An Exploration of Connections between Workers’ and Managers’ Job Satisfaction in an Organized Industrial Zone in Istanbul

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Abstract
Job satisfaction is one the most cited subjects by far within various contexts. Research regarding job satisfaction has flourished since the onset of the 20th century and job satisfaction is not only scrutinized by means of its structure, antecedents, and consequences; but also by means of its relationships with countless business issues. Despite this interest, there is still a small gap in job satisfaction literature: workers’ and managers’ job satisfaction factors are not structurally compared, and their possible relationships are not fully addressed. This study exactly targets the mentioned gap. In this respect, data from workers and managers are collected through the research conducted in İkitelli organized industrial zone and job satisfaction structures of these two parties are compared. Comparison reveals that there are differences in job satisfaction components, despite presence of some common points. When the relationship between workers’ and managers’ job satisfactions is analyzed, a positive and moderate reciprocal connection emerges. All these outcomes are considered and discussed.

Keywords: Managers, Workers, Job Satisfaction, Organized Industrial Zone, Turkey.

1. Introduction
Business context is a very popular domain for scientific research. There are innumerable studies scattered around many problems, theories, and paradigms. For this reason, this domain hosts various facts and outcomes. An obvious result is the impossibility of reaching to a consensus about many business issues, except for a very few. This study takes one of the such issues into account: the intensification of human side’s importance in business context.

Though a great portion of the literature agrees that humans are the most vital aspects of any business, it fails to hold forth a generally accepted fundamental point that can serve as a key to understand human-business bindings. Job satisfaction, however, seems to be the most promising key and thereof, this promising is the reason that this study focuses on job satisfaction.

There is a very conventional approach to scrutinize job satisfaction; many studies analyze antecedents, consequences, and contents of this subject while many other check its relationships with other business issues. Besides looking into the structure of job satisfaction,
this study aims to overarch this conventionality by considering workers’ and managers’ job satisfactions distinctively, comparing these two, and by investigating the nature of relationships between the two parties’ job satisfactions.

2. Job Satisfaction: Definition and a Brief History

Satisfaction has always been a word used in various contexts with a general meaning of giving or enjoying a state of content (Thesausurs 2017), a fulfillment of a need or a desire (Merriam-Webster 2017), a pleasant feeling of accomplishing a need or a desire (Cambridge Dictionary 2017), or fulfillment of one’s wishes, expectations or needs (Oxford Living Dictionaries 2017).

An emphasis on business context points out that job satisfaction has rooted from the consideration of worker attitudes. Workers’ attitudes towards their organizational contexts were first scientifically scrutinized in relation to worker efficiency in the 19th century (Allport 1935); and at the outset of the 20th century, research about worker efficiency revealed that the success of scientific management depended not solely on physical factors such as power and dexterity, but also on some mental issues like contentment (Gilbreth 1911; Munsterberg 1913). This fact was later advanced by Hawthorne and similar studies (Mayo 1933; Wyatt and Fraser 1925; Wyatt et al. 1938) by means of finding out that workers’ work-related satisfaction was effective on their reactions towards their organizational contexts. Although this satisfaction was under spotlights of some other contemporary studies (e.g. McMurry 1932; Hoppock and Spiegler 1938), it became a much popular scientific limelight and was backed up with ample evidence from 1950s and onward (e.g. Brayfield and Crockett 1955; Chandler, 1965).

An interesting point is that the mentioned work-related satisfaction was not initially considered as a full indicator of worker attitudes. Early studies focused on other issues such as workers’ emotional well-being (Child 1941), sentiment (Roethlisberger and Dickson 1939), and satisfyingness in general (Thorndike 1917). A literature review unveils that the first study that coined the term job satisfaction as a proxy of workers’ work-related attitudes belongs to Hoppock (1937). In 1930s, the only other study using this term in the exact same manner, was performed by Super (1939). As already mentioned, research about job satisfaction has enormously flourished since 1950s and job satisfaction has been accepted to be one of the main indicators of workers’ work-related attitude (e.g. Kates 1950; Kerr 1948; Brayfield and Rothe 1951).

