Relationship among Managerial Support, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Study of Nonprofit, For-Profit and Public Sectors in Turkey

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Abstract

This is a comparative study that investigates relationships among managerial support, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in nonprofit, for-profit, and public organizations. It is based on a survey with a target sample of 750 employees working in education and health organizations in the three sectors in Turkey; 614 returns were valid for use as data in the research. The data analysis revealed that there are positive relationships between managerial support and job satisfaction, and between both these variables and two components of organizational commitment but not a third, and that these relationships differ between the three sectors.

Key words: nonprofit, managerial support, job satisfaction, organizational commitment.

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between managerial support, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of salaried employees in nonprofit organizations compared with those working in the public and for-profit sectors. There have been many studies that aim to investigate these relationships in each sector separately, but few comparing the three sectors in a single research project. This study is the first to do so in Turkey. It both contributes to the literature and provides valuable information for administrators working in the nonprofit sector.

The theoretical framework of the study is social exchange theory, first proposed by Homans (1958). The basic assumption of this theory is that organizations receive positive contributions from their employees in exchange for providing benefits to their employees. In other words, the more the organization treats its employees well the more the employees respond well and care about the organization. In particular, the commitment of employees to their organization increases as a result of managerial support and job satisfaction. This theory has been used in many studies of organizational commitment (Stevens et al., 1978; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Gagnon et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2005). The present study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Are there any relationships between managerial support, job satisfaction, and components of organizational commitment?
2. Are there any differences among employees working in nonprofit, for-profit, and public organizations in terms of managerial support, job satisfaction, and components of organizational commitment?

Nonprofit Entrepreneurial Organizations

In western societies, there is a long history of nonprofit organizations, often churches and their sub-organizations, seeking to serve the public (Maxwell, 2007). In Turkey, public services were provided by Ahi organizations, which were a kind of job or trade association, tradesmen’s guilds and foundations, (Çimen and Güven, 2007; Gemici, 2010). Many foundations and associations offering services in numerous areas – except for public security – have existed since the time of Ottoman and even Seljukian. In the Ottoman period, these organizations’ services included mosques, caravansaries, khans, drinking water supply, protecting widows and orphans, providing dowries for poor and orphaned girls, and helping debtors and indigent people. Foundations that developed during the Ottoman Empire continued to contribute to social life when the Turkish Republic was established in the 1920s (Ural, 1995).
Today, Turkish nonprofit organizations operate in the areas of social services, education and research, health, art and culture, protecting children and the elderly, environment protection, social security and religious services (Oster, 1995; Warda, 2004). They play important roles in society in terms of their human resources and financial powers (Salamon and Anheier, 1996; Haris, 2010). In the literature, they are variously called nonprofit, voluntary, charitable, philanthropic, third sector, tax-exempt and independent organizations, and Non Publical Organizations (NGOs) and they are commonly understood to serve society without pursuing commercial objectives (Benett and Dilorenzo, 1989; Salamon and Anheir, 1997; Drucker, 2002). However, the roles of these types of organizations have changed in the last two decades (Schimid, 2004). In the past, nonprofit organizations were perceived as charitable organizations, whereas today they are coming to be seen as part of the industrial sector (Faruggia, 2007).

This is because Turkish nonprofits, like those in many other countries, have become increasingly involved in commercial activities since the 1990s, beginning to act like for-profit organizations when their support from public became inadequate to improve and extend their services. These kind of hybrids are known as ‘commercial nonprofit’ and ‘nonprofit entrepreneurial’ organizations, owning and operating for example fee-charging hospitals and schools (Young, 2001) in order to generate profits to devote to delivering better public services. In some cases they have merged or formed partnerships with for-profit organizations (McLaughlin, 1998; O'Regan and Oster, 2000; Andreasen, 2001).

Increasingly, these nonprofits look like commercial organizations. Their financial structure has fundamentally changed, with revenues from their commercial activities being higher than these coming from public (Weisbrod, 1998b). However, their profits or commercial revenues are not being shared with members and stakeholders; instead, these funds are being used to improve working conditions within the organizations and increase the public’s social wellbeing (Glaeser and Shleifer, 2001).

