10 items. Participants were asked to respond to these items on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = '*Completely disagree*' to 5 = '*Completely agree*'. An example item from the scale is 'I produce high quality work'. High scores on the Performance Scale indicate having high levels of task, contextual, and overall performance. While the internal consistency reliability scores were reported as

.81 for task performance, .80 for contextual performance, and .85 for overall performance (Karakurum, 2005), they were found as .73, .70, and .80, respectively in the present study (See Appendix K).

2.3. Procedure

After getting permission from the University Ethical Committee, the surveys were made accessible via Internet using METU Survey Service – a survey service offered by Middle East Technical University of Turkey. Since the measures of this study were online-based, the links of the web-based survey were sent to employees working at public and private organizations throughout the different cities of Turkey, through the snowball technique. The administration of the questionnaires took about 5 to 10 minutes. The web-based survey began with a introduction section summarizing its voluntary nature, and confidentiality assurances, and the participants were also informed that the data collected would be used for research purposes as part of a M.S. study. Totally, 1019 employees clicked on the link, and entered the system. However, 642 of them completed surveys, yielding a response rate of 63%. When data screening and cleaning part was completed, the final sample consisted of 620 employees working in companies of varied sizes and industries.

The obtained data from the Demographic Information Form was used to group participants according to their working schedule. That is the participants who stated working at least one day a week at home were evaluated under home-based work context group, while the participants who stated working at office were evaluated under office-based group. Moreover, they were grouped into three according to telecommuting intensity.

CHAPTER 3

3. RESULTS

The first section of this chapter, information on the data screening and cleaning procedures is provided. In the next sections, descriptive statistics and variable intercorrelations are presented. Then, the results of the hypothesis testing and exploratory analyses are provided. Finally, a summary of the results is given.

3.1. Data Screening and Cleaning

In this section, a set of issues regarding the accuracy of data file, treatment of missing data, and the extent to which the data set meet the multivariate assumptions of normality, linearity, homocedasticity and independence of error terms were investigated.

Firstly, the minimum and maximum values of each variable were checked for the accuracy of the data. There were a few inaccurate data entries which generally caused by entering the value twice. They were controlled and corrected in accordance with the participants' responses.

Examination of data entries for missing values revealed that there were no missing data for any of the scale items, by means of the forced choice format of the web-based survey for certain items, except the ones constituting the demographic variables. Since there were no missing data on the variables that were used in the main analyses, none of the cases were eliminated. Several missing values were identified for the demographic variables which participants were free to respond or not. Twenty-seven of 642 participants did not respond to

the item which asked the city of the company they were working. Twenty-nine of 642 participants did not respond to items about company sector and number of employees. Eighteen of 642 participants did not state their job title. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that if the missing data points have a random pattern and are less than 5% of the whole data set, almost any procedure for dealing with the missing values yields similar results. Since these variables were categorical, mean substitution was not an appropriate option for handling missing values, and listwise deletion would be unnecessarily conservative, pairwise deletion was preferred. The participants' data were deleted only for the computations in which the variable with missing data was involved. Moreover, 7 of 627 (0.01%) participants did not respond to items about tenure. All of them were replaced with the mean value of the particular item in order to keep the remaining sample size as high as possible.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that cases with standardized Z scores in excess of 3.29 ($p < .001$) were considered as outliers. Outliers were screened and only two extreme cases were deleted to improve linearity and to reduce the extreme skewness and kurtosis (Z scores of two outliers on the variable 'number of employees': 20.36, 10.08). The variables with the missing cases with standardized Z scores in excess of 3.29 were transformed. Logarithmic transformation was preferred for the variables with substantial positive skew, namely, number of employees, number of children, and experience in company variables. When logarithmic transformation was made for number of children variable, a constant score of one was also added to each score so that the smallest score was one. Moreover, a square root transformation was made for total experience variable since it had a moderate positive skew. Finally, 5 cases were deleted from the data set due to high Mahalonobis distance values ($\chi^2 > 45.68$; $p < .001$), leaving 620 cases for the data analysis.

In order to meet the assumptions of multivariate statistics, the normality of the measures were also investigated through the examination of skewness and

kurtosis values, histograms and scatter plots. The histograms and scatter plots revealed that many of the variables had acceptable distributions of normality and linearity, and also skewness and kurtosis values for those variables were smaller than one. The skewness and kurtosis values for some of the demographic variables were in excess of one prior to data transformations. Due to these data transformations that were made while dealing with outliers, these multivariate assumptions were also met.

3.2. Descriptive Statistics

This section contains the descriptive statistics of the data, intercorrelation between all study variables, and internal consistency coefficients of the scales. Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 2 while the correlation matrix of the study variables and the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the scales are shown in Table 3.

3.2.1. Means and standard deviations of the variables

As can be seen from the Table 2, the mean scores of the study variables were almost all above the mid-point of the 5-point scale and their standard deviations were ranging from .54 to 1.13, except the constraints and turnover intentions variables as they were reverse-coded. That is, the levels of clarity, consistency, conscientiousness, extraversion, and work attitudes, namely, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance were moderate to high for this sample. The mean score for the turnover intentions of participants' was 2.50 with a standard deviation score of 1.13. Only the mean of constraints was 2.38 ($SD = .85$) indicating that the sample had a level of autonomy that was above the mid-point ($M = 2.62$).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. dev.	Min.	Max.
Situational Strength				
Clarity	4.14	.65	1.67	5
Consistency	3.34	1.13	1	5
Constraints	2.38	.85	1	4.67
Personality				
Conscientiousness	3.87	.61	1.88	5
Extraversion	3.49	.67	1.43	5
Work Attitudes				
Job Satisfaction	3.23	.94	1	5
Overall Job Satisfaction	3.45	1.01	1	5
Organizational Commitment	3.36	1.03	1	5
Turnover Intentions	2.50	1.13	1	5
Performance				
Overall Performance	3.89	.54	1	5
Task Performance	4.06	.58	1	5
Contextual Performance	3.79	.62	1	5

Notes: All the variables were assessed by five-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1= “Completely disagree” to 5= “Completely agree”. The last item of constraints was based on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= “Very little” to 5= “Very much”.

3.2.2. Reliabilities of the scales

Internal consistency reliabilities of the scales were analyzed and the Cronbach alpha coefficients are presented with the number of items in each scale at the diagonal of Table 2. Aron, Aron, and Coups (2006) stated that Cronbach alpha coefficients should be more than .60 for a good measure. Accordingly, almost all of the internal consistency reliabilities of the scales were found to be satisfactory, ranging from .62 to .94. Only the work consistency scale yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient score of .58 with three items. However, after deletion of the first item, reliability of the consistency scale increased to .63.

3.2.3. Intercorrelations between variables

Bivariate correlations among the variables were investigated. Intercorrelations between variables which were shown in Table 3 were generally in the expected direction.

When the correlations among the situational strength variables were examined, it was found that there was a low but significant positive correlation between clarity and consistency ($r = .15, p < .01$). As expected constraints had a significant negative correlation with clarity and consistency ($r = -.27, p < .01, r = -.26, p < .01$, respectively).

When the relationships among work attitudes were considered, it was found that there were significant moderate to high correlations. As expected, there was a high and significant positive correlation between job satisfaction (3-item scale) and overall job satisfaction (faces scale) ($r = .76, p = .01$). Likewise, to assess job performance, both task and contextual performances of the participants' were measured. Therefore, there were three variables about performance, namely, task performance, contextual performance, and overall performance which is an aggregate measure of the first two. The correlation coefficient between these sub-dimensions of performance was $.56 (p < .01)$. Job satisfaction, overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, overall performance, task performance and contextual performance were all positively associated and their correlations ranged from $.34$ to $.73 (p < .01)$. Besides, contextual performance tended to have higher correlations with other work attitude variables (ranging from $-.53$ to $.71, p < .01$), when compared to task performance (ranging from $-.26$ to $.35, p < .01$). As expected, turnover intentions was negatively correlated with all other work attitude variables with correlation coefficients ranging from $-.26$ to $-.73 (p < .01)$.

When the relationships between situational strength, personality and work attitudes were investigated, high levels of clarity and consistency were associated

with high levels of personality (ranging from .09 to .44, $p < .05$) and work attitude variables (ranging from .09 to .50, $p < .05$) while high levels of constraints were associated with low levels of personality (ranging from -.13 to -.21, $p < .01$) and work attitude variables (ranging from -.29 to -.40, $p < .01$). Moreover, high levels of conscientiousness and extraversion were also associated with high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance variables (ranging from .16 to .49, $p < .01$), whereas high levels of these personality variables were associated with low levels of turnover intentions (ranging from -.13 to -.18, $p < .01$) as proposed in the third group of hypotheses.

When the intercorrelations between the study variables and demographic variables were investigated, it was found that increases in age, tenure, and also number of children were associated with an increase in clarity, conscientiousness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (ranging from .16 to .49) and a decrease in constraints, and turnover intentions (ranging from -.16 to -.49). The results also indicated that high levels of education was generally associated with low levels of clarity, constraints, overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, contextual performance, and high levels of turnover intentions.

Table 3

Intercorrelation Matrix of Study Variables and Scale Reliabilities

Variables	# of items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Clarity	3	(.68)									
2. Consistency	2	.15**	(.63)								
3. Constraints	3	-.27**	-.26**	(.62)							
4. Conscientiousness	8	.44**	.13**	-.13**	(.77)						
5. Extraversion	7	.15**	.01	-.21**	.15**	(.74)					
6. Job Satisfaction	3	.33**	.25**	-.39**	.22**	.17**	(.79)				
7. Overall Job Satisfaction (faces)	1	.31**	.22**	-.42**	.17**	.16**	.76**	(-)			
8. Organizational Commitment	8	.32**	.15**	-.38**	.24**	.16**	.73**	.67**	(.94)		
9. Turnover Intentions	3	-.32**	-.27**	.40**	-.18*	-.13**	-.72**	-.73**	-.70**	(.82)	
10. Overall Performance	10	.50**	.18**	-.37**	.46**	.27**	.62**	.56**	.64**	-.48**	(.80)
11. Task Performance	4	.47**	.17**	-.29**	.49**	.20**	.40**	.34**	.35**	-.26**	.82**
12. Contextual Performance	6	.43**	.15**	-.35**	.36**	.26**	.65**	.58**	.71**	-.53**	.93**
13. Gender	-	-.03	-.01	-.07	-.07	-.14**	.06	.05	-.02	-.01	-.03
14. Age	-	.12**	.03	-.12**	.18**	-.04	.15**	.12**	.19**	-.10*	.14**
15. Marital Status	-	-.04	-.01	.02	-.14**	.02	-.06	-.03	-.06	.02	-.05
16. Number of Children	-	.09*	.06	-.02	.19**	.02	.14**	.15**	.17**	-.12**	.15*
17. Education	-	-.12*	.07	-.10*	-.06	.02	-.06	-.12**	-.10*	.10*	-.06
18. Number of Employee	-	-.04	-.03	.12**	.02	.02	-.13**	-.14**	-.15**	.12**	-.10*
19. Organization Tenure	-	.07	.03	.01	.16**	-.01	.11**	.14**	.21**	-.12**	.09*
20. Total Tenure	-	.13**	.03	-.10*	.23**	-.02	.19**	.12**	.23**	-.11**	.20**

Notes: Cronbach alpha coefficients are presented at the diagonal in parenthesis. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 3

Intercorrelation Matrix of Study Variables and Scale Reliabilities (cont'd)