Currently, job satisfaction domain hosts more than 10000 studies (Spector 1997) that scrutinize numerous subjects. Besides more conventional subjects such as reasons (Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza 2000), outcomes (Brown and Peterson 1993), measurement (Abiyev et al. 2016), instrument development (Timilsina Bhandari et al. 2015), and comparisons (Wilkin 2013) of job satisfaction; there are many other issues that are considered in relation to job satisfaction; for instance, organizational commitment (Fu and Deshpande 2014), organizational citizenship behavior (Ioannidou et al. 2016), motivation (Alam 2015), innovativeness (Iranmanesh et al. 2017), leadership (Braun et al. 2013), performance at individual (Dekoulou and Trivellas 2015), group or team (Braun et al. 2013) and organizational (Vermeeren et al. 2013).
levels, turnover (Abbas et al. 2014), organizational climate (Schulz 2013), work values (Caricati et al. 2014), conflict (Todorova et al. 2014), and justice (Ouyang et al. 2015).

As explained, the historical meaning attributed to job satisfaction has been work-related attitudes. Though this attribution is simple and agile, there are some debates about the contents of these attitudes. An opinion calls that job satisfaction has a general definition in the form of emotional reactions to the job, as a consequence of the comparisons between job outcomes and related expectations, and desires (e.g. Cranny et al. 1992). It is striking that the insistence on emotionality is also evident in some former research (e.g. Locke 1976). Another approach evident is the use of emotions and attitudes interchangeably. In this case, job satisfaction is considered to be emotional or attitudinal responses to job-related conditions and changes (Hulin 1991). On the grounds that attitudes involve affective component, this disposition is rejected in some studies and job satisfaction is based on a joint form of emotionality and beliefs towards job (Weiss et al. 1999). The emphasis on attitudes in full is still favored in some research. Job satisfaction is directly considered as attitudes (Brief 1998; Miner 1992) or an evaluative judgment (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996) towards job.

These different approaches highlight a common factor – job satisfaction is an attitude fundamentally – and as expected, this brings up a question: what is the object of this attitude? Literature reveals that this issue is still ambiguous. While some studies (e.g. Gazioglu and Tansel 2006; Lofquist and Dawis 1969) use a specific combination of job-related factors to investigate overall job satisfaction; some posit that overall job satisfaction can not be determined accurately by using a sole combination (Scarpello and Campbell 1983). This position is acknowledged by means of finding differences between overall and combination-based job satisfaction (e.g. Highhouse and Becker 1993). Some studies avoid this confusion and choose a general distinction between objects to consider job satisfaction broadly. An appropriate example is the study, performed by Weiss et al. (1998), in which job satisfaction is directed towards concrete (physical or physically evident) and abstract (conceptual and generally intangible) objects.

Job satisfaction’s object is not the only contributor to ambiguity. Another such contributor is the workers’ degree of awareness towards job aspects (Fortney et al. 2013). If, for example, workers assign divergent values to social relationships, tasks, or status in the same business context; job satisfaction among these people may vary due to attitudinal differences primarily instead of these objects. This renders perceptions vital when referring to job satisfaction and this point, which is mooted in the literature (e.g. Bogler and Nir 2015), is also under the spotlight of this current study. Yet another noteworthy aspect to give rise to ambiguity is emotionality. Job satisfaction, as an attitude, involves an emotional component (Shukla et al. 2016). By virtue of emotional changes (Li et al. 2016) and alterations in general emotionality state, mood, (Gabriel et al. 2014); emotionality causes difficulties in job satisfaction measurement and scrutinizing (Weiss et al. 1999).

3. Reasons of Job satisfaction

As already explained, research for job satisfaction has a gradual scientific advancement throughout the history. A resembling advancement is evident regarding the research for
reasons of job satisfaction. Inception of the 20th century witnessed the first preliminary research about job satisfaction reasons. Worker fatigue and monotony were the two pioneering subjects considered (Gilbreth and Gilbreth 1917; Taylor 1919) along with a greater emphasis on monotony side (Munsterberg 1913). With the concrete evidence that worker efficiency decreased due to issues of fatigue, monotony, and dullness (Mayo 1933; Wyatt 1929), scientific attention turned towards investigation of each worker’s withstanding degree against these issues. Interestingly, there was already some proof that workers’ intelligence was effective on their attitudes towards tasks (Otis 1920) and their satisfaction (Snow 1923); and that workers’ positive emotionality was effective on their productivity (Hersey 1929), at the time of this attention shift. A short literature review reveals that studies in that period (e.g. Fisher and Hanna 1931; McMurry 1932) emphasized emotionality and well-being as influencers of worker happiness and thus job performance.