The organizations are adopting for-profit practices: they conduct fund raising activities, seek to utilize their resources effectively, and try to find alternative ways to reduce heir expenses, all in order to survive and compete with for-profit organizations (Young, 2001; Faruggia, 2007). The managers of these commercial nonprofits are increasingly adopting professional management strategies, techniques and business rules to increase their organizations’ effectiveness (Oster, 1995). Moreover, there are undergraduate and graduate nonprofit management programs in many universities, and commercial nonprofits are hiring people with degrees from these programs in order to better manage their financial and human resources (Ott, 2001).

Despite these convergences, the entrepreneurial nonprofit, for-profit and public sectors nevertheless comprise different types of organizations, especially in terms of their missions, objectives, working conditions, financial structure, and their attitude toward to employees (Weisbrod, 1998a; Boris, 2001; Nelson, 2001; Goulet and Frank, 2002). The aim of this paper is to examine the extent to which these differences are manifest in terms of employees’ commitment to their employing organizations, and whether this commitment is differentially related to managerial support and job satisfaction across the three sectors.

**Organizational Commitment**

Organizations need commitment from their employees in order to reduce costs and improve performance, service and product quality. Therefore, organizational commitment is vital for both for-profit and nonprofit organizations. Such commitment is enhanced pragmatically by building trust, teamwork, and employee empowerment, methods that were often developed in the nonprofit sector but are now being increasingly effectively used in the for-profit sector (Daft, 2001). Organizations must invest in human resources and retain personnel in order to reach their objectives. Research shows that employees with higher levels of commitment to their organizations’ objectives have better relations with coworkers, have higher levels of personal satisfaction, lower levels of absenteeism and personnel turnover, and perform their jobs better than employees with lower level commitment (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Suliman, 2002; Obeng and Ugboro, 2003).

There are many definitions of organizational commitment, developed by scholars according to their interest area. In some studies it has been defined in terms of employees’ emotions and psychological characteristics (Kanter, 1968; Morrow et al., 1983; O’Reilley, 1989); other studies focus on employees’ physical and moral expectations and define commitment in terms of employees’ personal objectives (Becker, 1960; Mowday and Steers, 1979; Wiener, 1982).
Instead of creating a new definition, this study uses a definition developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) in which organizational commitment is considered in terms of employees’ perceptions and expectations of their organizations. In this approach, there are three components: affective, normative and continuance commitment. Employees with strong affective commitment stay in the organization because they desire to. Employees with a high level of normative commitment stay in the organization because they feel obliged to. Employees who have a high level of continuance commitment stay in the organization because they need to (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Affective commitment is a matter of employees’ embracing organizational objectives and values (Allen and Meyer, 1990). If the employee and organization share the same objectives, affective commitment increases and the employee become happier.

Normative commitment refers to employees’ loyalty towards the organization; they consider staying in the organization an ethical responsibility (Stephens et al., 2004).

Continuance commitment refers to employees’ staying in the organization because of their fear of losing their salaries or other benefits (Bergman, 2006). Among their reasons for staying is their inability to find another job, reluctance to leave their coworkers, losing retirement benefits, unwillingness to relocate, alongside other economic, social and psychological issues (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Allen and Grisaffe, 2001).

Managerial Support

Managerial support for employees plays an important role in organizational effectiveness. Both nonprofit and for-profit organizations need effective managers or leaders to motivate employees (Drucker, 1992). Employees see the managers who evaluate their performance and report to higher level management as representatives of the organization. As a result, employees perceive the support from their managers as organizational support (Eisenberger, 2002). Employees who consider their manager to be qualified, trustworthy, and whose managerial style they like are more inclined to share the organization’s values and objectives, and to value the organization (Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Benkhoff, 1997). Managers with a democratic management style involve employees in the decision-making process and as a result employees show better performance (Savery, 1993; Dick and Metcalfe, 2001).

Research shows that there is a linear positive relationship between managerial support and organizational commitment: the higher the level of organizational support that employees feel they receive, the higher their levels of organizational commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Dick and Metcalfe, 2001). Conversely, lower levels of managerial support reduce organizational commitment and cause lower levels of performance and higher levels of turnover, absenteeism, and stress (Shanock and Eisenberger, 2006). Bureaucratic organizations, in which managerial support is by definition low, have relatively low levels of employee commitment (Dick and Metcalfe, 2001).