Variables	# of items	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Clarity	3										
2. Consistency	2										
3. Constraints	3										
4. Conscientiousness	8										
5. Extraversion	7										
6. Job Satisfaction	3										
7. Overall Job Satisfaction (faces)	1										
8. Organizational Commitment	8										
9. Turnover Intentions	3										
10. Overall Performance	10										
11. Task Performance	4	(.73)									
12. Contextual Performance	6	.56**	(.70)								
13. Gender	-	-.04	-.01	(-)							
14. Age	-	.13**	.12**	.15**	(-)						
15. Marital Status	-	-.08*	-.02	-.06	-.52**	(-)					
16. Number of Children	-	.12**	.14**	.15**	.67**	-.58**	(-)				
17. Education	-	.01	-.08*	-.04	-.11**	.08*	-.21**	(-)			
18. Number of Employee	-	-.02	-.13**	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	.08	(-)		
19. Organization Tenure	-	.06	.10*	.07	.61**	-.35**	.53**	-.17**	.12**	(-)	
20. Total Tenure	-	.19**	.18**	.18**	.88**	-.55**	.66**	-.06	.01	.63**	(-)

Notes: Cronbach alpha coefficients are presented at the diagonal in parenthesis. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

3.2.4. Prior to hypotheses testing

Prior to hypotheses testing, chi square test for independence was conducted to investigate demographic differences across three telecommuting intensity groups in detail. There were no significant differences across telecommuting intensity groups on gender ($X^2(2) = .658$, ns), age ($X^2(8) = 13.013$, ns), marital status ($X^2(2) = 4.941$, ns), number of children ($X^2(8) = 14.933$, ns), and organizational tenure ($X^2(8) = 3.950$, ns). The only significant difference across these groups was found for education ($X^2(10) = 26.144$, $p < .05$). Table 4 presented the percentages of distributions across these variables for each telecommuting intensity group.

Table 4

Distributions Across Telecommuting Intensity Groups on Demographic Variables

Variable	Category	Telecommuting Intensity Groups		
		No Telecommut. %	Low Telecommut. %	High Telecommut. %
Gender	Female	45.7	47.6	41.5
	Male	54.3	52.4	58.5
Age	20-29	53.8	46.6	41.5
	30-39	31.8	31.7	30.2
	40-49	9.5	14.4	15.1
	50-59	4.2	6.3	13.2
	60-thru	0.8	1	0
Marital Status	Married	40.4	46.6	54.7
	Single	59.6	53.4	45.3
Number of Children	0	72.4	69.2	60.4
	1	17.5	18.3	20.8
	2	9.2	10.1	11.3
	3	0.6	2.4	5.7
	4	0.3	0	1.9
Education	Primary school	0.3	0	0
	Elementary school	0	0	1.9
	High school	5.8	1.4	5.7
	University	55.7	50.5	47.2
	Masters degree	34.8	39.9	41.5
	Doctorate degree	3.3	8.2	3.8
Organization Tenure	0-5	74.9	74.5	71.7
	5.5-10	13.6	13.5	13.2
	10.5-20	8.6	9.1	11.3
	20.5-30	2.2	2.9	1.9
	30.5-thru	0.6	0	1.9

3.3. Hypotheses Testing

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the situational strength, personality and work attitudes differences for flexible work arrangements (home-based context) and traditional work arrangements (office-based context). In this section, firstly, hypotheses about situational strength, and secondly, hypotheses about personality in relation to the work contexts were tested. Next, hypotheses about the relationship between work contexts, personality factors and work attitude variables were examined. Finally, the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitude variables were examined. The data were analyzed by multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA), one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs), correlation analysis, and also hierarchical multiple regression analysis techniques by using SPSS 15.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

3.3.1. Situational strength of telecommuting intensity groups

It was hypothesized that situational strength will be lower for home-based work contexts than office-based work contexts. It was expected that clarity (hypothesis 1a), consistency (hypothesis 1b), and constraints (hypothesis 1c) would be lower for home-based work contexts than office-based work contexts.

In strong situations, the clarity and consistency of the cues are high and there are more constraints while in weak situations the clarity and consistency of the cues are low and there are fewer constraints. To test this hypothesis, participants were divided into three groups according to telecommuting intensity. It was hypothesized that situational strength, operationalized as clarity, consistency, and constraints would be lower for home-based situations, more specifically the low and high telecommuting groups, than office-based work contexts, that is the no-telecommuting group. One-way MANOVA was conducted with clarity,

consistency, and constraints as the dependent variables. The results of MANOVA and ANOVA analyses are presented in Table 5 and 6.

Initially, because of the unequal sample sizes between telecommuting intensity groups, population variance-covariance between dependent variables was tested by Box M test and Levene's test. Since the result of Box M test was not significant and homogeneity of the variance assumption was met (for clarity $F(2, 617) = 1.480, p = .228$, for consistency $F(2, 617) = 2.740, p = .065$ and for constraints $F(2, 617) = 0.316, p = .729$), Wilk's lambda scores were used. One-way MANOVA analyses indicated a significant multivariate effect for telecommuting intensity (for the combined dependent variables $F(6, 1230) = 0.937, p < .001$; for clarity $F(2, 617) = 3.409, p < .05$; for consistency $F(2, 617) = 9.271, p < .001$ and for constraints $F(2, 617) = 8.664, p < .001$). (See Table 5 for the results).

Table 5

The Results of One-Way MANOVA Between Telecommuting Intensity Groups on the Ratings of Situational Strength Variables

Effect	DV	Wilk's lambda	Multivariate			
			df ₁	df ₂	F	p
Telecommuting Intensity		0.937	6	1230	6.835	.000***
	Clarity		2	617	3.409	.034*
	Consistency		2	617	9.271	.000***
	Constraints		2	617	8.664	.000***

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$,

According to the ANOVA results, there was a significant difference on clarity ratings at the $p < .05$ level for the three telecommuting groups, [$F(2, 617) = 3.41, p = .034$]. However, the eta square revealed a small effect size ($\eta^2 = .01$) according to guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988). Prior to post hoc comparisons, homogeneity of variance assumption was tested in order to deal

with controversies which can be caused by unequal sample size of the groups. According to the results of Levene's Test, the homogeneity of variance assumption was met, and since the population variances the groups were derived from were equal, Tukey HSD test was conducted for post-hoc comparisons. The results of this test indicated that the high telecommuting group ($M = 4.35$, $SD = .59$) was significantly different than both the no-telecommuting ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .63$) and the low-telecommuting group ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .68$) while the no-telecommuting and low-telecommuting groups were not significantly different from each other. These results suggested that employees working three or more days at home had more clarity in their jobs than both employees working one or two days at home, and employees working only at office. Specifically, when telecommuting intensity was high, the clarity of the jobs also increased as compared to no-telecommuting and low-telecommuting intensity conditions. Therefore, hypothesis 1(a) was not supported since the results were in the opposite direction with the expected one.

There was also a significant difference on consistency ratings for the three telecommuting groups, [$F (2, 617) = 10.07, p < .001$]. The results of Levene's Test indicated that homogeneity of variance assumption was violated. Hence, Games-Howell Test was preferred for post-hoc comparisons. These results showed that the high-telecommuting group ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.00$) was significantly different than both the no-telecommuting ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.08$) and the low-telecommuting group ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 1.19$) while the no-telecommuting group was also significantly different than the low-telecommuting group. That is, the employees working three or more days at home had more consistent cues about the desired work behaviors than both employees working one or two days at home, and employees working only at the offices. Besides, the no-telecommuting group had more consistent cues than employees working one or two days at home. Specifically, when telecommuting intensity was high, the consistency of the jobs also increased as compared to no-telecommuting and low-telecommuting intensity conditions. Consistency was lowest for the low-intensity

telecommuters. Therefore, hypothesis 1(b) could be accepted as partially supported, since there was a significant difference between low-telecommuting and no-telecommuting conditions in the expected direction, though the differences between high-telecommuting group and the others were in the opposite direction.

Finally, there was a significant difference on constraint ratings for the three telecommuting groups, [$F(2, 617) = 8.66, p < .001$]. The eta squared statistic revealed a small to medium effect size ($\eta^2 = .03$). The results of Tukey HSD Test demonstrated that the no-telecommuting group ($M = 2.47, SD = .84$) was significantly different than both the low-telecommuting ($M = 2.32, SD = .83$) and the high-telecommuting group ($M = 1.99, SD = .83$) while the low-telecommuting group was also significantly different than the high-telecommuting group. These results suggested that employees working only at offices had more constraints in their jobs than both low and high-telecommuting employees and that, the low-telecommuting group had more constraints than employees working three or more days at home. Specifically, when telecommuting intensity increased, the constraints in the job decreased. That is to say, as the intensity of telecommuting increased the autonomy employees had in their jobs also increased. Therefore, hypothesis 1(c) was supported since the results were as expected. (See Table 6 for the results)

Table 6

The Results of One-Way ANOVA Between Telecommuting Intensity Groups on the Ratings of Situational Strength Variables

DVs	IV = Telecommuting Intensity						ANOVA			Post-Hoc Comparisons	
	0		1		2		<i>df</i> between	<i>df</i> within	<i>F</i>	η^2	
	No-telecommuting (n = 359)	Mean	Low-telecommuting (n = 208)	Mean	SD	High-telecommuting (n = 53)	Mean	SD			Pair
1. Clarity	4.13	.63	4.10	.68		4.35	.59		2 617 3.409*	.01	Tukey HSD
									0 - 1 .854		
									0 < 2* .046		
									1 < 2* .027		
2. Consistency	3.40	1.08	3.11	1.19		3.82	1.00		2 617 10.069***	.03	Games-Howell
									0 > 1** .010		
									0 < 2* .016		
									1 < 2***.000		
3. Constraints	2.48	.84	2.32	.83		1.99	.83		2 617 8.664***	.03	Tukey HSD
									0 > 1 .073		
									0 > 2***.000		
									1 > 2* .032		

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.3.2. Personality and work contexts

The literature review showed personality profiles of the employees differ according to their working context. Significant differences between personality profiles of the employees working at home and employees working at offices were expected. Conscientiousness and extraversion were the focus of the present study as they were the most relevant personality dimensions to telecommuting. It was expected that when the telecommuting intensity of the employees increased, their conscientiousness levels would increase and their extraversion levels would decrease. More specifically, the employees in the high and low telecommuting groups would be higher on conscientiousness and lower on extraversion than the employees working only at offices. One-way between subjects ANOVAs was conducted on the conscientiousness and extraversion ratings in order to see whether these three groups were significantly different from each other. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 7.

For conscientiousness, the results showed that there was no significant difference [$F(2, 617) = 1.44, ns$]. The results suggested that the conscientiousness levels of the participants were similar across telecommuting intensity groups. That is, employees working at home did not have higher conscientiousness levels than the employees working at office. Thus, hypothesis 2(a) could not be supported.

For extraversion, there was a significant difference on extraversion ratings at the $p < .01$ level for three telecommuting groups. However, the eta squared statistics ($\eta^2 = .02$) revealed small effect size according to guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988). The results of Tukey HSD test indicated that high telecommuting group ($M = 3.77, SD = .59$) was significantly different than both no-telecommuting ($M = 3.46, SD = .68$) and low-telecommuting group ($M = 3.46, SD = .668$). Nevertheless, there was no significant difference between the no-telecommuting and the low-telecommuting groups. These results suggested that employees working three or more days at home were more extraverted than both employees working one or two days at home, and

employees working only at office. Therefore, hypothesis 2(b) was not supported since the results were in the opposite direction with the expected one.