Subsequent research advanced reasons of efficiency decreases and made a contribution by unearthing that each worker had a personal task goal, and own satisfaction was dependent on the relationship between this personal task goal and actual task outcomes. If the actual task outcome was beyond the personal task goal, the worker became satisfied and tended to slow down, and vice versa (Smith 1953). This goal-outcome trade-off is still favored in the literature (e.g. Maier and Brunstein 2001; Roberson 1990), while it is noteworthy that emotionality is also used heavily as a premise of job satisfaction currently. Emotionality, however, faces some challenges. A strain is the dilemma of using positive or negative emotionality. It is surprising that many studies (e.g. Necowitz and Roznowski 1994) consider negative emotionality as the only antecedent of job satisfaction, which is actually a positive-toned issue. Very few studies (e.g. Connolly and Viswesvaran 2000), indeed prove that job satisfaction should be considered from positive emotionality rather than negative emotionality. Another strain overarches this dilemma – there is evidence that positive and negative emotionality are not distinct issues, they are simply two ends of the same concept and thus positivity and negativity can not be treated independently (Carroll et al. 1999). Nevertheless, these strains are called to be ignored as they are only related to emotionality and taking emotionality into account singly is a too narrow approach to investigate job satisfaction (Watson and Slack 1993).

Another mainstream of research makes an extravagation by positing that not only personal task goals, or intelligence and emotionality, but also some other personality-related issues and demographic features are distinctively effective on job satisfaction. In other words, habits (Linn et al. 1985), age (Clark et al. 1996), education level (Allen and Van der Velden 2001), and gender (Bender et al. 2005) can determine job satisfaction. Emphasis on personality issues - especially traits - is criticized due to weak contributions in terms of theoretical explanations (Spector 1997) and the confusion of selecting among various related variables (Arvey et al. 1991).

An implication pointed out so far is that job satisfaction has been construed vastly by means of workers’ side. As there are two parties involved in terms of job satisfaction - worker and business context, emphasis on business context is also appreciated. For instance; when special values are attributed to tasks by business (Spehar et al. 2016; Wright and Davis 2003), job enables worker empowerment (Lee et al. 2016; Seo et al. 2004), job ensures distinctive
benefits (Denes 2003), a positive and constructive social network of relationships among workers (Lambert et al. 2016; Meyer et al. 1989) and between workers and managers (Pelfrene et al. 2003) emerge, and effective conflict management practices are applied (Yousef 2000); then job satisfaction is uplifted.

A literature review shows that managers’ job satisfaction is similar to that of workers in terms of reasons. Expectation-outcome matches (Khare and Kamalian 2017), gender (Baral 2016), age and education level (Ghiselli et al. 2001), pay and promotion issues (Koh and El'Fred 2001), and empowerment (Katsikea et al. 2011), are effective on managers’ job satisfaction. Beside this fact, managers also infer a greater job satisfaction provided that they have satisfactory relationships with their superiors and inferiors (Chandraiah et al. 2003), and perceive that there is justice within the business context (Djukic et al. 2017). Despite these similarities, managers’ job satisfaction tends to involve some further and distinct factors. These include the extent of their psychological ownership (Mustafa et al. 2016), perceived own locus of control (Srivastava et al. 2016), fundamental management philosophy shifts in the business (Pick and Teo 2017), and social justice perceptions in non-profit organizations (Lu et al. 2016).

4. Methodology

4.1. Research Goal

Literature proves that there are similarities between antecedents and contents of job satisfaction when workers and managers are in question. A specific goal of the research is to investigate this proof by means of evaluating the data collected. A subsequent goal is to scrutinize possible relationships between workers’ and managers’ job satisfaction factors, and the main goal is to check these possible relationships once all factors of job satisfaction are combined distinctively for workers and managers.

4.2. Sample and Data Collection

Participants are considered to be managers and workers in İkitelli organized industrial zone, which is one of the biggest currently in Turkey. A check of the cooperatives integrated into this organized industrial zone reveals that there are currently 29788 member businesses, scattered in 37 distinct cooperatives (İkitelli OSB 2012). As one manager and one worker from each business are contacted; two populations of equal size, 29788, are considered. Sample sizes are calculated to be 380 (Raosoft 2004).