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction – employees’ happiness with their job – has been widely studied by both researchers and practitioners, and many companies invest in increasing their employees’ job satisfaction because studies have shown that higher levels of satisfaction produce higher levels of employee motivation and organizational commitment. Higher-level satisfaction is an important element of organizational effectiveness, service and product quality (Eskildsen and Dahlgaard, 2000). Managers alert to the importance of job satisfaction know that happy employees, compared with unhappy employees, are more effective, innovative, careful, sensitive and hardworking, and they have lower levels of absenteeism and turnover (Günbayı, 2000).

There are many definitions of job satisfaction in the literature. In one, job satisfaction is simply defined as employees’ feelings about different dimensions of their job; it is the degree of their pleasure in their job (Spector, 1997). Conversely, job dissatisfaction refers to unpleasant feelings about the job (Locke, 1968). There is a close relationship between lower levels of job satisfaction and turnover, poor performance, absenteeism, bad relations with coworkers, and other organizational handicaps (Rue and Bayars, 1995; Erdoğan, 1997; Spector, 1997). Research shows that there is a positive relation between customer satisfaction and employee satisfaction, especially in public organizations (Matzler et al., 2004).
There is a positive relationship between an organization’s customer loyalty and therefore profit, on the one hand, and employees’ satisfaction and loyalty, on the other, because customer satisfaction increases with the higher quality services and products provided by satisfied employees (Heskett et al., 2008).

**Relationship Among Managerial Support, Job Satisfaction And Organizational Commitment**

That higher-level organizational commitment and job satisfaction are related to managerial support and managerial style is well established (Savery 1991; Cohen, 1992; Zeffane 1994). Effective managers make positive impressions on other people in the organization and this enhances organizational commitment (McNeese and Smith, 1997; Terzi and Kurt, 2005). If managers provide a supportive environment for employees, then employees make more effort to achieve organizational goals (Zangaro, 2001; Giffords, 2009).

Numerous studies find a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Shore and Martin, 1989; Querstein et al., 1992; Begley, 1993; Tett and Meyer, 1993; Lum et al., 1998; Tutar, 2007; Yang and Chang, 2007). The higher employees’ job satisfaction, the lower is personnel turnover and absenteeism (Shore and Martin, 1989; Shally et al., 2000; Schwepker Jr., 2001). Conversely, when job satisfaction level is low, employees’ commitment to the organization is also low and they have tendency to seek different job opportunities (Leiter and Maslach, 1988; Silverthorne, 2005).

**Theoretical Model and Hypotheses**

In the light of the existing literature, it is hypothesized that there is a positive linear relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction, and between job satisfaction and the three components of organizational commitment: affective, normative and continuance. It is further hypothesized that there is also a direct linear relationship between managerial support and the three components of organizational commitment. The conceptual model of this study is presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1 Hypothesized model](image-url)

Based on the model and the anticipated differences between the three sectors, the following hypotheses were tested:

- **Hypothesis 1:** There is a positive relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction.
- **Hypothesis 2a:** There is a positive relationship between managerial support and affective commitment.
- **Hypothesis 2b:** There is a positive relationship between managerial support and normative commitment.
- **Hypothesis 2c:** There is a positive relationship between managerial support and continuance commitment.
- **Hypothesis 3a:** There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.
- **Hypothesis 3b:** There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment.
- **Hypothesis 3c:** There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment.
- **Hypothesis 4:** There are differences among the nonprofit entrepreneurial, for-profit and public sectors in terms of the relationships between managerial support, job satisfaction and the three components of organizational commitment.
Methodology

The Research Area: This study was carried out in public, for-profit and nonprofit organizations in the areas of education and health. In Turkey’s liberal economy, there are more public sector organizations in these areas than for-profit and nonprofit organizations, though the last two sectors are developing (The Ministry of Health of Turkey Health Statistics Yearbook, 2010; Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education Statistics, 2011). All three sectors show competitive behavior as they attempt to minimize their costs and increase their profits. A significant difference between the sectors is that appointments to public sector organizations are determined centrally and financially supported by the public whereas in the other two sectors organizations make their own appointments and determine their own administrative structures, meeting the costs of these and other business processes from their own resources.