Table 7

The Results of One-Way ANOVA Between Telecommuting Intensity Groups on the Ratings of Personality Variables

DVs	IV = Telecommuting Intensity						ANOVA			Post-Hoc Comparisons		
	0		1		2		<i>df</i> between	<i>df</i> within	<i>F</i>	η^2	Pair	<i>p</i>
	No-telecommuting (n = 359)		Low-telecommuting (n = 208)		High-telecommuting (n = 53)							
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD						
1. Conscientiousness	3.84	.62	3.92	.59	3.91	.59	2	617	1.442	.00		
2. Extraversion	3.46	.68	3.46	.66	3.77	.59	2	617	5.338**	.02	Tukey HSD	
											0 - 1	.989
											0 < 2**	.005
											1 < 2**	.006

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$,

3.3.3. The effect of telecommuting intensity on work attitudes and performance

The third hypothesis which proposed that employees working at home-based work contexts are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees working at offices, was tested with one-way ANOVA. The results revealed that when telecommuting intensity increased, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels increased and turnover intentions decreased. (See Table 8 for the results).

Table 8

The Results of One-Way ANOVA Between Telecommuting Intensity and Work Attitudes

DVs	IV = Telecommuting Intensity			<i>F(2,617)</i>
	No Telecommut. (n = 359)	Low Telecommut. (n = 208)	High Telecommut. (n = 53)	
1. Job Satisfaction	3.18 ^a	3.24 ^a	3.45 ^a	1.996
2. Overall Job Satisfaction	3.42 ^a	3.40 ^a	3.87 ^b	5.066**
3. Organizational Commitment	3.24 ^a	3.49 ^b	3.62 ^b	5.751**
4. Turnover Intentions	2.55 ^a	2.50 ^{a,b}	2.16 ^b	2.665**
5. Task Performance	4.01 ^a	4.06 ^a	4.32 ^b	6.246**
6. Contextual Performance	3.74 ^a	3.80 ^a	4.00 ^b	4.304**
7. Overall Performance	3.85 ^a	3.90 ^a	4.13 ^b	6.322**

Notes: Within each row, means with different subscripts differ at the .05 level of significance according to Tukey HSD and Games-Howell Tests. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

As stated in the introduction part, personality types of the employees had an influence on various work attitudes and their performance levels as well. In line with

the literature review, the hypotheses that those with higher levels of conscientiousness and extraversion would be more likely to have higher levels of job attitudes, and performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions was proposed.

Table 3 demonstrated the intercorrelations between all these variables, and the correlations pointed out high levels of personality variables were associated with high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and low levels of turnover intentions. When conscientiousness of the employees increased, their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels increased (correlation coefficient scores ranging from .17 to .49, $p < .01$) and turnover intentions decreased ($r = -.18, p < .01$). Thus, hypothesis 4(a) was supported. When extraversion levels of the employees increased, their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels increased (correlation coefficient scores ranging from .16 to .27, $p < .01$) and turnover intentions decreased ($r = -.13, p < .01$). Thus, hypothesis 4(b) was also supported.

3.3.4. The moderating effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitudes

For testing the final hypothesis concerning the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitudes, moderated regression analyses were conducted based on the procedures specified by Aiken and West (1991). The moderator variable had two levels for the moderation hypotheses, as home-based work context and office-based work context. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to examine whether working at home or at office moderated the relationship between the personality variables of conscientiousness and extraversion, and the work attitude variables of job satisfaction, overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions and performance. For each of these work attitudes variables, each of personality

variables, namely conscientiousness and extraversion and the work context served as independent variables. Separate hierarchical regression analyses were carried out, yielding 14 hierarchical multiple regression analyses in total.

The presumed moderator, that is the work context, was categorized as a two-level variable in these analyses; namely working at office and working at home. Working at office group consisted of the participants who reported that they were working only at office ($N = 359$), while working at home group consisted of the participants who reported that they were working at least one day a week at home ($N = 261$).

Prior to testing, independent variables conscientiousness and extraversion were centered by subtracting their mean values for each variable in order to control for possible multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). Then, interaction terms were created with the use of the centered variables. As a result, two interaction terms were created by multiplying the work context variable with the centered personality variables, separately for conscientiousness and extraversion. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted, where the centered values of personality variables and work context variable were entered in the first step, and their interaction term was entered in the second step.

3.3.3.1. Testing hypothesis about the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between conscientiousness and work attitudes

In this section, Hypothesis 5(a) – *Work context will moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and work attitudes* would be tested. Totally seven hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for each work attitude variables, namely, job satisfaction, overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, task performance, contextual performance, and overall performance.

Firstly, job satisfaction (3-item) was taken as the dependent variable and a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for conscientiousness. The results revealed that conscientiousness and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction ($R^2 = .05$, $F(2, 617) = 15.80$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .001$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of conscientiousness ($\beta = .215$, $p < .001$) on job satisfaction was significant, but the effects of work context and also their interaction term on job satisfaction were not significant ($\beta = .039$, ns; $\beta = -.049$, ns, respectively). As the results indicated work context does not moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction. The results were similar for overall job satisfaction variable (faces), too. Therefore, Hypothesis 5(a) did not find support for job satisfaction.

The next hierarchical regression was carried out for organizational commitment and the results revealed that conscientiousness and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of organizational commitment ($R^2 = .07$, $F(2, 617) = 24.06$, $p < .001$), and their interaction term entered in the second step contributed significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .011$, $p < .01$). Examination of the beta weights indicated that the effects of conscientiousness ($\beta = .235$, $p < .001$), work context ($\beta = .115$, $p < .01$) and their interaction term ($\beta = -.134$, $p < .01$) on organizational commitment were significant. The proportion of variance accounted for was 7% by conscientiousness and work context, and was 1% by interaction term. Plotting this interaction showed that the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment varied for different work contexts. The scores which were one standard deviation below the mean conscientiousness score represented low conscientiousness, whereas the scores one standard deviation above the mean conscientiousness score represented high conscientiousness. Figure 1

clearly indicated that high conscientious employees working at offices had the highest level of organizational commitment while low conscientious employees working at offices had the lowest level of organizational commitment. The simple slope between conscientiousness and organizational commitment for employees working at offices ($t(616) = 6.250, p <.001$) and working at home ($t(616) = 2.218, p <.05$) were significant. The beta weights for conscientiousness was .319, for work context was .118 and for their interaction term was -.134. That is, high conscientious employees working both at offices and at home tended to have higher levels of organizational commitment than low conscientious employees, nevertheless the effect was stronger for employees working at the offices. Finally it can be said that moderation effect of work context on the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment was found, but it was stronger for office-based work context. Thus, Hypothesis 5(a) was not supported for organizational commitment, either (See Table 9 for the results).

Table 9

Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Conscientiousness, Work Context, and Organizational Commitment

Variables	R ²	R ² Change	F Change	β
Step 1	.072	.072	24.06***	
Conscientiousness				.235***
Work Context				.115**
Step 2	.083	.011	7.22**	
Cons.*Work Context				-.134**

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, Cons: Conscientiousness.

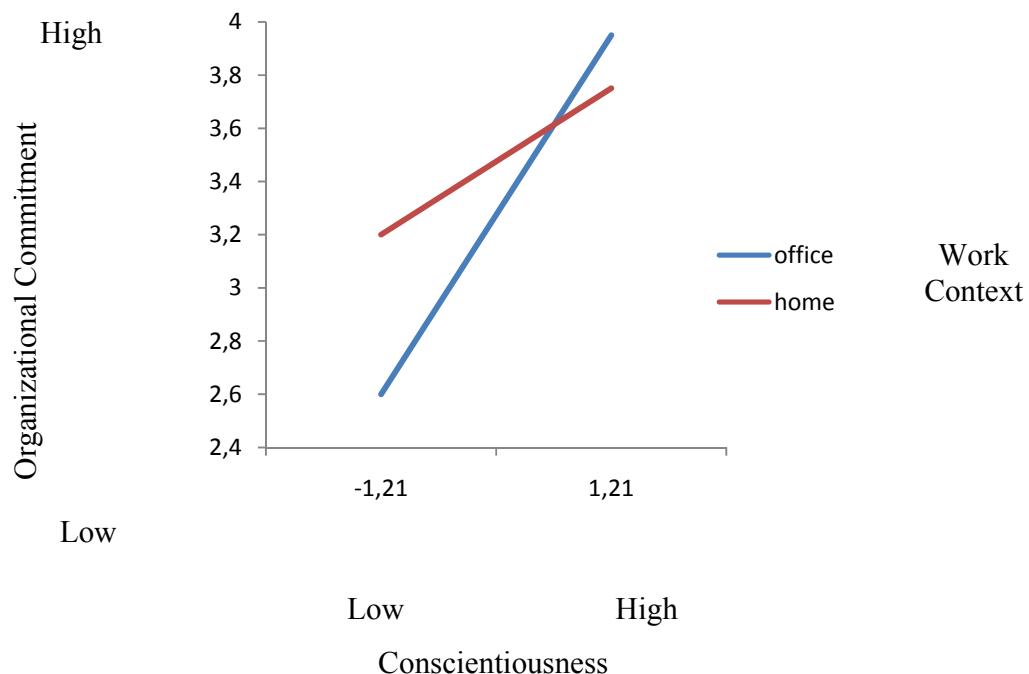


Figure 1. The interaction between conscientiousness and work context on organizational commitment

Next, turnover intentions was taken as the dependent variable and the results revealed that conscientiousness and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of turnover intentions ($R^2 = .03, F(2, 617) = 10.86, p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00, ns$). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of conscientiousness ($\beta = -.178, p < .001$) on turnover intentions was significant, but the effects of work context and also their interaction term on turnover intentions were not significant ($\beta = -.04, ns; \beta = .012, ns$, respectively). Since work context did not moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and turnover intentions, Hypothesis 5(a) cannot be supported for turnover intentions, either.

Then, task performance was taken as the dependent variable and the results revealed that conscientiousness and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of task performance ($R^2 = .25$, $F(2, 617) = 100.37$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of conscientiousness ($\beta = .489$, $p < .001$) on task performance was significant, but the effects of work context and also their interaction term on task performance were not significant ($\beta = .05$, ns; $\beta = .03$, ns, respectively). According to these results, work context did not moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and task performance. Hence, Hypothesis 5(a) cannot be supported for task performance, too.

When contextual performance was taken as the dependent variable, the results indicated that conscientiousness and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of contextual performance ($R^2 = .13$, $F(2, 617) = 45.82$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of conscientiousness ($\beta = .351$, $p < .001$) on contextual performance was significant, but the effects of work context and also their interaction term on contextual performance were not significant ($\beta = .06$, ns; $\beta = -.03$, ns, respectively). The proportion of variance accounted by conscientiousness and work context was 12% for contextual performance, but their interaction term did not explain any variance in the regression equation. The results indicated that work context did not moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and contextual performance. Thus, Hypothesis 5(a) cannot be supported for contextual performance, either.

Finally overall performance was taken as the dependent variable, and the results showed that conscientiousness and work context entered in the first step, contributed

significantly to the prediction of overall performance ($R^2 = .21$, $F(2, 617) = 84.06$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00$, ns). Examination of the beta weights yielded that the effect of conscientiousness ($\beta = .454$, $p < .001$) on overall performance was significant, but the effects of work context and their interaction term on overall performance were not significant ($\beta = .062$, ns ; $\beta = -.006$, ns respectively). The proportion of variance accounted by conscientiousness and work context was 21% for overall performance, but their interaction term did not explain any variance in the regression equation. The results indicated that work context did not moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and overall performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 5(a) cannot be supported for overall performance, too.