Data are collected via questionnaires and job satisfaction is evaluated using a reworded (worker-manager distinction) mixture of instruments that belong to Brayfield and Rothe (1951), Hackman and Oldham (1974), and Jamal and Baba (2000).

4.3. Statistical Structures

After data are collected from both managers and workers, explanatory factor and reliability analyses are run in order to understand how job satisfaction is structured for these two parties. Table 1 denotes this structure when workers’ data are evaluated.
Table 1. Explanatory factor and reliability analyses of workers’ job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Task Features (TF)</th>
<th>Social Atmosphere (SA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>KMO</strong></td>
<td>0,763</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Bartlett’s test value is statistically significant).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variance Explained (%)</strong></td>
<td>36,854</td>
<td>29,746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cronbach’s Alpha Value</strong></td>
<td>0,885</td>
<td>0,873</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- My business tasks are as important as my personal tasks. *(TF3)* 0,902
- I am pleased with my business tasks. *(TF4)* 0,896
- I have the specialized knowledge required by my tasks. *(TF2)* 0,881
- My business tasks are important for my business. *(TF5)* 0,863
- My business tasks need my utmost attention. *(TF1)* 0,761
- My business tasks also serve my career purposes. *(TF6)* 0,703
- I have good relationships with my co-workers. *(SA1)* 0,887
- I have good relationships with my managers. *(SA2)* 0,855
- As workers, we work in equal conditions. *(SA7)* 0,829
- My co-workers value my ideas. *(SA5)* 0,804
- My managers value my ideas. *(SA6)* 0,722
- I can easily talk with my managers for business matters. *(SA3)* 0,668
- I can easily talk with my managers for personal matters. *(SA4)* 0,602

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 1 reveals consonant results with the literature. Workers’ job satisfaction is dependent on two main factors, with an emphasis on the tasks and social atmosphere. *Task features* component refers to the importance of business tasks, the need for attention and
specialization, contentment regarding business tasks, and their benefits for workers’ careers. Social atmosphere component, on the other hand, addresses health of social relationships, equality, idea valuation, and ease of contact with the managers.

When compared with workers’ job satisfaction, managers’ job satisfaction exhibits a different structure, as revealed in Table 2.

Table 2. Explanatory factor and reliability analyses of managers’ job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO</th>
<th>Variance Explained (%)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.813</td>
<td>31.386</td>
<td>0.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.813</td>
<td>26.771</td>
<td>0.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.813</td>
<td>19.859</td>
<td>0.871</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Bartlett’s test value is statistically significant).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task Competence (TC)</th>
<th>Communication (CO)</th>
<th>Business Image (BI)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can fully carry out my management responsibilities. (TC1)</td>
<td>0.927</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a great performance as a manager. (TC3)</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have the specialized knowledge required to be a successful manager. (TC2)</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy about my contributions to my business as a manager. (TC4)</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider my subordinates’ needs fairly. (TC6)</td>
<td>0.855</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I provide enough support to my subordinates. (TC7)</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My attitude towards subordinates makes them happy. (TC8)</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefits my business provides me are equivalent to my contributions as a manager. (TC5)</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have good relationships with my subordinates. (CO1)</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I speak with my subordinates frequently to understand their problems. (CO3)</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My subordinates can easily contact me about business issues. (CO2)</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My management tasks are effective on the image of my business. (BI1)</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a manager, my behaviors are directly effective on the image of my business. (BI2)</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My business has a positive image in its sector. (BI3)</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2 points out that managers’ job satisfaction has three pillars. As expected, task is an important factor, in the form of task competence. This factor is related to managers’ sufficiency in terms of task responsibilities, specialized knowledge, management performance, and contributions; treating subordinates in a constructive manner via facilitating fairness, support, and contentment; and a perceived fair trade-off between management contributions and business returns. Second factor is named as communication and it involves a vertical communication path between managers and workers; which is about good relationships,
problem-solving and business issues. The last factor pertains to business image – positive image of the business along with effects of management duty and manager behaviors on business image.

When the two structures emerged in Tables 1 and 2 are compared, some implications are noted. Task is obviously a common element for both workers and managers, though the nature of this element is different. While the task itself is a matter for workers, competence regarding management task becomes vital according to managers. Workers are inclined to be satisfied due to their business tasks’ importance, their contentment regarding their tasks, and contributions of their tasks to their careers. None of these facts are present when managers are in question. Managers, on the other hand, are satisfied due to the extent to which they perceive themselves sufficient to be good managers; what they get in return of their management efforts; and how much they consider and support their subordinates. The only common denominator regarding tasks is specialization – both workers and manager consider their specialization as a reference to their job satisfaction. It is also attention-taking that both parties believe sociality to be a factor of job satisfaction.