Study Design and Sample: In this study, all the samples apart from the non-profit health sector were taken from Diyarbakır, which is a large city located in the southeastern part of Turkey. As there is no nonprofit health sector in this province, the nonprofit health sector sample was selected from Konya, a large city located in the central Turkey. The numbers of organizations operating in these two locations are: 10 public hospitals, 7 for-profit hospitals, 2 nonprofit hospitals and 174 public schools, 17 for-profit schools, 5 nonprofit schools. From the schools operating in the center of Diyarbakır, 4 public, 3 private, and 2 nonprofit schools were selected by lot, and from the hospitals operating in the center of the two cities, 1 public, 2 private, and 1 nonprofit hospital were selected by lot. Survey questionnaires were delivered randomly, proportional to the number of personnel in each organization. All information was collected in 2010. The target sample was 750 employees working in the selected organizations; 626 of these employees responded and 614 (82%) of the returns were used as the data of the study. Twelve questionnaires were excluded from the analysis due to missing data.

The survey instrument: The survey consisted of questions derived from the literature. There were 9 questions in the managerial support section and 14 questions in job satisfaction section. Organizational commitment was measured by the scale developed by Allen and Mayer (1990), which covers three dimensions (affective, normative, continuance) of commitment. There was also a demographic information section in the survey.

Demographic Information: Information about the demographic characteristics of the participants was collected, covering their age, gender, education level, marital status, tenure, unit worked in, and rank, alongside working hours per week and wages per month.

Managerial Support: A five-point Likert scale was used for each of the 9 questions, scored from 1 to 5 where the number (1) means strongly dissatisfied, (2) dissatisfied, (3) neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, (4) satisfied and (5) strongly satisfied. The combined scale, formed by summing the values of the nine items, has a Cronbach’s alpha score of 0.931, indicating a high level of internal consistency. Skewness and Kurtosis scores are between -2 and +2, which indicate that it has a normal distribution.

Job satisfaction: The same five-point Likert scale was used for each of the 14 questions. The Cronbach’s alpha score of the combined scale is 0.898. Skewness and Kurtosis scores are between -2 and +2 indicating that it too has a normal distribution.

Organizational Commitment: The scale developed by Allen and Mayer (1990) has been used in numerous studies and these have confirmed its validity and reliability as a measure of affective, normative and continuance commitment. Affective commitment was measured using 9, normative commitment was measured using 9, and continuance commitment was measured using 7 questions. The five-point Likert scale was again used for all these questions. The Cronbach’s alpha score for affective commitment is 0.83, for normative commitment 0.70 and continuance commitment 0.50. Skewness and Kurtosis scores are between -2 and +2 again indicating that the distributions are normal.

SPSS 18.0 software was used to analyze the data using correlation and regression tests. The significance level for acceptance was set as p<0.05.
Findings

Demographic variables
The distribution of the respondents over the demographic variables is presented in Table 1. It is notable that there are higher proportions of women and of single people in the for-profit sector compared with the other two sectors; and that among the respondents in the public sector, higher proportions are older, have higher education qualifications and have longer tenure than in the other two sectors. Wages are higher in the public sector than in the nonprofit sector (the for-profit respondents did not report their wages). Working hours are shorter in the public sector compared with the other two sectors.

Table 1 Demographic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic variables</th>
<th>Nonprofit Frequency n=217</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>For-profit Frequency n=211</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Public Frequency n=186</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>112</td>
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<tr>
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<td>38.2</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>30.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 +</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
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<td>14.7</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>91.4</td>
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<td><strong>Marital status</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Married</td>
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<td>73.7</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>74.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>24.7</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.0</td>
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<td>Teacher</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>53.8</td>
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<td>Staff</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.2</td>
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<td><strong>Tenure</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>25.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working hours(Per week)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Education sector</td>
<td>36</td>
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<td>26.5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Health sector</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wages(Permonth/Turkish Lira)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education sector (only teacher)</td>
<td>1700</td>
<td>n/r</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health sector (doctor-nurse)</td>
<td>5200–1950</td>
<td>n/r</td>
<td>5750 – 2500</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=614

There are some statistically significant differences in the components of commitment between people with different demographic characteristics (not presented here). For example, women’s normative commitment is higher than men’s in the nonprofit sector but lower than men’s in the for-profit sector. And, in the nonprofit sector, married people have higher continuance commitment than single people. However, when all the demographic variables are combined in a multivariate analysis, the only statistically significant relationship that remains is between educational level and affective commitment. This perhaps holds because the more highly educated respondents have been better able to secure employment in organizations whose values they embrace.
There are some differences between the health and education respondents. For example, employees working in health related organizations (especially medical doctors) stated that they had less managerial support, job satisfaction, and affective commitment than employees in educational organizations. Although such differences warrant investigation, they are not pursued further here.