Findings of all these hierarchical multiple regression analyses revealed that there was a moderation effect of work context only for the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment. More specifically, high conscientious employees working at office were more committed to their organizations than high conscientious employees working at home, and also low conscientious employees working at home.

3.3.3.2. Testing hypothesis about the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between extraversion and work attitudes

In this section, Hypothesis 5(b) – *Work context will moderate the relationship between extraversion and work attitudes* would be tested. Another seven hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for each work attitude variable, namely, job satisfaction, overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, task performance, contextual performance, and overall performance.

Firstly, job satisfaction (3-item) was taken as the dependent variable and a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for extraversion. According to results, extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction ($R^2 = .03$, $F(2, 617) = 10.39$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .004$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of extraversion ($\beta = .172$, $p < .001$) on job satisfaction was significant, but the effects of work context and also their interaction term on job satisfaction were not significant ($\beta = .047$, ns; $\beta = .084$, ns, respectively). Since work context did not moderate the relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction, Hypothesis 5(b) did not find support for job satisfaction.

Then, overall job satisfaction (faces) was taken as the dependent variable. The results showed that extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of overall job satisfaction ($R^2 = .03$, $F(2, 617) = 8.31$, $p < .001$), and their interaction term entered in the second step contributed significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .006$, $F_{inc}(1, 616) = 3.92$, $p < .05$). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effects of extraversion and their interaction terms on overall job satisfaction were significant ($\beta = .158$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .102$, $p < .05$, respectively), but the effect of work context on overall job satisfaction was not significant ($\beta = .03$, ns). The proportion of variance accounted by extraversion and work context was 3% for overall job satisfaction, by their interaction term was only 1%. Plotting of this interaction showed that the relationship between extraversion and overall job satisfaction varied for different work contexts. The scores which were one standard deviation above the mean extraversion score represented high extraversion, whereas the scores one standard deviation below the mean extraversion score represented low extraversion. Figure 2 clearly indicated that highly extraverted employees working at home had the highest

level of overall job satisfaction while low extraverted employees working at home had the lowest level of overall job satisfaction.

The simple slope between extraversion and overall job satisfaction for employees working at home was significant ($t(616) = 4.185, p <.001$), whereas it was not significant for employees working at the offices ($t(616) = 1.464, ns$). The beta weights for extraversion was .140, for work context was .030, and for interaction term was .102. That is, high extraverted employees working at home tended to have higher levels of overall job satisfaction than low extraverted employees working at home; nevertheless the effect was in the opposite direction which was similar to results of hypothesis 2(b). Finally, it can be said that moderation effect of work context on the relationship between extraversion and overall job satisfaction was found. Although the effect was stronger for home-based work context, it was in the opposite direction. Thus, Hypothesis 5(b) was not supported for overall job satisfaction, either (See Table 10 for the results).

Table 10

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Extraversion, Work Context, and Overall Job Satisfaction

Variables	R ²	R ² Change	F Change	β
Step 1	.026	.026	8.31***	
Extraversion				.158***
Work Context				.031
Step 2	.032	.006	3.92*	
Ext.*Work Context				.102*

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

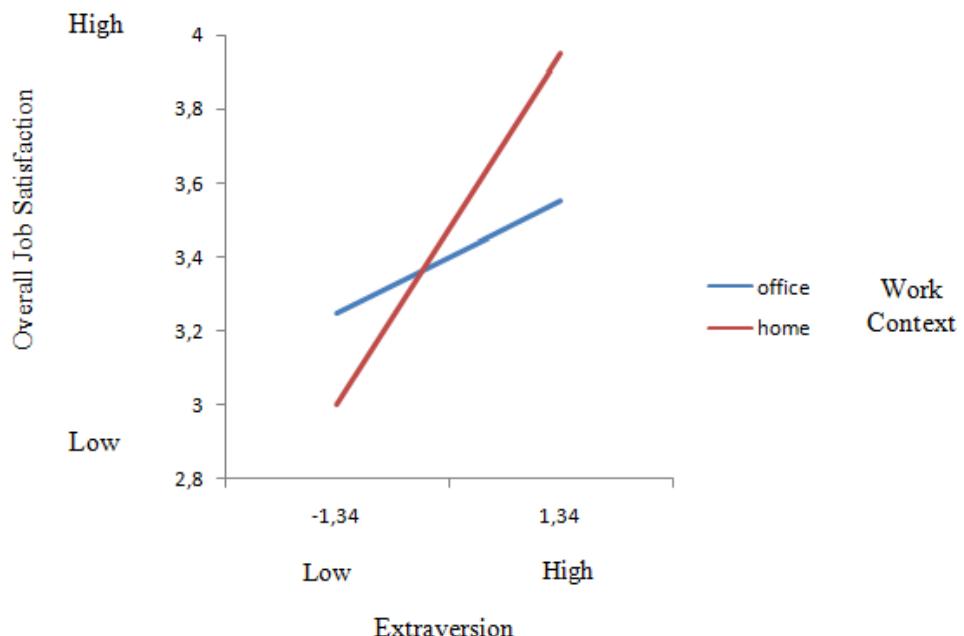


Figure 2. The interaction between extraversion and work context on overall job satisfaction

The next hierarchical regression was carried out for organizational commitment and the results revealed that extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of organizational commitment ($R^2 = .04$, $F(2, 617) = 13.59$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 \text{ Change} = .001$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effects of extraversion and work context on organizational commitment were significant ($\beta = .158$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .125$, $p < .01$, respectively), but their interaction term ($\beta = .045$, ns) on organizational commitment was not significant. The proportion of variance accounted for organizational commitment was 4% by extraversion and work context, and was 1% by interaction term. As the results indicated that work context did not moderate the

relationship between extraversion and organizational commitment. Hence, Hypothesis 5(b) cannot be supported for organizational commitment.

Next, turnover intentions was taken as the dependent variable and the results revealed that extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of turnover intentions ($R^2 = .02$, $F(2, 617) = 5.52$, $p < .01$), and their interaction term entered in the second step contributed significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .009$, $F_{inc}(1, 616) = 5.92$, $p < .05$). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of extraversion and their interaction term on turnover intentions were significant ($\beta = -.123$, $p < .01$; $\beta = -.126$, $p < .05$, respectively), but the effect of work context on turnover intentions was not significant ($\beta = -.044$, ns). The proportion of variance accounted for turnover intentions was 2% by extraversion and work context, and was 1% by interaction term. Plotting of this interaction showed that the relationship between extraversion and turnover intentions varied for different work contexts. Figure 3 clearly indicated that low extraverted employees working at home had the highest level of turnover intentions while high extraverted employees working at home had the lowest level of turnover intentions. The simple slope between extraversion and turnover intentions for employees working at home was significant ($t(616) = -3.904$, $p < .001$), whereas it was not significant for employees working at the offices ($t(616) = -.522$, ns). The beta weights for extraversion was $-.043$, for work context was $-.042$, and for interaction term was $-.126$. That is, low extraverted employees working at home tended to have higher turnover intentions than high extraverted employees working at home; nevertheless the effect was in the opposite direction which was similar to results of hypothesis 2(b). Finally it can be said that moderation effect of work context on the relationship between extraversion and turnover intentions was found. Although the effect was stronger for home-based work context, it was in the opposite direction. Hence, hypothesis 5(b) was supported for turnover intentions, either. (See Table 11 for the results).

Table 11

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Extraversion, Work Context, and Turnover Intentions

Variables	R ²	R ² Change	F Change	β
Step 1	.018	.018	5.52**	
Extraversion				-.123**
Work Context				-.044
Step 2	.027	.009	5.92*	
Ext.*Work Context				-.126*

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

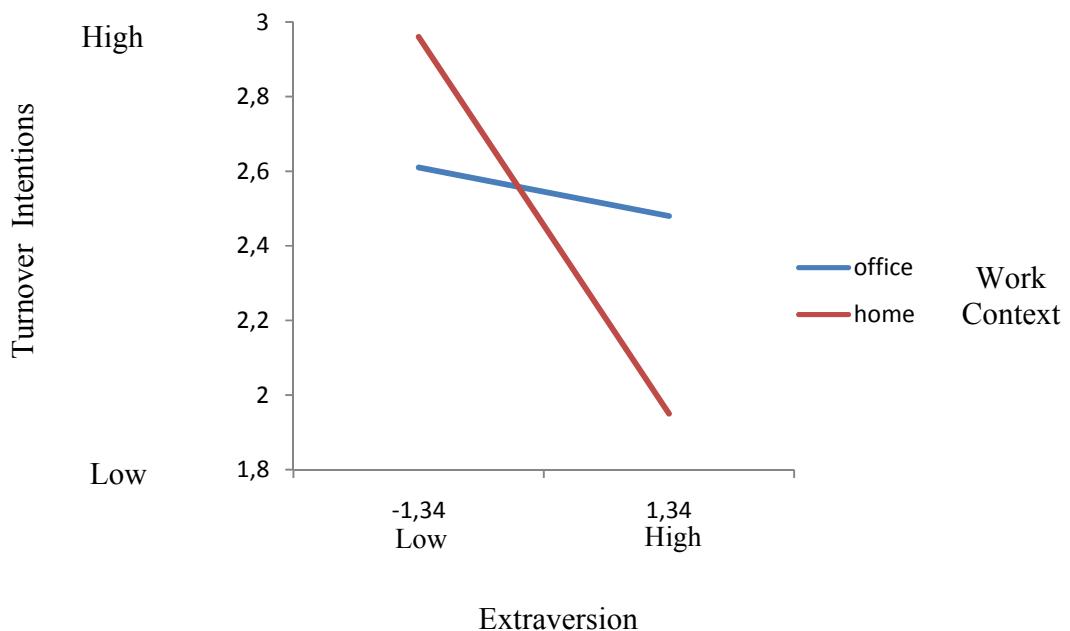


Figure 3. The interaction between extraversion and work context on turnover intentions

Then, task performance was taken as the dependent variable and the results revealed that extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of task performance ($R^2 = .04$, $F (2, 617) = 14.30$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effects of extraversion and work context on task performance were significant ($\beta = .193$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .076$, $p < .05$, respectively), but the effect of their interaction term on task performance was not significant ($\beta = .02$, ns). The proportion of variance accounted by extraversion and work context was 4% for task performance, but their interaction term did not explain any variance in the regression equation. As the results suggested that work context did not moderate the relationship between extraversion and task performance, and hypothesis 5(b) was not supported for task performance.

When contextual performance was taken as the dependent variable, the results indicated that extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of contextual performance ($R^2 = .07$, $F (2, 617) = 24.47$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effect of extraversion ($\beta = .259$, $p < .001$) on contextual performance was significant, but the effects of work contexts and the interaction term on contextual performance were not significant ($\beta = .071$, ns, $\beta = .024$, ns, respectively). The proportion of variance accounted by extraversion and work context was 7% for contextual performance, but their interaction term did not explain any variance in the regression equation. According to these results, work context did not moderate the relationship between extraversion and contextual performance. Thus, Hypothesis 5(b) was not supported for contextual performance, either.