4.4. Relationships between Workers’ and Managers’ Job Satisfaction

The final step of the research is to check if and how the two parties’ job satisfactions are related. This relationship is scrutinized using structural equation modeling while keeping the emerged structures in Tables 1 and 2. Figure 1 shows this relationship as a conceptual model.
Figure 1. Relationship model to be tested (WJS: Workers' Job Satisfaction; MJS: Managers' Job Satisfaction; Other abbreviations can be obtained from Tables 1 and 2).

Initial results about the model point out that it is valid when its fit indices are checked.
Table 3. Fit indices of the relationship model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit Index</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Fit Index</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Relative Fit Index (RFI)</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Standardized RMR</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incremental Fit Index (IFI)</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Error distributions in Figure 2 also denote that a valid and realistic relationship model is at hand.
Table 4. Relationships regarding workers’ job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships at latent variable level</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers’ Job Satisfaction – Task Features (TF)</td>
<td>0,34</td>
<td>6,74</td>
<td>0,12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers’ Job Satisfaction – Social Atmosphere (SA)</td>
<td>0,67</td>
<td>13,87</td>
<td>0,44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships at variable level</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task Features (TF) - <em>My business tasks need my utmost attention.</em> (TF1)</td>
<td>0,58</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0,66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Features (TF) - <em>I have the specialized knowledge required by my tasks.</em> (TF2)</td>
<td>0,60</td>
<td>2,23</td>
<td>0,57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Features (TF) - <em>My business tasks are as important as my personal tasks.</em> (TF3)</td>
<td>0,47</td>
<td>2,08</td>
<td>0,58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Features (TF) - <em>I am pleased with my business tasks.</em> (TF4)</td>
<td>0,49</td>
<td>3,53</td>
<td>0,61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Features (TF) - <em>My business tasks are important for my business.</em> (TF5)</td>
<td>0,38</td>
<td>4,89</td>
<td>0,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Features (TF) - <em>My business tasks also serve my career purposes.</em> (TF6)</td>
<td>0,42</td>
<td>5,97</td>
<td>0,61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>I have good relationships with my co-workers.</em> (SA1)</td>
<td>0,12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0,34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>I have good relationships with my managers.</em> (SA2)</td>
<td>0,75</td>
<td>6,23</td>
<td>0,74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>I can easily talk with my managers for business matters.</em> (SA3)</td>
<td>0,80</td>
<td>4,71</td>
<td>0,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>I can easily talk with my managers for personal matters.</em> (SA4)</td>
<td>0,85</td>
<td>3,22</td>
<td>0,48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>My co-workers value my ideas.</em> (SA5)</td>
<td>0,68</td>
<td>4,24</td>
<td>0,44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>My managers value my ideas.</em> (SA6)</td>
<td>-0,13</td>
<td>-3,18</td>
<td>0,29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Atmosphere (SA) - <em>As workers, we work in equal conditions.</em> (SA7)</td>
<td>-0,16</td>
<td>-4,31</td>
<td>0,38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per Table 4, task features and social atmosphere simultaneously contribute positively to workers’ job satisfaction, though it is noteworthy that social atmosphere has a stronger connection with and better contribution to this satisfaction. A check at variable level shows that all items regarding task features have positive and strong connections with this component. The case with social atmosphere is slightly different; workers have doubts about working equally and valuation of their ideas by managers.

Structural details regarding managers’ job satisfaction are presented in Table 5.
According to Table 5, tripartite structure of managers’ job satisfaction is once more evidenced. While all three components have positive and moderate connections with managers’ job satisfaction, task competence is the most outstanding one, followed by
communication and business image. It is interesting to observe that all items have positive and generally moderate connections with their respective components.

A quick comparison between Tables 4 and 5 uncloaks some outcomes. Although both workers and managers have satisfaction due to their tasks, there is an acute difference. Workers attribute a smaller value to their task features, compared to their other component of job satisfaction. On the contrary, managers assume that their task competence is the most important factor among all on behalf of job satisfaction. Sociality is considered to be a common component of job satisfaction, with workers’ emphasis on idea valuation and equality, albeit both parties’ common emphasis on vertical communication. Finally, workers do not consider their business image to be a factor of job satisfaction, though managers treat business image to be a weak job satisfaction component.