### Table 2 Correlations of managerial support and job satisfaction with affective, normative, and continuance commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Managerial support</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managerial support</td>
<td>.789***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>.439**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative</td>
<td>.441**</td>
<td>.412**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 2 reveals that there are relatively strong correlations between both managerial support and job satisfaction and two components of commitment – affective and normative – but that there is no relation with the third component – continuance commitment.

### Table 3 Managerial support, job satisfaction, affective, continuity, and normative commitment compared with nonprofit, for-profit, and public sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managerial support</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>34.558</td>
<td>18.184</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For-profit</td>
<td>29.731</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>26.461</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>51.347</td>
<td>62.815</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For-profit</td>
<td>43.839</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>32.158</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>31.463</td>
<td>6.216</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For-profit</td>
<td>31.701</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>29.013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance commitment</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>22.131</td>
<td>3.085</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For-profit</td>
<td>21.457</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>23.142</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>30.920</td>
<td>11.668</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>25.808</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Levels of managerial support, job satisfaction, and three components of organizational commitment, controlling for demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, education, marital status), are presented in Table 3. As seen in Table 3, there are significant differences among non-profit, for-profit, and public organizations in terms of managerial support ($p<0.001$, $F=18.184$), job satisfaction ($p<0.001$, $F=62.815$) affective commitment ($p<0.001$, $F=6.216$), continuance commitment ($p<0.01$, $F=3.085$), and normative commitment ($p<0.001$, $F=11.668$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was accepted. The levels of managerial support and job satisfaction are highest in non-profit organizations, and lowest in public organizations. The levels of affective and normative commitment are significantly higher in non-profit and for-profit organizations than public organizations. However, the differences on levels of affective and normative commitment in non-profit and for-profit organizations are not statistically significant. The level of continuance commitment is highest in public organizations, and it is lowest in for-profit organizations.

**Table 4 The Effects of Managerial Support and Job Satisfaction on Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment by Sectors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Affective</th>
<th>Continuance</th>
<th>Normative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Managerial Support</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Profit</td>
<td>0.289*</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.427*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For-Profit</td>
<td>0.249*</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>0.454*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>0.262*</td>
<td>-0.130</td>
<td>0.473*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Profit</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>-0.338*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For-Profit</td>
<td>0.300*</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>0.197</td>
<td>-0.092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standardized coefficients are presented
* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Standardized effects of managerial support and job satisfaction on affective, continuance, and normative commitment, for demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, education, marital status), are shown in Table 4. The effects of managerial support are shown in the upper panel, and the effects of job satisfaction are shown in the lower panel. As shown in Table 4, the effect of managerial support on affective commitment is comparable across sectors. However, its effect on affective commitment is slightly stronger in non-profit organizations (i.e., .289) and weaker in for-profit organizations (i.e., .249). Managerial support does not have any significant effect on continuance commitment. The effect of managerial support on normative commitment is also comparable across sectors. Its effect is relatively stronger in public organizations (i.e., .473) and weaker in non-profit organizations (i.e., .427). Regarding job satisfaction, there are only two significant effects. Job satisfaction has a positive effect on affective commitment in only for-profit organizations (i.e., .300), and it has a negative effect on normative commitment in only non-profit organizations (i.e., -.338). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was accepted.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

In this study, working hours for nonprofit employees are longer than the other two sectors, and the salaries lower than employees in the public sector (for-profit employees did not declare their salaries). Yet, despite their longer working hours and lower salaries, the levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees working in nonprofits are higher than in the other two sectors. This is consistent with previous research that shows that employees working in nonprofits have intrinsic motivations whereas employees in for-profit organizations have different motivations such as higher salaries or promotion (Mirvis and Hacket, 1983).

When the organizations are compared according to the title of employees, medical doctors working in all three types of organizations stated lower level of satisfaction and commitment than other employees. It can be interpreted that doctors may have lower levels of satisfaction than any other group of employees since they consider themselves to be more educated and prestigious.
The first research question addressed in this study is whether there is any relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction, and between these two variables and three components of organizational commitment. The results demonstrate a positive relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction, and between these two variables and two components of organizational commitment, namely, affective and normative. However, there is no statistically significant relationship between continuance commitment and managerial support or job satisfaction. In other words, employees’ continuance commitment, that is, their need to continue working in their organization because of the high costs of leaving their jobs, is not influenced by managerial support or by job satisfaction. One reason for this finding might be that the study was conducted during the time of a global economic crisis when the threat of layoffs was increasing for many employees, although this argument cannot be tested without longitudinal data.