Finally overall performance was taken as the dependent variable, and the results indicated that extraversion and work context entered in the first step, contributed significantly to the prediction of overall performance ($R^2 = .08$, $F(2, 617) = 25.80$, $p < .001$), but their interaction term entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation ($R^2 Change = .00$, ns). Examination of the beta weights showed that the effects of extraversion and work context on overall performance were significant ($\beta = .262$, $p < .001$, $\beta = .082$, $p < .05$, respectively), but the effect their interaction term on overall performance was not significant ($\beta = .024$, ns). The proportion of variance accounted by extraversion and work context was 8% for overall performance, but their interaction term did not explain any variance in the regression equation. As work context did not moderate the relationship between extraversion and overall performance, hypothesis 5(b) was not supported for overall performance, either.

In conclusion, it can be said that Hypothesis 5(b) – ‘*Work context will moderate the relationship between extraversion and work attitude variables*’ was partially supported. Findings of all these hierarchical multiple regression analyses revealed that there was moderation effect of work context on the relationship between extraversion and overall job satisfaction and turnover intentions. More specifically, high extraverted employees working at home had higher levels of overall job satisfaction than low extraverted employees working at home. Besides, low extraverted employees working at home had higher turnover intentions than high extraverted employees working at home.

3.4. Exploratory Analyses

To find a plausible explanation for the found moderation effects, exploratory analyses were conducted, too. The possible effects of situational strength was investigated, so that the hierarchical regression analyses were conducted by

controlling the clarity, consistency, and constraints dimension of situational strength which was significantly different for telecommuting intensity groups in the present study. The results revealed that the interaction term of conscientiousness and work contexts were still significant for organizational commitment after controlling the situational strength. Therefore, this moderation effect could not be explained by the effects of situational strength differences between the work contexts. However, the results revealed that the interaction term of extraversion and work contexts become marginally significant for overall job satisfaction after controlling the situational strength variables ($t(615) = 1.791, p = .074$). Thus, this moderation effect could be explained by the effects of situational strength differences to some extent. The results also revealed that the interaction term of extraversion and work contexts were still significant for turnover intentions after controlling clarity, consistency, and constraints. Hence, this moderation effect could not be explained by the effects of situational strength differences, either.

3.5. Summary

A summary of the results of the hypotheses testing is given in Table 12. It can be said that Hypothesis 1 was partially supported because the results were different for three sub-hypotheses. The hypothesis for clarity was not supported as the result was in the opposite direction with the expected one. Clarity was higher for high telecommuting intensity than low and no telecommuting intensity groups. That is, clarity was not lower for home-based work context than office-based work context. The results for consistency hypothesis were controversial because consistency was higher for high telecommuting intensity than low and no telecommuting groups, but at the same time, consistency was lower for low-telecommuting group than no-telecommuting group. In other words, there was a significant difference between low and no telecommuting groups in the expected direction, but the differences between high-telecommuting group and the others were in the opposite direction. Thus, there

was a partial support for consistency hypothesis. Hypothesis 1 (c) was supported since the results were in the expected direction, that is, constraints were lower for home-based work context than office based work context.

Hypotheses 2 (a) and (b) were not supported as employees working at home did not have higher conscientiousness levels than employees working at office and also they were more extraverted than employees working at office. Hypotheses 3 (a) and (b) were supported since job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels increase and turnover intentions decrease when telecommuting intensity increase. Moreover, hypotheses 4 (a) and (b) were supported since job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels increase and turnover intentions decrease when conscientiousness and extraversion levels of employees increase.

Hypotheses 5 (a) and (b) were not supported although work context could moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and organizational commitment, and also the relationships between extraversion and overall job satisfaction and turnover intentions. More specifically, high conscientious employees working at office had higher levels of organizational commitment than low conscientious employees working at office, and high conscientious employees working at home had also higher organizational commitment levels than low conscientious employees working at home. However, since the moderation effect was stronger for office-based work context than home-based wok context which was the opposite of the expected, this hypothesis could not be supported. Moreover, high extraverted employees working at home had higher levels of overall job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover intentions than low extraverted employees working at home. Although, these found moderation effects were stronger for home-based work contexts as expected, the directions of the relationships were in the opposite direction. Thus, these hypotheses could not be supported, either. The relationships between these personality variables

and other work attitude variables did not differ for home or office-based work context.

Table 12

Overview of the Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Description		Result
H₁	Situational strength of home-based work context will be weaker than situational strength of office-based work context.		Partially supported
	a	Clarity will be lower for home-based work context than office-based work context.	Not supported
	b	Consistency will be lower for home-based work context than office-based work context.	Partially supported
	c	Constraints will be lower for home-based work context than office-based work context.	Supported
H₂	a	Employees working at home are more likely to be high on conscientiousness when compared to employees working at office.	Not supported
	b	Employees working at home are more likely to be less extraverted when compared to employees working at office.	Not supported
H₃	Employees working at home-based work context, are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees working at office-based work context.		Supported
H₄	a	Employees who are more conscientious, are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees who are less conscientious.	Supported
	b	Employees who are more extraverted, are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions than employees who are less extraverted	Supported

Table 12

Overview of the Hypotheses Testing (cont'd)

Hypothesis		Description	Result
H₅	a	Work context will moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and work attitudes.	Not supported
	b	Work context will moderate the relationship between extraversion and work attitudes.	Not supported

CHAPTER 4

4. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The evaluation of the study findings are provided in this chapter. After interpreting the results in detail, the strengths and limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, the chapter and the dissertation end with suggestions for future research.

4.1. Evaluation of the Findings

The aim of the present study was to examine the differences between the Turkish employees working at home and at the offices in terms of personality, work attitudes and performance variables in detail. Totally 620 employees working in various public and private organizations throughout the different cities of Turkey participated in this study via filling the web-based surveys. Their responses were analyzed to investigate the situational strength differences across different work contexts, differences in personality profiles of telecommuters and traditional workers, the effects of personality and work contexts on various work attitude variables. To investigate situational strength differences between home-based and office-based work contexts, job characteristics of these two work arrangements were compared. More specifically, clarity and consistency of the situational cues regarding work-related behaviors, and the existence of situational constraints were examined to see whether home-based work contexts are situationally weaker than office-based work contexts. Moreover, conscientiousness and extraversion were investigated in relation to work arrangement preferences. The relationship between these personality factors and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and

performance of the employees were also inspected together with the hypothesized moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitudes.

4.1.1. Evaluation of the findings on situational strength differences

Situational strength which is determined according to the existence of implicit and explicit cues in the work context regarding the desirability of work-related behaviors, could be also different for home-based work contexts and office-based work contexts (Meyer, & Dalal, 2009; Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010). Since including flexible working schedules and reducing the physical and supervisory constraints weaken situational strength, it was expected that situational strength of home-based work contexts would be lower than office-based work context. This hypothesis was investigated for three dimensions of situational strength, namely, clarity, consistency, and constraints (Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010). For a detailed examination, participants were divided into three groups according to their working schedules; the no-telecommuting group of employees working only at offices, the low-telecommuting group of employees working one or two days at home, and the high-telecommuting group of employees working three or more days at home.

The results indicated that clarity was higher for the high-telecommuting group than the low and no-telecommuting groups which were in the opposite direction with the proposed hypothesis. Thus, hypothesis 1 was not supported for the clarity dimension of situational strength. Meyer et al. (2010) stated that clarity refers to availability and easiness of understanding the situational cues about work-related behaviors. Since there is a lack of supervisory support and there are also problems in planning the duties of employees working in remote places, it was expected that cues regarding the desirability of work behaviors would be less clear for the telecommuting groups than the no-telecommuting group. However, the results were just the opposite.

Although mean scores of the three groups were all high for clarity ($M = 4.35$; $M = 4.10$; $M = 4.13$, respectively for high, low and no telecommuting groups), mean score for the high telecommuting group was significantly higher than the other two groups, which could be due to the circumspection of the Turkish managers about telecommuting practices. Since the disadvantages of telecommuting were stated by the researchers as well as its advantages (Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Gajendron, & Harrison, 2007; Golden, Veiga, & Dino, 2008; Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999; Lundberg, & Lindfors, 2002), the managers might behave in a vigilant manner across such flexible working arrangements. The management policies about working out of office would be based on taking precautions by providing clear, available and understandable cues regarding desired work behaviors and so not giving rise to any role ambiguity for telecommuters. Moreover, it could be also due to that managers might give permission to employees only with clear roles and tasks to benefit from telecommuting practices.

It was expected that situational cues regarding desirability of work behaviors would be less consistent for telecommuters due to physical and supervisory isolation as compared to the traditional office context in which cues prevail. There was partial support for the consistency dimension of hypothesis 1, as consistency was lower for the low-telecommuting group than the no-telecommuting group, but at the same time, it was higher for the high-telecommuting group than the low and no-telecommuting groups ($M = 3.82$; $M = 3.11$; $M = 3.40$, respectively for high, low and no telecommuting groups). Consistency refers to the similarity of cues about desired work behaviors and a lack of it would result in role conflict (Meyer et al., 2010). The reason for the low-telecommuting group having the least consistent cues might be related to problems about the unsteady structure of this work arrangement as the employees in this group were working one or two days at home and other days at office. At the same time, the results indicated that the high-telecommuting group had the most consistent cues when compared to the other two groups. That may again be

due to the vigilant attitudes of managers towards telecommuting. Although it was difficult to make a meaningful interpretation of these controversial results, it is worth noting that mean scores of consistency were derived from a two-item scale.

With regard to the other dimension of the situational strength, namely the constraints, it was expected that there will be less constraints for telecommuters as they take the advantage of increased autonomy and flexibility in their duties due to physical and supervisory isolation (Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Feldman, & Gainey, 2001; Daniels et al., 2000). The results were parallel to these expectations and hypothesis 1 was supported for the constraint dimension of situational strength. Constraints decreased as telecommuting intensity increased. Employees working at offices had more constraints than telecommuters, and the low-telecommuting group had higher constraints than the high-telecommuting group ($M = 1.99$; $M = 2.32$; $M = 2.47$, respectively for high, low and no telecommuting groups). Such clear support for the constraints dimension can be taken as an advantage of telecommuting with its increased autonomy and flexibility for the employees. However, we must not be rush to the conclusion as the meaning of the constraints might be different and might not be related to the telecommuting work per se.

4.1.2. Evaluation of the findings on personality and work context

With the advantages telecommuting provides, it attracts many individuals every passing day. But, since every job is not suitable for working away from traditional offices, not all employees can be eligible candidates for telecommuting (Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Daniels et al., 2000; Gurstein, 2001). Hence, examining the relationship between personality traits and work contexts will answer who is eligible for telecommuting. From the literature it was found that, the most relevant personality traits related to telecommuting were conscientiousness and extraversion as they affect the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and performance levels. It can be said that employees who are mature, trustworthy, diligent, organized, in short conscientious,

and at the same time who are not outgoing, sociable, and extraverted are good candidates for working out of the traditional offices (Daniels et al., 2000; Madsen, 2011; O'Neill et al., 2009). It was expected that employees working at home would be higher on conscientiousness and lower on extraversion when compared to employees working at offices since telecommuters have to deal with social and supervisory isolation caused by working away the traditional offices while taking advantage of the increased flexibility and autonomy. However, the results did not support these hypotheses.