Table 6 concludes the final step of the research – it unveils how workers’ and managers’ job satisfactions are inter-related.

Table 6. Correlation between workers’ and managers’ job satisfactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workers’ Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Managers’ Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Job</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers’ Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers’ Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>0,47 (0,03)</td>
<td>4,95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is proof that workers’ and managers’ job satisfactions have a positive and moderate interaction (Table 6); one party’s job satisfaction is effective on that of other party. This result is expected due to a specific reason: two participating parties interact in business context and the nature of this interaction is expected to reflect on a variety of business-related issues, including their job satisfaction.

5. Conclusion

While literature hosts a vast number of studies regarding job satisfaction; this current study makes an original contribution by means of not only scientific results, but also by a unique approach. This uniqueness is inhered via considering and comparing workers’ and managers’ job satisfaction factors distinctively, besides integrating these factors aggregatedly in a model to investigate relationships between these two parties’ job satisfactions simultaneously. This approach provides a remarkable main result along with many related outcomes.

The parties’ job satisfactions are found out to have a reciprocal and positive relationship that has a moderate power. The existence of such a relationship is indeed within expectations for some reasons. Both parties believe that sociality is a factor of own job satisfaction and there
are continuous interactions between these parties, thus these interactions may play a role on their satisfactions through this sociality issue. Existence of another common factor – emphasis on tasks – may also be a referring point of this relationship.

Another noteworthy point is the positivity of this relationship. It implies that there is congruence between workers and managers in terms of job satisfaction; put it differently, they have similar expectations from their business environments. This similarity is already witnessed due to common factors such as sociality and task emphasis, and thus these factors are considered to be the main reasons for this positivity. Positivity also eludes collaboration between the two parties. When workers become more satisfied, managers’ satisfaction tends to increase, and vice versa; this fact suggests that they have common and cooperative spurs to engage in business activities.

This result implies that businesses should consider workers and managers together to foster their performance. Some business policies and applications that seek their common expectations may be utilized to enhance their task motivations and job satisfaction. The positive relationship also denotes a need for a dual and balanced organizational justice towards workers and managers. If one party’s job satisfaction deteriorates as a result of the perception that there are some weaknesses in terms of source distribution, procedures or social interactions; this perception is expected to decrease other party’s job satisfaction. Suchlike is also possible for empowerment.

This main result also brings forth many other outcomes. A comparison between workers’ and managers’ job satisfaction bestows that both parties consider their tasks to be an important factor of job satisfaction. Tasks, on the other hand, are noted from different angles. Workers are keen on thinking about task features whilst managers focus on their own task competence rather than the tasks themselves. This result is actually surprising and it encourages consideration of a possible inducement. Workers may believe that they do not have any reasons to question their competence, they may perceive themselves to be sufficient enough towards their tasks. This may be related with the possibility that workers’ tasks could be monotonous when compared to managers’ tasks, which are expected to require further knowledge, expertise, and career development. In this case, managers - in comparison with workers - could have a perception that their tasks are very demanding, which in turn, leads to their scepticism about their sufficiency. Another result enforces this possible inducement: workers believe that task emphasis is not the greatest contributor to their job satisfaction but managers regard task competence as the most important job satisfaction factor. There is only one exception to the difference of considering tasks; both workers and managers claim that they have specialization regarding their tasks at hand. Put other way, both parties advocate that there is a harmony between their features and needs of their tasks.

There is an analogous point about sociality. This issue is asserted to be an important matter of job satisfaction by both parties, albeit with a difference. Unlike managers, workers integrate their ideas’ valuation and equality into job satisfaction. The only commonality regarding sociality is the importance of vertical communication.

The most obvious outcome of the comparison is that managers think their business image to be a weak component of own job satisfaction while workers omit this image.
possible reason may be representation. Business image items include managers’ effects on this image through management tasks and behaviors. This fact could direct managers to consider themselves as representatives of their businesses, which could eventually lead to the conclusion that their perceived business image could turn out to be a response to what they do as managers.

All the findings of this study are preliminary and more should follow in order to scrutinize worker-manager dynamics in terms of job-related facts, with job satisfaction being paid utmost attention.
References