As to the second research question, there are significant differences in terms of levels of managerial support, job satisfaction, and components of organizational commitment across sectors, while controlling for demographic characteristics of employees. More specifically, first, the levels of managerial support and job satisfaction are highest in non-profit organizations and lowest in public organizations. These differences across sectors are statistically significant. Second, levels of affective and normative commitment are significantly higher in non-profit and for-profit organizations than public organizations. Third, the level of continuance commitment is highest in public organizations, and lowest in for-profit organizations. The differences across sectors are statistically significant. These results are consistent with some research findings (Mirvis and Hacket, 1983; Schaubrock and Ganster, 1991), but inconsistent with some more recent works (Cornille et al., 2006; Goulet and Frank, 2002).

All three components of organizational commitment are higher for non-profit employees than for the public sector. This fact accords with the typical characteristics of employees working in non-profit organizations as especially supportive of their organizational missions, being an indicator of both affective and normative commitment (Schaubrock and Ganster, 1991). It also accords with the stereotypical characteristics of nonprofit organizations as being particularly caring of their employees.

Some of the teachers and doctors in this study that are employed in the nonprofit sector were being provided with physical and moral support from their organizations, social and professional networks and support groups during their graduate education. It is understandable that this level of managerial support increases the level of normative commitment, with employees feeling both obligated to and loyal towards their employing organizations. However, the levels of affective and normative commitment in non-profit organizations are not higher than in for-profit organizations. The data acquired for this study does not provide sufficient information to explain the above-mentioned dilemma; further research with greater sample might shed light on this unexpected result.

It is a contested issue in the literature whether or not public sector employees are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment because they conduct valued work in serving the public. In some studies, for-profit sector employees’ level of satisfaction and commitment is higher than those of public sector employees (Odom et al., 1990; Zeffane, 1994), but other studies have shown that employees’ working in public sector have more satisfaction and commitment than the employees in the for-profit sector (Kline and Peters, 1991). Yet other studies have shown that there is no difference between these two sectors (Balfour and Wechsler, 1990; Steinhaus and Perry, 1996). In this study, there are significant differences among non-profit, for-profit, and public sector organizations in terms of managerial support, job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, while there is no difference in continuance commitment. The reason for the lower levels of managerial support, job satisfaction and affective and normative commitment in the public sector might be the negative effect of the bureaucratic structure of organizations in that sector (Dick and Metcalfe, 2001). If so, an implication for the nonprofit sector is to avoid bureaucratization, even if pushed in that direction through commercialization and by developments in contracting.

This study shows that managerial support has statistically significant effects on affective and normative commitment. Although there are slight differences on the effect sizes across sectors, these differences are not substantive. It also shows that managerial support does not have any significant effect on continuance commitment in any of the sectors, which is congruent with the expectations.
On the other hand, contrary to expectations, job satisfaction does not have any significant effect on affective commitment in non-profit and public organizations. That is, managerial support and job satisfaction is expected to have effects on affective and normative commitment, but not on continuance commitment.

On the other hand, contrary to expectations, job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on affective commitment only in for-profit organizations. Its effect on affective commitment in non-profit and public organizations is not significant. Moreover, job satisfaction has a significant negative effect on normative commitment only in non-profit organizations. Its effect on normative commitment in for-profit and public organizations is not significant. There are plausible explanations for these seemingly odd findings. That is, first, in Turkey, public employees’ continuance commitment overshadows their affective and normative commitment, which means affective and normative commitments are less relevant for public employees. Therefore, job satisfaction does not have any significant effect on affective and normative commitment in public organizations, although managerial support does have an effect.

Job satisfaction is not related to affective commitment, but negatively related to normative commitment in non-profit organizations. Maybe, in non-profit organizations, there are employees whose normative commitment is so high that they stay in the organization despite their low level of job satisfaction. Or, there are employees whose normative commitment is so low, but they stay in the organization because of high level of job satisfaction. That is, in non-profit organizations, employees stay in the organization either for high level of normative commitment or high level of job satisfaction.

The present study has some limitations, such as its sample size and cross-sectional design. Additionally, results of this study cannot easily be extrapolated to other nonprofit, for-profit and public sectors due to country related and cultural differences.

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References