For conscientiousness, although the mean scores for the telecommuting groups were higher than the no-telecommuting group, the differences were not significant. Since conscientiousness is a desired personality characteristic, the participants might be lenient in their ratings. Thus, using self-report method to measure personalities might conceal the possible significant differences between conscientiousness levels of the three telecommuting intensity groups. Although these explicit self-reports could predict outcomes to some extent, they are prone to response tendencies and possible insight deficiencies of the people (Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2009; Ones, & Viswesvaran, 1998).

When the results for extraversion were investigated, there were significant differences between the groups, but in the opposite direction of the expected effect. That is, extraversion level of high telecommuting group was higher than low and no telecommuting groups. This hypothesis was not supported, as employees working three or more days at home were more extraverted than other employees. This result was surprising, because one of the most prominent disadvantages of telecommuting is known to be social isolation (Koehler, Philippe, & Pereira, 2013). Nevertheless, extraverted participants working three or more days at home seemed to be taking advantage of their flexible work schedules out of office. These energetic, and dynamic employees might be finding a chance to make different daily programs for themselves easily like meeting with friends, travelling different cities, or even

abroad, attending different organizations, shopping, dealing with households, caring with children, as they have opportunity to work whenever, and wherever they want as long as they complete the duties until the due dates.

4.1.3. Evaluation of the findings on the relationship between work contexts and work attitudes

Three telecommuting groups were compared to see whether there were significant differences on work attitudes and performance variables. The results revealed that the high-telecommuting group had significantly higher mean scores on overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, task performance, contextual performance, and overall performance, and significantly lower mean score on turnover intentions than both the low and no-telecommuting groups. According to these results, there was an association between these variables as expected, thus, hypotheses 3 was supported. These findings might be attributed to stated advantages of telecommuting in the literature like increased flexibility and autonomy. Besides, the results of situational strength hypotheses also revealed that for the high-telecommuting group the clarity and consistency were higher and constraints was lower than the other two groups. Although situational strength hypotheses found support only for constraints dimension, these findings might be used to understand the results of third hypothesis. In a work context with clear, understandable, and consistent work-related cues, there would be no role ambiguity and role conflict for the employees, that is high-intensity telecommuters could benefit from clear, understandable information regarding role expectations and ways of fulfilling these expectations, and also consistent and compatible role expectations and demands that come from their supervisors. In the literature it was found that the role demands are related to negative attitudes (e.g. Faucett, Corwyn, and Poling, 2013). Moreover, since lower levels of constraints refer to higher levels of autonomy, the employees in the high-telecommuting group had higher levels of autonomy than their counterparts working at the offices or working

at home with low intensity, i.e. working only one or two days a week at home. Additionally, Kim and Stoner (2008) found a negative relationship between autonomy and turnover intentions. Since, the high telecommuting group had the lowest level of constraints, this result is consistent with previous literature. Therefore, due to the lack of role stressors and constraints, the employees working three or more days at home would be more satisfied with their jobs, more committed to their organizations, and perform better, while they would have less tendency to quit their jobs as compared to the other two groups.

4.1.4. Evaluation of the findings on the relationship between personality and work attitudes

Work attitudes and performance levels can be influenced by the personality of employees. High levels of conscientiousness and extraversion are generally associated with high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and low levels of turnover intentions (Furnham, Eracleous, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009; Kumar, & Bakhshi, 2010; Tziner, Waismal-Manor, Vardi, & Brodman, 2008). This was also replicated in the present study across the two work contexts. According to results, there was an association between these variables as expected. Therefore, hypotheses 4 (a) and (b) were supported. The relationships between personality and work attitudes variables showed that employees who have higher levels of conscientiousness and extraversion are more satisfied with their jobs, more committed to their organization, have higher performance levels and less likely to quit their jobs than employees with low to medium levels of conscientiousness and extraversion. It was not surprising to find out that employees who are self-disciplined, organized, diligent, attentive, and at the same time active, enterprising, dynamic, and talkative, have higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and lower levels of turnover

intentions than their counterparts who are unorganized, unsystematic, lazy and unenergetic, silent, dull, and pessimistic (Wasti, Lee, Ashton, & Somer, 2008).

4.1.5. Evaluation of the findings on the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitudes

The literature review showed that there were also many studies investigating the relationship between work contexts and various work attitudes variables. However, there was no consensus on the effects of telecommuting on work attitudes, as the studies revealed contradictory findings. While some of the researchers indicated that telecommuting is positively associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, loyalty to organization, productivity, performance, and lower levels of turnover intentions (Abdel-Wahab, 2007; Gajendran, & Harrison, 2007; Hartman et al., 1991; Igbaria, & Guimaraes, 1999), some others showed just the opposite, that there is less job satisfaction, organizational commitment and more turnover intentions in the telecommuting context (Hill et al., 1996; Madsen, 2011). Among the possible reasons for this discrepancy, personality was investigated in relation to work arrangements and outcomes. In other words, the possible moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between personality and work attitudes was examined. For these analyses participants were grouped into two; the group of employees working at offices and the group of employees working at least one day a week at home.

These hypotheses were not supported although there were significant moderation effect of work context on some of the relationships between personality and work attitude variables. When the results for the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between conscientiousness and work attitudes were considered, it was found that work contexts only moderated the relationship between conscientiousness

and organizational commitment. Simple slope analysis showed the association between conscientiousness and commitment was stronger for office-based contexts than for home-based contexts. Thus, although moderation effect was found, it was not in the expected direction. Besides, the results of exploratory analyses revealed that the interaction term was still significant after controlling situational strength variables. Thus, the moderation effect cannot be fully attributed to the situational strength differences across the office and home-based work contexts investigated in this study. It might be understood when considered the fact that in an office context, employees who are unorganized, undisciplined, untidy, inattentive and lazy, might confront more problems with their coworkers, supervisors, and managers than such employees working at home, and in turn due to problems they face with every day at the offices, their commitment levels would decrease as well (Simon, Judge, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2010). When it was thought for high conscientious employees, again, it was understandable that high conscientious employees working at the offices had higher levels of organizational commitment than high conscientious employees working at home. Since conscientious employees at office would have more chance to be appreciated by their teammates, supervisors and managers than their counterparts working at home, their commitment to organization would be higher than those working at home, as well.

When the results for the moderation effect of work contexts on the relationship between extraversion and work attitudes were considered, it was found that work contexts moderated the relationship between extraversion and overall job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The results indicated that, highly extraverted employees working at home had higher levels of overall job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover intentions than low extraverted employees working at home. According to simple slope analyses, the association between extraversion and overall job satisfaction, and turnover intentions was stronger for home-based work contexts. Although the moderation effect was stronger for home-based work context, the

moderation effect on the relationship was in the opposite direction, thus these found moderation effects could not support the hypothesis.

The results were surprising again like the results of hypothesis 2, but it could be interpreted as, extraverted employees who are energetic, active, enterprising, and dynamic took the advantage of flexible working hours and place of telecommuting and could use their time, and energy more efficiently and easily balance their life according to their own priorities and desires than their counterparts working at the offices. Therefore, these extraverted employees would be more satisfied with their jobs and have less tendencies to quit their jobs when working at home. Additionally, the results of the exploratory analyses revealed that the interaction term become marginally significant after controlling clarity, consistency, and constraints, for overall job satisfaction while it was still significant for turnover intentions. Thus, it could be interpreted as the situational strength differences in office and home-based work contexts cause this moderation effect on the relationship between extraversion and overall job satisfaction to some extent. Since, in weaker situations, there is more variance in employee behaviors, their work attitudes can differ easily for different personality characteristics. Therefore, the moderation effect was stronger for the employees working at home.

4.2. Practical Implications of the Study

First of all, this study with its large sample showed that Turkish organizations also began to use telecommuting as an employment option for employees. Although it has not become so widespread yet, these flexible working arrangements would be used by more and more employees and employers with the rapid advances in information technology. At this point differences between home-based and office-based work contexts were examined in the present study. Although it was expected that situational strength would be lower for home-based work context than office-based

work context, partial support was found. According to the results when telecommuting intensity increased, clarity and consistency of the cues increased, and constraints in the work context decreased. The results for clarity and consistency were surprising but pleasing at the same time, because without role stressors and constraints, employees are more likely to have higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels, and lower turnover intentions levels. As it was interpreted before, it might be due to the cautiousness of managers or the nature of work itself. Therefore, it could be suggested for employers to provide clear, available, understandable, consistent, similar cues regarding the desired work-related behaviors and also less constraints for the employees especially working at home. Thus, the employees could work more efficiently in a flexible context without any hesitation about what and how to do due to the lack of role stressors and constraints.

Moreover, the results showed that more extraverted employees working at home-based work context had higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of turnover intentions. The results were surprising and interpreted as these extraverted employees might take the advantage of flexibility in time and space, and could find more chance for different activities. In line with the study results, it can be suggested to managers to take into consideration the fact that high extraverted employees who generally have troubles with working at an office the whole day by sitting in front of a computer for hours, telecommuting practices might be a good opportunity which may increase their job satisfaction, and decrease their turnover intentions as well.

Overall investigation of the study findings showed that telecommuting was a beneficial employment option for both employees and organizations. According to results when telecommuting intensity increased, the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance levels of the employees increased and their turnover intention levels decreased as well. Therefore managers should benefit from such a working arrangement if the job and also the employee are good candidates for

working away from the office. Although general inferences could be made from this study about determining eligible candidates for telecommuting, more studies are needed especially for the Turkish working context.

4.3. Strengths and Contributions of the Study

In the present study, many of the hypotheses could be partially supported while the results did not support some of the sub-hypotheses. Nevertheless, the present study has strengths that are worth mentioning. An important strength of this study was its comprehensive, integrative and comparative nature. In the literature, there were many studies on telecommuting, but the attempts to test more integrative hypotheses were insufficient. Therefore, the present study was one of the first studies that examined the differences on situational strength, personality profiles, and work attitudes by comparing the telecommuting context and traditional office context. The telecommuting literature provided some contradictory findings especially about the effects of telecommuting on work attitudes. This study with its integrative hypotheses on this issue tested the possible moderation effects to find meaningful explanations for this discrepancy. The results revealed that work context had moderation effect on the relationships between personality and some of the work attitudes. These findings can provide meaningful explanations for certain parts of the discrepancy in the literature.

Another important strength of the present study is that, to the knowledge of the author, this study was the first research in Turkey that was conducted in the field setting with employees both working at office and at home. Since the 2000s, there have been valuable studies conducted in Turkey that investigated the attitudes toward telecommuting or just explained what telecommuting means (Alkan-Meşhur, 2011; Naktiyok, & İşcan, 2003; Ölçer, 2004; Tutar, 2002). Those studies are appreciated, because telecommuting is a new concept for Turkey, and organizations have just

recently begun to prefer flexible working arrangement. At best there is a 10-year history for telecommuting in Turkey due to the fact that for telecommuting high usage of the Internet and technology is needed. When the statistics from the International Telecommunication Union (ITU, 2012) were investigated, it could be easily understood why Turkey began to take advantage of such flexible working arrangements so late. According to data taken from ITU, the percentage of individuals using the Internet in Turkey was only 3.76% in 2000, but the percentages had rapidly increased to 45.13% in 2012. The present study could finally be able to include real employees working at home in Turkey. Therefore, the present study takes the telecommuting literature for Turkey a step further since it exceeded the level of testing only attitudes towards telecommuting.

Thirdly, the present study had a larger sample size ($N = 620$) than the studies conducted before in Turkey. Nearly half of the sample could take advantage of telecommuting at various degrees ($N = 261$). However, most of the employees were working only one or two days a week at home ($N = 208$), while only a small portion of the participants could work three or more days a week at home ($N = 53$). Nonetheless, these numbers were expected since telecommuting practices newly began to gain recognition from the Turkish managers. Such a large sample size could be attained by the online format of survey that was not so long. Using relatively low number of items to measure study variables and also preparing a web-based format made it easy to deal with reluctance of the individuals to fill out long surveys and answer many questions. By means of the online format, the surveys were filled out by employees working in 26 different industries and in 33 different cities in Turkey. As the results of chi-square test indicated that, there were no significant differences between the sample groups on the demographic variables. Due to that, the generalizability of the study findings increased.

4.4. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

There are several limitations that should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings of this study. One of the limitations is about the possible influences of common method variance due to the use of self-report measures. Since the data was collected from the same source, only from the participants, there would be an inflation of common method variance and also possible effects of social desirability in the findings (Kline, Sulsky, & Rever-Moriyama, 2000; Ones, & Viswesvaran, 1998; Spector, 2006). Therefore, future researchers are encouraged to collect data through different kinds of methods like organizational records and supervisor ratings (Spector, 1987). Using organizational records and also supervisor and peer ratings as well may contribute to the objectivity because using only self-reports may yield subjective results. Moreover, social desirability scales might be used by the future researchers to control for any potential effects (Ones, & Viswesvaran, 1998). As Back, Schmukle, and Egloff (2009) suggested using implicit measures which indirectly measures the variables with the explicit ones which directly measures the variables would be useful for researchers as each measure may valuably complement the other.

Another limitation is about the generalizability of the study findings due to the sample characteristics of the present study. This study was an initial one in Turkey that was conducted in the field setting with real employees working at home. Since telecommuting was not widespread throughout Turkey yet, no restrictions were used for sampling. By doing that, it was aimed both to reach as many telecommuters as possible and to keep sample size as high as possible. Although, the sample was large enough ($N = 620$), and also the data was obtained from employees throughout different industries and in different cities, there would be problems regarding the generalizability. Therefore future research could address this limitation by collecting

a higher number of cases to be able to generalize the results for each industry, and city.

Thirdly, there was inequality between sample sizes of telecommuting intensity groups in the present study because of the fact that telecommuting is not so widespread yet. Moreover, because of this problem again, different operationalizations were made for the present study. One of them was working at home group which was identified as working at least one day a week at home. The other ones were according to telecommuting intensities, namely, high telecommuting intensity group which means working three or more days a week at home, and low telecommuting intensity group which means working one or two days a week at home. Future studies might address these problems about sample, by reaching sufficient number of employees working at home at various degrees of telecommuting intensity. Moreover, reaching a sample of employees working only at home may contribute more meaningful results for the literature. After reaching a larger sample of telecommuters, future researchers may also investigate the effects of mandatory and voluntary telecommuting programs on the work attitudes and performance of the telecommuters.

Future researchers might also include other personality variables besides conscientiousness and extraversion. Moreover facets of personality and work attitude variables might also be measured for more detailed analyses. Since the findings about the relationship between extraversion and telecommuting was surprising and in the opposite direction with the expected one, conducting a detailed analyses at the facet level would yield more meaningful results.

Moreover, as the results of exploratory analyses showed that the moderation effects of work contexts on the relationship between personality and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions could not be attributed to

situational strength differences, there should be other factors that should be investigated in future studies like type of telecommuting programs, and work-family conflict issues.

Finally, it can be suggested to future researchers to investigate the effects of cultural differences on telecommuting. The literature indicated that not all employees and not all jobs could be good candidates for telecommuting, at the same time not all cultures might be suitable for telecommuting. Turkey has a collectivistic and relationship-oriented culture with relatively high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance and low masculinity, rather than an individualistic and achievement-oriented one (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, & Kurshid, 2000; Hofstede, 1980; Ölmez, Sümer, & Soysal, 2004; Yetim & Yetim, 2006). Moreover, cultural characteristics may differ across different socio-economic groups as well (Imamoglu, 1998; Kagitcibasi, 2005). By considering that, future researchers might focus on studying the appropriateness of telecommuting to Turkish culture at different socio-economic levels for a detailed understanding.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SURVEY

İŞ KOŞULLARI, KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİ, İŞE YÖNELİK TUTUMLAR ve PERFORMANS

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, Dilara Aydin tarafından Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ) Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Yüksek Lisans Programı çerçevesinde Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç ve Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yonca Toker danışmanlığında yürütülmekte olan tez çalışmasının bir parçasıdır.

Çalışmanın amacı farklı iş koşullarının ve kişilik özelliklerinin çalışanların işe yönelik tutumlarında ve iş performanslarındaki etkilerinin incelenmesidir. Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Katılmayı kabul ederseniz sizden bir anketi cevaplandırmanız istenecektir. Bu ankette, iş koşullarınız, bir takım kişilik özellikleriniz, işe yönelik tutumlarınız ve isteki performansınızla ilgili soruları yanıtlanmanız istenecektir. Bunların yanı sıra, cinsiyetiniz, yaşıınız ve iş tecrübeniz gibi bazı temel kişisel bilgiler sorulacaktır. Anketin cevaplanması yaklaşık olarak 15 dakika sürmektedir.

Bu çalışma kapsamında cevaplanmanız istenen anket sorularında sizleri rahatsız edebilecek bir unsur bulunmamaktadır. Ancak, katılmayı kabul ettikten sonra dahi rahatsızlık hissetmeniz durumda veya başka herhangi bir sebepten ötürü çalışmayı tamamlamadan geri çekilme hakkına sahipsiniz.

Anket cevaplarınız ve sizinle ilgili olan tüm bilgiler tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayılarda kullanılacaktır. Talep edildiği takdirde araştırma sonuçları grup ortalaması bazında açıklanabilecektir.

Çalışma ile ilgili daha fazla bilgi edinmek isterseniz dilara.aydin@gmail.com adresinden Dilara Aydin'a ulaşabilirsiniz. Soruları cevaplarken göstereceğiniz dikkat ve içten cevaplar vermeniz araştırmmanın sağlıklı ve güvenilir olabilmesi bakımından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Soruları yanıtlamak için ayırdığınız zaman ve gösterdiğiniz çaba ile araştırmaya sağlayacağınız katkılar için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarında kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayılarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Evet Hayır

Tarih :/...../.....

BÖLÜM I

Bu bölüm iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır.

1. Kısım

Bu kısımda herhangi bir işi tanımlamak için kullanılabilen 8 ifadeye yer verilmiştir. Sizden her ifadenin işinizi ne kadar doğru tanımladığını belirtmeniz istenmiştir. Buna karar verirken işinizi sevip sevmediğinize bakmaksızın değerlendirmelerinizi yapmanız gerekmektedir. Verilen 5 basamaklı ölçüği kullanarak her ifadenin ne oranda doğru olduğunu belirleyiniz ve uygun rakamı daire içine alınız.

Cevaplar 1 = “Hiç katılmıyorum” ve 5 = “Tamamen katılıyorum” arasında değişmektedir.

- (1) Hiç katılmıyorum
- (2) Biraz katılmıyorum
- (3) Ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorum (kararsızım)
- (4) Biraz katılıyorum
- (5) Tamamen katılıyorum

	Hiç katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
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1. Zamanımı uygun bir şekilde bölüştürüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sorumluluklarının neler olduğunu biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Benden tam olarak ne beklediğini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Farklı yapılması gereken şeyleri yapmak zorundayım.	1	2	3	4	5

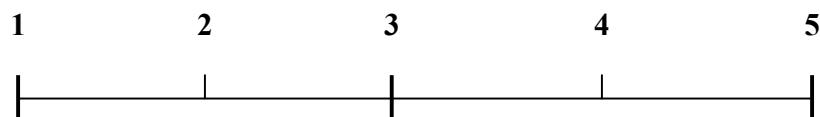
	Hic katilmiyorum	Biraz katilmiyorum	Karsizim	Biraz katiliyorum	Tamamen katiliyorum
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5. Tamamlamak için gerekli işgücüne sahip olmadığım görevler alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. İki veya daha fazla kişiden birbirlarıyla bağdaşmayan görevler alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. İşim, kişisel insiyatifimi veya yargımı kullanmama asla imkan tanımaz.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İşimi nasıl yapacağım konusunda bağımsızlığım ve özgürlüğüm yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Kısım

Bu kısımda size işinizle ilgili bir soru yöneltilmektedir. Bu soru için en uygun cevabı yansıtın rakamı daire içine alınız.

1- İşinizi nasıl yapacağınız ne derece kendiniz karar verebilirsiniz?



Cok az;

Bu iş, tabiatı gereği kişiye nasıl ve ne zaman çalışılacağı konusunda hemen hemen hiç karar verme imkanı tanımaz.

Orta derecede;

Birçok şey standart hale getirildiğinden bu iş, yapanın kontrolü altında değildir, ama işle ilgili bazı kararlar alınmasına imkan tanır.

Cok fazla;

Bu işte ne zaman ve nasıl çalışılacağı konusundaki karar, tamamen işi yapanın sorumluluğu altındadır.

BÖLÜM II

Aşağıda sizi kısmen tanımlayan (ya da pek tanımlayamayan) bir takım özellikler sunulmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıda verilen özelliklerin sizi ne oranda yansittigini ya da yansitmadiagini belirtmek için, verilen 5 basamaklı ölçüği kullanarak sizi en iyi tanımlayan rakamı her bir özelliğin yanına yazınız.

Cevaplar 1 = “Hiç katılmıyorum” ve 5 = “Tamamen katılıyorum” arasında değişmektedir.

- (1) Hiç katılmıyorum
- (2) Biraz katılmıyorum
- (3) Ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorum (kararsızım)
- (4) Biraz katılıyorum
- (5) Tamamen katılıyorum

Kendimi biri olarak görüyorum.

- | | |
|--|--|
| ____ 1. Konuşkan | ____ 9. Sakin yaradılışlı |
| ____ 2. İşini tam yapan | ____ 10. Tembel olma eğiliminde olan |
| ____ 3. Ketum/vakur | ____ 11. Bazen utangaç, çekingen olan |
| ____ 4. Biraz umursamaz | ____ 12. İşleri verimli yapan |
| ____ 5. Enerji dolu | ____ 13. Sosyal, girişken |
| ____ 6. Güvenilir bir çalışan (eleman) | ____ 14. Planlar yapan ve bunları takip eden |
| ____ 7. Heyecan yaratabilen | ____ 15. Kolaylıkla dikkati dağıtan |
| ____ 8. Dağınık olma eğiliminde olan | |

Lütfen kontrol ediniz: Bütün ifadelerin önüne bir rakam yazdınız mı?

BÖLÜM III

Bu bölüm iki kısımdan oluşmaktadır.

1. Kısım

Aşağıdaki ifadelerden her biri için, verilen 5 basamaklı ölçüği kullanarak her ifadeye ne oranda katıldığınızı belirleyiniz ve uygun rakamı daire içine alınız.

Cevaplar 1 = “Hiç katılmıyorum” ve 5 = “Tamamen katılıyorum” arasında değişmektedir.

- (1) Hiç katılmıyorum
- (2) Biraz katılmıyorum
- (3) Ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorum (kararsızım)
- (4) Biraz katılıyorum
- (5) Tamamen katılıyorum

	Hiç katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Genel olarak konuşmak gereklirse, bu iş beni çok tatmin ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bu işte yaptığım çalışmalar, genel olarak, beni tatmin ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu işte çalışanların çoğu işlerinden tatmin olmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu işletmenin sorunlarını kendi sorunları gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu işletmeye karşı güçlü bir ait olma hissim var.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu işletmeye kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu işletmenin benim için çok özel bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5

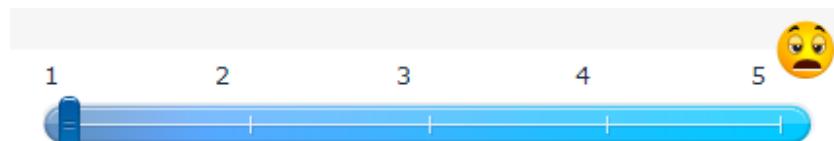
	Hic katilmiyorum	Biraz katilmiyorum	Karsizim	Biraz kathiyorum	Tamamen katiliyorum
8. Kendimi bu işletmede ailenin bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bu işletmedeki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Bu işletmenin bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bu işletmenin amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Sık sık işten ayrılmayı düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. En kısa zamanda yeni bir iş bakmaya başlamam çok olası görünüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Tekrar seçme şansım olsa, yine şimdi çalıştığım kurumda çalışmayı isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Yüksek kalitede iş ortaya koymaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
16. İşimin esasını oluşturan ana görevlerimi başarıyla yerine getirmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
17. İşimi yaparken zamanı verimli bir şekilde kullanabilmekte ve iş planlarına bağlı kalmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İki başarılı bir şekilde yapabilmek için gerekli teknik bilgiyi görevlerimi yerine getirirken etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken sözlü iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5

	Hic katilmıyorum	Biraz katilmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katiliyorum	Tamamen katiliyorum
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20. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken yazılı iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Kendi işimin bir parçası olmayan işleri de yapmak için gönüllü olmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kendi işlerimi yaparken büyük bir heves ve gayret içerisindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Kurum kurallarını ve prosedürlerini onaylamakta ve bunlara uyum göstermektedayim.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Kurum hedeflerini onaylamakta, desteklemekte ve savunmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Kısım

Lütfen, genel olarak işinizden ne derece memnun olduğunuzu en iyi temsil eden yüz ifadesini işaretleyiniz. (Kutucuğu ilerleterek seçiminizi yapabilirsiniz.)



BÖLÜM IV – Kişisel Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz : **Erkek** _____ **Kadın** _____

2. Yaşıınız : _____

3. Medeni Durumunuz (birini işaretleyiniz): **Evli** _____
Bekar _____
Diğer (Açıklayınız)_____

*Çocuğunuz var ise

Çocuk sayısı _____

Çocukların yaşları:

1. **çocuk** _____

2. **çocuk** _____

3. **çocuk** _____

Diğer _____

4. Eğitim Durumunuz (birini işaretleyiniz) : **İlkokul** _____

Ortaokul _____

Lise _____

Üniversite _____

Master _____

Doktora _____

Diğer (Açıklayınız)_____

5. Çalıştığınız kurumun;

Adı (Belirtmek istemiyorsanız X yazabilirsiniz):_____

Yeri (Şehir belirtiniz) :_____

Sektörü:_____

Toplam çalışan sayısı (yaklaşık olarak belirtiniz):_____

6. Bu firmadaki işiniz / ünvanınız :_____

8. Bu kurumdaki çalışma süreniz: _____

9. Toplam çalışma süreniz (Daha önce çalışmış olduğunuz kurumlar dahil): _____

10. Haftalık (5-6 günlük) çalışma programınız:

Ofiste (iş yerinde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____

Ofis dışında (evde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____

10. Aylık (25-30 günlük) çalışma programınız:

Ofiste (iş yerinde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____

Ofis dışında (evde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____

ÇALIŞMAYA KATILIMINIZ ve DEĞERLİ KATKILARINIZ İÇİN

ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM.

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SCALE

Kişisel Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz : **Erkek** _____ **Kadın** _____

2. Yaşınız : _____

3. Medeni Durumunuz (birini işaretleyiniz): **Evli** _____
 Bekar _____
 Diğer (Açıklayınız) _____

*Çocuğunuz var ise

Çocuk sayısı _____

Çocukların yaşları:

 1. çocuk _____

 2. çocuk _____

 3. çocuk _____

 Diğer _____

4. Eğitim Durumunuz (birini işaretleyiniz) : **İlkokul** _____

Ortaokul _____

Lise _____

Üniversite _____

Master _____

Doktora _____

Diğer (Açıklayınız) _____

5. Çalıştığınız kurumun;

Adı (Belirtmek istemiyorsanız X yazabilirsiniz): _____

Yeri (Şehir belirtiniz) : _____

Sektörü: _____

Toplam çalışan sayısı (yaklaşık olarak belirtiniz): _____

6. Bu firmadaki işiniz / ünvanınız : _____

8. Bu kurumdaki çalışma süreniz: _____
9. Toplam çalışma süreniz (Daha önce çalışmış olduğunuz kurumlar dahil): _____
10. Haftalık (5-6 günlük) çalışma programınız:
- Ofiste (iş yerinde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____**
- Ofis dışında (evde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____**
10. Aylık (25-30 günlük) çalışma programınız:
- Ofiste (iş yerinde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____**
- Ofis dışında (evde) çalıştığınız gün sayısı _____**

**ÇALIŞMAYA KATILIMINIZ ve DEĞERLİ KATKILARINIZ İÇİN
ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM.**

APPENDIX C

ROLE AMBIGUITY SCALE

Rol Belirsizliği Anketi	Tamamen yanlış	Kismen yanlış	Emin değilim	Kismen doğru	Tamamen doğru
1. Zamanımı uygun bir şekilde böülüştürüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sorumluluklarının neler olduğunu biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Benden tam olarak ne beklediğini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

ROLE CONFLICT SCALE

Rol Çatışması Anketi	Tamamen yanlış	Kısmen yanlış	Emin değilim	Kısmen doğru	Tamamen doğru
1. Farklı yapılması gereken şeyleri yapmak zorundayım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tamamlamak için gerekli işgücüne sahip olmadığım görevler alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İki veya daha fazla kişiden birbiriyle bağdaşmayan görevler alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

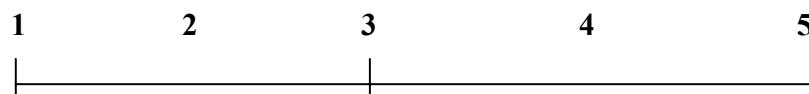
AUTONOMY SCALE

1. Kısım:

Otorite Anketi	Tamamen yanlış	Kısmen yanlış	Emin değilim	Kısmen doğru	Tamamen doğru
1. İşim, kişisel insiyatifimi veya yargımı kullanmama asla imkan tanımaz.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimi nasıl yapacağım konusunda bağımsızlığım ve özgürlüğüm yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5

2. Kısım

1- İşinizi nasıl yapacağınız ne derece kendiniz karar verebilirsiniz?



Çok az; bu iş tabiatı gereği kişiye nasıl ve ne zaman çalışılacağı konusunda hemen hemen hiç karar verme imkanı tanımaz.

Orta derecede; birçok şey standart hale getirildiğinden bu is yapanın kontrolü altında değildir, ama isle ilgili bazı kararlar alınmasına imkan tanır.

Çok fazla; bu iste ne zaman ve nasıl çalışılacağı konusundaki karar tamamen işi yapanın sorumluluğu altındadır.

APPENDIX F

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS AND EXTRAVERSION SCALE

Dışa Dönüklük ve Vicdanlı Olma Anketi

Aşağıda sizi kısmen tanımlayan (ya da pek tanımlayamayan) bir takım özellikler sunulmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıda verilen özelliklerin sizi ne oranda yansittığını ya da yansitmadiğini belirtmek için sizi en iyi tanımlayan rakamı her bir özelliğin yanına yazınız.

1 = Hiç katılmıyorum

2 = Biraz katılmıyorum

3 = Ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorum (kararsızım)

4 = Biraz katılıyorum

5 = Tamamen katılıyorum

Kendimi biri olarak görüyorum.

-
- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1. Konuşkan | <input type="checkbox"/> 9. Sakin yaradılışlı |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2. İşini tam yapan | <input type="checkbox"/> 10. Tembel olma eğiliminde olan |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Ketum/vakur | <input type="checkbox"/> 11. Bazen utangaç, çekingen olan |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Biraz umursamaz | <input type="checkbox"/> 12. İşleri verimli yapan |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5. Enerji dolu | <input type="checkbox"/> 13. Sosyal, girişken |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6. Güvenilir bir çalışan (eleman) | <input type="checkbox"/> 14. Planlar yapan ve bunları takip eden |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7. Heyecan yaratabilen | <input type="checkbox"/> 15. Kolaylıkla dikkati dağıtan |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 8. Dağınık olma eğiliminde olan | |
-

Lütfen kontrol ediniz: Bütün ifadelerin önüne bir rakam yazdınız mı?

APPENDIX G

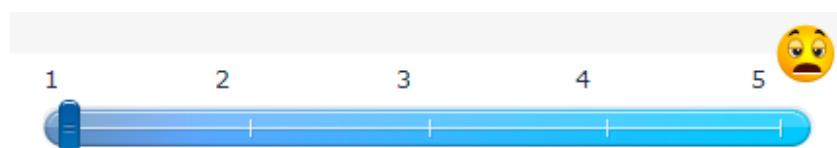
GLOBAL JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

	Hic kathmiyorum	Biraz kathmiyorum	Karsizim	Biraz katiliyorum	Tamamen katiliyorum
1. Genel olarak konuşmak gerekirse, bu iş beni çok tatmin ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bu işte yaptığım çalışmalar, genel olarak, beni tatmin ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu işte çalışanların çoğu işlerinden tatmin olmaktadırlar.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H

FACES SCALE

Lütfen, genel olarak işinizden ne derece memnun olduğunuzu en iyi temsil eden yüz ifadesini işaretleyiniz. (Kutucuğu ilerleterek seçiminizi yapabilirsiniz.



APPENDIX I

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

	Hiç katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
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1. Bu işletmenin sorunlarını kendi sorunlarım gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bu işletmeye karşı güçlü bir ait olma hissim var.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu işletmeye kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu işletmenin benim için çok özel bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kendimi bu işletmede ailenin bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu işletmedeki ismini kendi özel isim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu işletmenin bir çalışanoi olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bu işletmenin amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX J

INTENTIONS TO QUIT SCALE

	Hiç katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
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1. Sık sık işten ayrılmayı düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. En kısa zamanda yeni bir iş bilmaya başlamam çok olası görünüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tekrar seçme şansım olsa, yine şimdi çalıştığım kurumda çalışmayı isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX K

PERFORMANCE SCALE

	Hiç katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
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1. Yüksek kalitede iş ortaya koymaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimin esasını oluşturan ana görevlerimi başarıyla yerine getirmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşimi yaparken zamanı verimli bir şekilde kullanabilmekte ve iş planlarına bağlı kalmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İşi başarılı bir şekilde yapabilmek için gerekli teknik bilgiyi görevlerimi yerine getirirken etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken sözlü iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken yazılı iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kendi işimin bir parçası olmayan işleri de yapmak için gönüllü olmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kendi işlerimi yaparken büyük bir heves ve gayret içerisindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5

	Hic katılmıyorum	Biraz katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
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9. Kurum kurallarını ve prosedürlerini onaylamakta ve bunlara uyum göstermekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Kurum hedeflerini onaylamakta, desteklemekte ve savunmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5